

LEADERSHIP AND SATISFACTION IN SOCCER:
EXAMINATION OF
CONGRUENCE AND PLAYERS' POSITION

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ABSTRACT

LEADERSHIP AND SATISFACTION IN SOCCER: EXAMINATION OF CONGRUENCE AND PLAYERS' POSITION

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The main purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship among preferred and perceived leadership, their congruence and satisfaction with leadership. The second purpose was to investigate the differences among the offensive, the defensive and the mid-field players of soccer teams in preferred leadership, perceived leadership and satisfaction with leadership. The five leader behaviors which were measured were: training and instruction, social support, positive feedback, democratic behavior, and autocratic behavior. The four aspects of leadership satisfaction, which were measured, were: individual performance satisfaction, team performance satisfaction, training and instruction satisfaction, and personal treatment satisfaction.

The subjects of the study were 138 male university soccer players from 7 of 9 universities in Ankara Region of Turkey. The athletes consisted of 38 offensive players, 49 defensive players, and 51 mid-field players. Data was collected through Leadership Scale for Sport (LSS) preference version and perception version, and Athlete Satisfaction Questionnaire (ASQ).

The study employed hierarchical regression procedures to test the congruence hypothesis derived from the multidimensional model of leadership. Results indicated athlete satisfaction was not dependent on the congruence between preferred and perceived leadership behavior. Additionally, results showed that there were no differences among the offensive, defensive, and mid-field players in preferred leadership, perceived leadership, and satisfaction with leadership.

Further research is needed with the multidimensional theory of leadership in varying sport groups and with greater number of participants to identify other situational and behavioral factors associated with athletic performance.

Key Words: coaching leadership behavior, satisfaction, congruence

ÖZ

FUTBOLDA LİDERLİK VE SPORCU TATMİNİ: TERCİH EDİLEN VE GERÇEK LİDERLİK DAVRANIŞI ARASINDAKİ UYUM VE SPORCU POZİSYONU AÇISINDAN DEĞERLENDİRİLMESİ

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Bu çalışmanın başlıca amacı, tercih edilen lider davranışları ve liderin gösterdiği gerçek davranışlar ile sporcu tatmini arasındaki ilişkiyi belirlemektir. Çalışmanın ikinci amacı, ileri, defans, ve orta saha oyuncularının tercih ettikleri davranışlar, gözlemledikleri gerçek davranışlar, ve tatmin düzeyleri açısından aralarındaki farkı belirlemektir. Ölçülen beş liderlik davranışı şunlardır: antrenman ve eğitim, sosyal destek, pozitif geribildirim, demokratik davranış, ve otoriter davranış. Kişisel performanstan tatmin olma, takım performansından tatmin olma, antrenman ve eğitimden tatmin olma, ve lider davranışından tatmin olma düzeyleri de ölçülmüştür.

Bu çalışmaya Ankara'daki 9 üniversitenin 7'sinden 138 erkek üniversite futbol oyuncusu katılmıştır. Bu oyuncuların 38'i ileri, 49'u defans, ve 51'i orta saha

oyuncusudur. Verilerin toplanmasında Sporda Liderlik Ölçüm anketi ve Sporcu Tatmini Anketi kullanılmıştır.

Tercih edilen lider davranışı ve liderin gösterdiği gerçek davranış arasındaki uyum ile sporcu tatmini arasındaki ilişkiyi ölçmek için çoklu regresyon analizi kullanılmıştır. Sonuç olarak sporcunun tatmin düzeyinin tercih edilen ve gerçek liderlik davranışı arasındaki uyum ile bir ilişkisi olmadığı saptanmıştır. Ayrıca, sonuçlar ileri, defans, ve orta saha oyuncularının tercih ettikleri ve gözlemledikleri gerçek liderlik davranışları ile tatmin düzeyleri açısından aralarında bir fark olmadığını ortaya çıkarmıştır.

Çokboyutlu Liderlik Teorisi ile farklı spor grupları ve daha çok katılımcının olduğu daha fazla çalışma, diğer çevresel ve davranışsal faktörleri tanımlamak için gereklidir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Antrenör liderlik davranışı, tatmin, uyum.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

LSS Leadership Scale for Sport

ASQ Athlete Satisfaction Questionnaire

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Leadership is a topic of continuing popular and debatable. For many decades, the study of leadership has been critically important to understand the performance and effectiveness of the organizations. The study of leadership continues to increase in importance as a determinant of effective functioning of the organization (Kent & Chelladurai, 2001).

There seem to be growing numbers of books and thousands of articles on leadership, which have increased our understanding of leadership. There are also almost as many different definitions as there are persons who attempted to define concept (Bass, 1990). Most definitions of leadership contain a reference to the behavioral process of influencing individuals or groups toward set goals and achievement these goals (Stogdill, 1974; Barrow, 1977). Additionally, for Bass (1985) leadership is “an interaction between two or more members of a group that often involves a structuring and restructuring of the situation and the perceptions and expectations of the members”. Rosenbach and Taylor (1993) identified that “leadership is all about getting people to work together to make things happen that

might not otherwise occur or prevent things from happening that ordinarily would take place.”

There is no one and only proper and true definition but it is important to define leadership in terms of acts, behavior, or roles played; its centrality to group process; and compliance with the observed performance and also perceived influence and power relations according to aspects of leadership in which one is interested in (Bass, 1990).

Leadership is a vital force for successful organizations, and effective leadership can help the organization develop new directions and promote change toward proposed objectives (Bennis & Nanus, 1985). Kotter (1988) argues that more leadership is needed for organizations to successfully adjust greater worldwide competition and increased complexity. For this reason, today, high expectations are set for leaders for successful organizations and leaders are seen to an organization's survival (Taylor & Rosenbach, 1989). Lord and Maher (1993) argues that effective leaders influence subordinates' decisions or policies in ways that change subordinates' tasks or behaviors and have an impact on performance and accomplishment organizational objectives.

As a determinant of performance and success, the importance of leadership has been reflected in the literature dealing with this subject. A number of theories have been proposed to determine trait or personality of leaders that are result in leader effectiveness and determine how influence organization and follower effectiveness. Each of the theories, indicated to extend an earlier work or propose a new framework for understanding leadership, was the focus of intensive research

until the theory was proven to be inadequate in explaining this phenomenon (Kent & Chelladurai, 2001). During the early and middle years of this century, a large number of researchers tried to identify the traits of and characteristics of leaders. These researchers believed that leaders are born with certain traits that make them more effective in leadership positions. Because the trait approach was found unsuccessful, some researchers turned their attention to the behaviors of leaders during the 1950s and early 1960s. Behavioral theories claimed that leaders could be trained to exhibit certain leadership behaviors. However, leadership effectiveness is not only a function of individual characteristics but also a function of situational (Gibb, 1969). In contrast to previous trait or behavior theories, the importance of situational analysis valued by contingency theories. The contingency theory of leadership predicts that a leader's effectiveness will be determined by the leader's traits and leader's control of situation (Wann, 1997). Four theories have considered both leader behaviors and situational differences: Fiedler's (1967) contingency model, Hersey and Blanchard's (1972) situational theory, House's (1971) path-goal theory, and Chelladurai and Caron's (1978) Multidimensional Model of Leadership.

The concept of leadership also exists in the context of sport. Some researchers have tried to translate some of leadership concepts to the realm of athletics (Smith & Smoll, 1989; Chelladurai, 1993) to understand effective sport leadership clearly.

Smith & Smoll (1989) posited a Cognitive Behavioral Model of Leadership specifies individual difference variables, situational factors and cognitive processes assumed to mediate the interactions between athletes and coaches. The contingency

model of leadership in athletics, Chelladurai (1993) proposed a Multidimensional Model of Leadership to apply situational leadership theory directly in sport setting. The model focuses on the three aspects of coaching leadership a) actual behavior, b) preferred behavior, and c) required behavior. The three aspects represent the characteristics of the coach, the athlete and the situation. In this model, performance and satisfaction of the athlete are viewed as the products of the interaction of these three aspects of coaching leadership. A central thesis of the MML is that congruence between preferred and actual leadership behavior enhances athletes' satisfaction. Athlete satisfaction can be used as a measure of organizational effectiveness (Chelladurai & Riemer, 1997).

In the athletic leadership literature, most research focused on the Chelladurai's Multidimensional Model of Leadership to examine leadership behavior and its relationship to athletes' satisfaction.

By using this leadership model, researchers have studied coaching leadership and athletic performance and satisfaction by examining the influence of specific coach behaviors and antecedents variables such as individual differences (gender, experience, motivations, maturity, ability) and situational variables (organizational goals, task attributes, culture, institutional variables) that influence relationship between leader behavior and subordinate satisfaction and performance. For example, organizational goals reflected between competitive and recreational sports (Erle, 1981), institutional variables of size and funding (Weiss & Friedrichs, 1986), maturity (Chelladurai & Carron, 1983), nationality (Chelladurai, Imamura, Yamaguchi, Oinuma, & Miyauchi, 1988), player ability and gender (Riemer &

Toon, 2001), gender of coaches (Ipinmoroti, 2002), task characteristics (Chelladurai, 1984; Chelladurai & Riemer, 1995; Ipinmoroti,2002), player experience (Dwyer & Fischer, 1990) have been used in the analysis of sport leadership.

It is generally accepted that the effects of a coach on a team performance are important. Since coaches are the leaders for skill and personal development of athletes and the leaders for pursuing athletic objectives, coaching leadership received increasing attention during the past twenty years. Leadership style is considered by many coaches to be an important factor in team success. Most coaches use different leadership styles at one time or another to different situations. Some styles are more suitable in certain situations than others. For this reason, it is beneficial for the coach to know which leadership behaviors will facilitate performance.

In the sports research literature leadership has been studied primarily in terms of coaching leadership and its effects on player performance (Chelladurai & Carron, 1983; Chelladurai, 1984; Horne & Carron, 1985; Weiss & Friedrichs, 1986; Schliesman, 1987; Chelladurai, Imamura, Yamaguchi, Oinuma, & Miyauchi, 1988; Garland & Barry, 1988; Dwyer & Fischer, 1990; Riemer & Chelladurai, 1995; Jambor & Zhang, 1997; Zhang & Jensen, 1997; Brooks, Ziatz, Jhonson, & Hollander, 2000; Riemer & Toon, 2001; Ipinmoroti, 2002).

Investigation of leadership behavior and the effects of leadership in athletic is needed to understand the performance of sport teams as an organization. Continuous investigation on coaching leadership can facilitate the improvement of

coaching performance and the evaluation of effectiveness of coaching leadership on athletic performance and satisfaction. Because effective coaching behavior has been shown to be an important determinant of team success and satisfaction. However, it is unfortunate that in Turkey, there a few studies interest in sport leadership (Sevil, 1997; Öztürk, 2000) and it is surprising that there has not been a study on coaching leadership and the effects of coach's leadership behaviors on athlete satisfaction. It is needed to examine coaching leadership and players' satisfaction and performance in Turkey for the understanding effects of certain leadership behaviors on performance to be more successful.

In Turkey, soccer has an extensive influence on society. This influence manifested in the great number of fans of soccer teams their intense supports of their favorite teams. As an example, Fenerbahce, one of the 18 soccer teams in Turkish super league, has 25 million fans. Also, the great number of soccer clubs. In 1999, there were 5988 sport clubs in Turkey and 4828 of them were soccer clubs (Sunay, 1999). Another indication of the influence of soccer is the extent to which it covered by print, broadcast, and electronic media. For these reasons, soccer was chosen to examine the relationship between coaching leadership and players' satisfaction in this study. Further, any study done regarding leadership in soccer also may be profitably used in other sports.

In addition giving the significance of soccer in Turkey, one advantage to chose soccer is also that soccer teams consists more players when compared other sports such as basketball, volleyball. Also, Riemer and Chelladurai (1995) suggested that one of the difficulties in comparing results of previous studies is that

they included various sports that differed on the task attributes of dependence and variability. But situational variables also differed such as organizational size, popularity, and accompanying public pressure to perform. In order to avoid this difficulty, it is better to select a single sport with contrasting task variability and dependence in a single team. It provides an opportunity to control other situational variables.

In the present study, a single soccer team is separated as three units according to players' positions in the game: the offensive, the defensive and the mid-field. Riemer and Chelladurai (1995) have also used this approach. They also separated a football team according to players' positions as the offensive and the defensive. The three units (the offensive, the defensive and the mid-field) represent contrasting levels of task variability. Variability refers to the degree of environmental changes to which the athlete expected to respond. Low variability tasks involve a "closed" form of behavior, while high variability task involve an "open" form of behavior (Chelladurai, 1984).

The main purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between congruence of preferred and perceived leadership and satisfaction with leadership among university soccer teams in Ankara region of Turkey. The second purpose was to investigate the differences among the offensive, the defensive and the mid-field players of soccer teams regarding to preferred leadership, perceived leadership and satisfaction with leadership.

1.1. Statement of the Problem

The main purpose of this study was to examine the relationships between congruence of preferred and perceived leadership and satisfaction with leadership. The second purpose was to investigate the differences between the offensive, the defensive and mid-field players of soccer teams in preferred leadership, perceived leadership and satisfaction with leadership b) These relationships and differences were examined among the soccer players from the selected university soccer teams in Ankara region of Turkey.

1.2. Significance of the Study

Although, leadership has been great value in athletics and sport, very little leadership research in athletic settings has been obtained in Turkey. Unfortunately, there is no study to examine the relationship between leader's behavior and athlete's satisfaction in Turkey. The leadership behaviors in athletics have been largely neglected. This brought the need of studying this subject. Therefore, this study helps coaches to understand the importance of leadership ability as a determinant of success for sport organizations. Also, this study may encourage them to seek greater understanding of leadership behaviors that will produce the strongest influence on team performance.

1.3. Hypothesis

It was postulated that the following hypothesis would be supported by the results of current study.

1. There are relationships among preferred and perceived leadership, their congruence and satisfaction with leadership.
2. There are differences among the offensive, the defensive, and the mid-field soccer players in preferred leadership.
3. There are differences among the offensive, the defensive, and the mid-field soccer players in perceived leadership.
4. There are differences among the offensive, the defensive, and the midfield soccer players in satisfaction with leadership.

1.5. Definition of Terms

Leader: Leader is a person that leads, directing, commanding, or guiding head, as of a group or activity (Stenerson, 1995, Webmaster's New World Dictionary).

Leadership: Leadership is the position or guidance of a leader. The ability to lead (Stenerson, 1995, Webmaster's New World Dictionary).

MML (Multidimensional Theory of Leadership): A theory of leadership focusing on the congruence among three leadership behavioral states: required, preferred, and actual (Chelladurai, 1993).

Training and Instruction (TI): Coaching behavior aimed at improving the athlete's performance by emphasizing and facilitating hard and strenuous training; instructing them in the skills, techniques and tactics of the sport; clarifying the relationship among the members; and structuring and co-ordinating the members' activities (Chelladurai, 1993).

Democratic Behavior (DB): Coaching behavior that allows greater athlete participation in decisions pertaining to group goals, practice methods, and game tactics and strategies (Chelladurai, 1993).

Autocratic Behavior (AB): Coaching behavior that involves independence in decision making and stresses personal authority (Chelladurai, 1993).

Social Support (SS): Coaching behavior characterized by a concern for welfare of individual athletes, positive group atmosphere, and warm interpersonal relations with members (Chelladurai, 1993).

Positive Feedback (PF): Coaching behavior that reinforces an athlete by recognizing and rewarding good performance (Chelladurai, 1993).

Athlete Satisfaction: A positive affective state resulting from a complex evaluation of the structures, processes, and outcomes associated with the athletic experience (Chelladurai & Riemer, 1997).

Individual Performance Satisfaction (IP): An athlete's satisfaction with his or her own task performance. Task performance includes absolute performance, improvements in performance, and goal achievement (Chelladurai & Riemer, 1997).

Team Performance Satisfaction (TP): An athlete's satisfaction with his or her team's level of performance. Task performance includes absolute performance, goal achievement, and implies performance improvements (Chelladurai & Riemer, 1997).

Training and Instruction Satisfaction (T&I): Satisfaction with the training and instruction provided by the coach (Chelladurai & Riemer, 1997).

Personal Treatment Satisfaction (PT): Satisfaction with those coaching behaviors that directly affect the individual yet directly affects team development. It includes social support and positive feedback (Chelladurai & Riemer, 1997).

1.5. Assumptions

The following assumptions were made regarding this study:

- 1 It was assumed that the participants answered the surveys honestly and truthfully.
- 2 It was assumed that the subjects completed Leadership Scales of Sport (LSS) and Athlete Satisfaction Questionnaire (ASQ) unbiasedly and truthfully.
- 3 It was assumed that all data collected were compiled from all subjects in the same manner.

1.6 Limitations

The following items were identified as limitations for this study:

- 1 This study was limited with the university soccer teams in Ankara region of Turkey.
- 2 Results of the study were limited with the answers of the subjects to the LSS and the ASQ applied.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

In this section explored leadership literature in three areas: a) the theories of leadership, b) sport specific approaches to leadership, and c) research related to leadership studies by using Leadership Scale for Sport (LSS).

2.1. Leadership Theories

The word “leadership” is a sophisticated, modern concept. In earlier times, words meaning “head of state”, “military commander”, “princeps”, “proconsul”, “chief” or “king” were common in most societies. These words differentiated the ruler from other members of society. Although the Oxford English Dictionary noted the appearance of the word “leader” in the English language as early as the year 1300, the word “leadership” did not appear until the first half of nineteenth century in writings about political influence and control of British Parliament and the word did not appear in the most other modern languages until recent times (Bass, 1990).

Today, there are many different definitions of leadership but there still appears to be no generally accepted definition of leadership. Burns (1978) stated that leadership is one of the least understood phenomena on earth. However, in order to

make clear understanding of leadership phenomena, social scientists and behavioral psychologists have studied leadership for several decades and developed leadership theories. Leadership theories can be classified in three approaches. The first approach focused on the traits of great leaders. It was believed that successful leaders have certain personality that make them to be successful leaders in every situations and great leaders were born not made. The second approach focused on behaviors of effective leaders. Behaviorists argued that anyone could be great leader by learning behaviors of other effective leaders. Because of the weakness and fallacy of trait and behavioral approaches, leadership researchers focused on situational factors that are important to leadership success. Whereas trait and behavioral approaches, situational approach (the third approach) assumes that there is not one best type of leader but that leadership effectiveness depends on interaction between the leader and situation.

2.1.1. Trait Theories

In the 1920's and 1930's, leadership research focused on trying to identify the traits that differentiated leaders from non-leaders. These early leadership theories focused on "what" an effective leader is, not on 'how' to effectively lead. The trait approach suggested that physical, intellectual and personality traits are inherent in leaders. Because leadership traits thought to be stable to be successful leader, leaders who were successful in one situation were expected to be successful in every situation. Sets of common traits and characteristics, such as intelligence,

assertiveness, independence, self-confidence, initiative, and self-assurance, to great leaders were identified to assist in selecting the right people to become leaders.

Attempts were also made in sport to identify successful coaches according to the trait view. In their study, Ogilvie and Tutko (1966) profiled typical coach as someone who is authoritarian, independent in their thinking, and realistic in their perspective and emotionally mature.

This approach had a great deal of support from social scientists prior to and during World War II, but lost favor around the end of World War II, when Stogdill (1948) published his review of 124 trait- related studies of leadership and found only a couple of consistent personality traits and he concluded that it was simply not possible to evidence that successful leaders have a universal set of leadership traits. In addition, in his review of the sport personality literature, Sage (1975) made the same conclusion relative to leadership in sport. As a result of Sage's review, the number of sport studies investigating trait leadership was discontinued. Trait theory has not been able to identify a set of traits that consistently distinguish leaders from followers. The limiting aspect of the trait theory was de-emphasized to take into account situational conditions.

2.1.2. Behavioral Theories

To measure traits, researchers had to rely on constructs that were lack of reliability and also lack of validity because of given differing definitions. After World War II, owing to the problems with the trait approach became evident;

researchers turned their attention to leader behaviors. Researchers decided to examine the behaviors of successful leaders. Unlike trait theory, this approach stressed that “leaders are made, not born” (Cox, 1998). Researchers interested in “how” a leader leads not “what” a leader is.

This approach to leadership was very optimistic. Behaviorists argued that anyone could learn to become a potential leader by learning the behaviors of other effective leaders. In fact, several different successful leader behaviors have been identified. First, leaders can be categorized either autocratic or democratic. Second, leaders can be classified as directive or as permissive. Third, some leaders are task oriented while others are people oriented.

Two important products or concepts with leadership behaviors were undertaken by the University of Michigan and by Ohio State University by attempts to define more specific leadership dimensions (Stogdill, 1959).

2.1.2.1. Ohio State University Leadership Studies

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

1. Consideration behavior: Consideration refers to “the leader’s behavior which is indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect, and warmth in the relationship

between the leader and the members of his or her staff” (Halpin, 1959). Leaders who scored high on consideration had good rapport and communication with others.

2. Initiating structure behavior: Initiating structure refers to “ the leader’ s behavior in delineating the relationship between himself or herself and members of the work and in endeavoring to establish well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and methods of procedure” (Halpin, 1959). Leaders who scored high on initiating structure were active in directing groups’ activities, communicating, scheduling, and experimenting new ideas.

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

2.1.2.2. University of Michigan Studies

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

1. Employee centered behavior: An employee-centered leader is interested in ensuring employees are satisfied with their job and in the needs of their

followers and differences among them. The employee-centered leader also encourages worker participation by developing a cohesive work group.

2. Production centered behavior: A production-centered leader emphasizes technical aspects of job and is concerned with the performance. The production-centered leader sets job standards and explains work procedures.

The primary concern of leaders with considerate and employee-centered style is the employee's welfare. The primary concern of leaders with initiating-structure and production-centered styles are achieving goals.

2.1.2.3 The Managerial Grid Theory

The results of behavioral studies were incorporated into a grid proposed by Blake and Mouton (1964). The Managerial Grid utilizes the concern for people versus concern for production proposed by both the Ohio State and University of Michigan studies. It identifies five different types of leadership based on concern for production and concern for people

The five leadership styles of the managerial grid include impoverished, country club, task oriented, middle-of-the road, and team. The impoverished style is located at the lower left-hand corner of the grid, point (1, 1). It is characterized by low concern for both people and production. The country club style is located at the upper left-hand corner of the grid, point (1, 9). It is characterized as a high concern for people and a low concern for production. The task-oriented style is located at the lower right-hand corner of the grid, point (9,1). A high concern for production

and a low concern for people characterize it. The middle-of-the-road style is located at the middle of the grid, point (5, 5). A balance between workers' needs and the organization's productivity goals characterize it. The team style is located at the upper right-hand of the grid, point (9, 9). It is characterized by a high concern for people and production. This research concluded that managers perform best under a 9,9 style, as contrasted with a 9,1 or the 1,9 styles.

More recently researchers have focused on leadership behaviors of the coach. When these various behavioral theories were applied to sport, it was found that the most desired behaviors of coaches were training for competencies, providing social support, and being rewarding (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1978). However, according to Chelladurai and Carron (1978) and Singer (1972), the behavioral theories on coaching leadership usually lack of consideration of situational factors.

2.1.3 Contingency Theories

Trait and behavioral approaches emphasize personal factors at the absence of considering both individual and situational factors that are important to leadership success. The contingency theories attempted to explain the appropriate leadership style based on the leader, followers, and situation. It was suggested that effective leadership is a function of the interaction of the situation and personal characteristics.

There were several approaches to isolate situational variables. Some of these approaches which have acquired more successful recognition are presented in this study.

2.1.3.1. Fiedler's Contingency Model

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

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

1. Leader- member relations: a Leader- member relation refers to the feelings subordinates have for the leader. Good relations result in respect and trust by followers, and group cooperation and effort.
2. Task Structure: Task structure concerns the extent to which the followers' jobs are structured or unstructured.
3. Position Power: Position power concerns the leader's ability to force workers to comply with his or her demands.

According to Fiedler (1967), the effectiveness of the group depends on two factors: The personality of leader, and the degree to which the situations give the leader power, control and influence over the situation. In terms of personality, Fiedler believes that leaders are either relationship motivated or task motivated. Relationship motivation refers to concern with the interpersonal relationship between leader and followers. Task motivation refers to the leader's concern with the accomplishing the task at hand.

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

Unfriendly 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 Friendly

Uncooperative 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 Cooperative

Hostile 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 Supportive

Guarded 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 Open

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

The application of Fiedler's model to sport might imply that a coach who is successful in one situation might not be so in other (Murray & Mann, 1993). Reviews of sport oriented research testing this theory have found little support for the model (Carron, 1980). In addition, based on his examination of the literature,

Cox (1990) concluded, “it would appear that Fiedler’s contingency theory is not applicable to sport settings.”

Fiedler’s theory differs from most situational theories, since the emphasis is on relatively stable personality traits, as opposed to behaviors (Cox, 1998). On the other hand, in other situation specific theories the focus is on the situational specific behaviors, rather than personality dispositions (Murray & Mann, 1993).

2.1.3.2 House’s Path Goal Theory

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

The leader’s success is viewed in terms of whether or not the subordinates achieve their goals. This is done by rewarding subordinates for goal attainment, pointing out roadblocks and pitfalls on the path to success, and increasing the opportunities for personal satisfaction (Cox, 1998). The extent to which such guidance and support will be provided is dependent upon the ability and personality of the subordinate (Chelladrai and Carron, 1983). Path-Goal theory assumes that leaders are flexible and that they can change their style, as situations require.

“Path- goal theory has not been investigated much either in or out sport environments, perhaps due to lack of clarity. However, Chelladurai and Saleh

(1978) looked at the theory from a sport context and reported partial support for path-goal theory. Individuals who demonstrated a preference for team sports also indicated a preference for leader behavior that was calculated to improve performance through training procedures. Thus, leader behavior correlated with the athletes' preference for an independent type of sport. As predicted by the theory, a particular athlete personality consistently preferred a particular leader behavior.” (Cox, 1998).

2.1.3.3. Hersey – Blanchard Situational Leadership Model

The Hersey-Blanchard (1972) Situational Leadership theory is based on “the amount of direction (task behavior) and amount of socio-emotional support (relationship behavior) a leader must provide given the situation and the ‘level of maturity’ of the followers”

This theory places the emphasis in leader behavior on the subordinates and not on the leader. Hersey and Blanchard (1969, 1977, and 1982) proposed that effective leaders could and should adjust their leadership style to respond to the life cycle needs of their followers and to the environment. Hersey and Blanchard (1982) suggested that an appropriate leadership style for a specific situation be determined by the maturity of the followers. Maturity is defined in terms of “ the capacity to set and obtain goals, willingness and ability to assume responsibility, and education or/and experience.” (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982).

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

1. Task Behavior: The extent the leaders engage in spelling out the duties and responsibilities to followers. This behavior includes telling people what to do, how to do it, when to do it, where to do it, and who's to do it. In task behavior the leader engages in one-way communication.
2. Relationship Behavior: The extent to which leaders engage in a two way communication, listen, provide support and encouragement, facilitate interaction, and involve the followers in decision making. This includes listening, facilitating, and supportive behaviors. In relationship behavior the leader engages in two-way communication by providing socio-emotional support.

The behavior of leader in relation to the follower(s) is then based on three variables: (1) the amount of guidance and direction a leader gives, or initiating behavior; (2) the amount of socioemotional support a leader gives, or consideration behavior; and (3) the maturity level of the followers as they perform a task.

In this theory four-leader behavior quadrants are:

1. Directing (S1): It is high task/low relationship behavior. The leader provides clear instructions and specific direction.
2. Coaching (S2): It is high task/ high relationship behavior. The leader encourages two-way communication and helps build confidence and motivation on the part

of the employee, although the leader still has responsibility and controls decision-making.

3. Supporting (S3): It is high relationship / low task behavior. With this style, the leader and followers share decision making and no longer need or expect the relationship to be directive.
4. Delegating (S4): It is low relationship / low task behavior. This style is appropriate for leaders whose followers are ready to accomplish a particular task and are both competent and motivated to take full responsibility.

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

“The concept of maturity also exists in the context of sport and physical activity. Paraphrasing Hersey and Blanchard, athletic maturity can be viewed as the relative mastery of skill and knowledge in sport, and experience and the capacity to set high but attainable goals. Because opportunities for participation in sport reflect a pyramid profile with advancing age and since the exclusive and selective nature of sport insures that only those athletes with the requisite abilities, knowledge, attitudes, and experience advance to each successive level in that pyramid, it can be assumed that athletic maturity increases as the athlete progress through the competitive levels of elementary, high school, university and professional sport” (Chelladurai & Carron, 1983).

The Hersey and Blanchard situational leadership theory has been tested in athletic settings and no support has been obtained (Chelladurai & Carron, 1983).

Case (1980) tested the validity of Hersey and Blanchard 's (1972) situational theory to sport setting by examining the relationship behaviors of 40 successful basketball coaches (and their athletes) from junior high, senior high, college, and A.A.U teams. The results did not support the theory that a high task structure and low relationship would exist at lowest level of competition and low task structure and high relationship at the highest level of competition. In addition, Chelladurai and Carron (1983) examined task oriented and relationship oriented behavior of basketball coaches from high school midget, junior, and senior divisions' university level. They did not find any support for the maturity –leader behavior hypothesis and they concluded that “the situational leadership theory may not have any relevance for sport because maturity, as defined by Hersey and Blanchard, remains largely unchanged with advancing chronological age and experience”

2.1.3.4. The Normative Theory of Leadership

The Normative theory is another approach to develop in the 1970s. Proposed by Vroom and his colleagues (Vroom and Yetton, 1973). This model is to design to examine the decision making of leaders. It provided a set of rules to determine the form and amount of participative decision making in different situation (Vroom & Yetton, 1973). Vroom's theory proposes five different methods of reaching a decision. The methods vary in the amount of input given to subordinates:

Autocratic I (AI): the leader makes the decision alone with the information already available.

Autocratic II (AII): the leader acquires information from subordinates and then decision alone, using the information gathered.

Consultative I (CI): the leader consults with subordinates individually, acquiring information and their suggestions/ comments. The leader then makes the decision alone, using the information gathered.

Consultative II (CII): the leader consults with subordinates in-group meeting, acquiring information and their suggestions/ comments. The leader then makes the decision alone, using information gathered.

Group Decision (GII): the leader consults with subordinates in a group meeting, acquiring information and their suggestions/ comments. The leader and subordinates then make the decision together -from Wann, 1997.

Chelladurai and Haggerty (1978) developed a normative model of decision styles in sport settings after the works of Vroom and his colleagues. Rather than using five decision styles in the manner of Vroom, Chelladurai and Haggerty's model includes three methods of decision making: autocratic, participative, and delegative. The autocratic style occurs when the coach makes the decision alone. The participative decision style occurs when the decision made by a group of individuals. The delegative decision style occurs when the coaches delegate the decision-making responsibilities to others such as assistant coaches and players. One conclusion that is found from the several research testing the validity of this

model is that delegation is quite rare in sport decision making (Chelladurai & Arnott, 1985).

2.2 A Sport Specific Approaches to Leadership

Only recently, two significant theoretical frameworks have been advanced for the study of leadership in sport settings (Riemer & Chelladurai, 1995).

Smoll and Smith and their associates have proposed one approach. They posited a cognitive - behavioral model of leadership which specifies individual difference variables, situational factors, and cognitive processes assumed to mediate overt coaching behaviors and athletes' reactions to them (Smith, Smoll & Curtis, 1978, 1979; Smith, Smoll, Curtis & Hunt, 1978; Smoll & Smith, 1980, 1989).

The second approach is exemplified by Chelladurai's Multidimensional Model of Leadership that focused on the congruence among three leadership behavioral states: required, actual, and preferred. The antecedents of these three states of leader behaviors are the characteristics of the situation, the leader, and the members (Chelladurai, 1978, 1990, 1993; Chelladurai & Carron, 1978).

2.2.1 The Leadership Behavior Model

Smoll and Smith (1989) proposed the leadership Behavior Model that is based upon situation specific behaviors of the leader. The model's central process is defined with lines leading from coach behaviors to player perception of coach behaviors to player responses. This model stipulates that the ultimate effects of coaching behaviors are mediated by the meaning that players attribute to them. In other words, cognitive and affective processes serve as filters between overt coaching behaviors and youngsters' attitudes toward their coach. Thus, this model measured and defined relationships existing between a) what coaches actually do, b) how these behaviors are perceived and recalled by their players, and c) children's attitudinal responses to the total situation (Smoll & Smith, 1989).

In the model, coach individual difference variables include such factors as goals, intentions, perceptions of self/athletes, and gender. Player individual difference variables include such things as age, gender, and perceptions about coach, motivation, anxiety, and self-confidence. Situational factors include such things as nature of sport, competitive level, success/failure, and team cohesion. Coach behavior is influenced by the coach's perception of the individual athlete. A coach may treat an athlete who exhibits low self-confidence or high anxiety differently from other athletes.

In order to observe and code coaching behaviors the Coaching Behavior Assessment System (CBAS) was developed by Smith, Smoll, and Hunt (1977). The

CBAS permits the direct observation and coding of coaches' leadership behaviors during practices and games (Smoll & Smith, 1989).

The observed behaviors are reactive and spontaneous in nature. The CBAS includes 12 categories that are divided into two classes of behaviors and spontaneous.

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

1. Reactive Behaviors

Responses to desirable performance.

- a. Reinforcement: a positive, rewarding reaction to a good play or good effort.
- b. Non reinforcement: failure to respond to a good performance.

Responses to Mistakes

- a. Mistake- contingent encouragement: encouragement given to player following a mistake.
- b. Mistake-contingent technical instruction: instructing and demonstrating to player how to correct a mistake he or she has made.
- c. Punishment: a negative reaction, verbal or non-verbal following mistake.
- d. Punitive technical instruction: technical instruction following a mistake given a punitive or hostile manner.
- e. Ignoring mistakes: failure to respond to a player mistake.

Responses to Misbehavior

- a. Keeping control: reactions intended to restore or maintain order among team members.

2. Spontaneous Behaviors

Game-Related

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

Game- Irrelevant

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

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

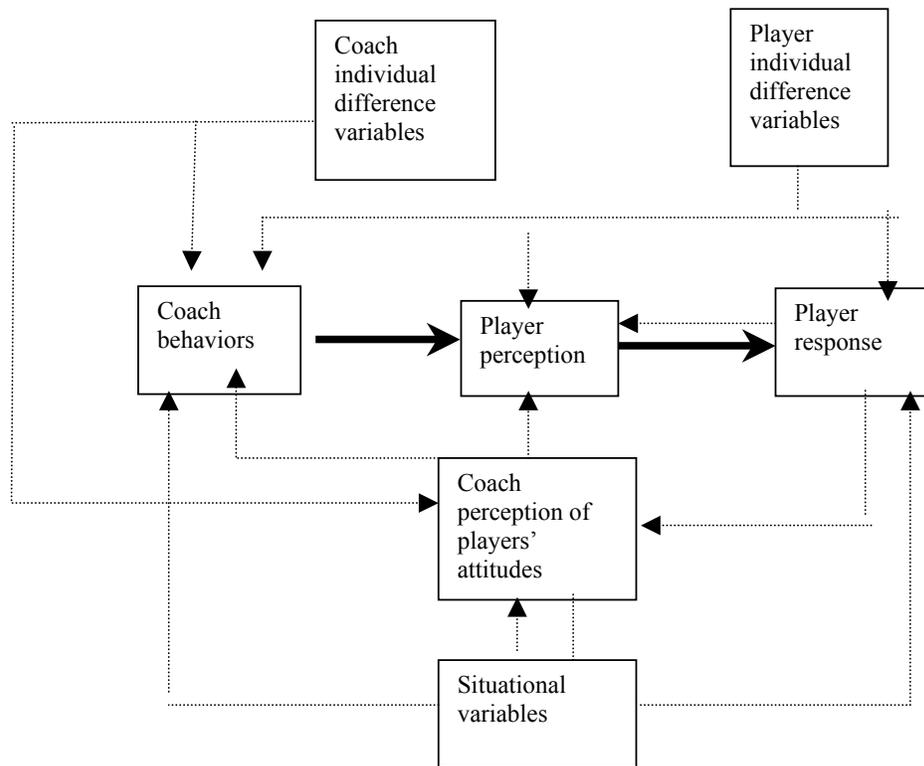


Figure 1. Leadership Behavior Model (Note. Adapted from “Leadership Behaviors in Sport: A theoretical model and research paradigm”, by F. L. Smoll and R.E. Smith, in *Journal of Applied Social psychology*, 1989, 19, 1522-1551).

2.2.2. Multidimensional Model of Leadership

Chelladurai (1978, 1990, and 1993) developed the Multidimensional Model of Leadership specifically for athletic situations. Chelladurai’s leadership model provides an interactional approach to conceptualizing the leadership process. He argues that leader effectiveness in sport is contingent on situational characteristics of both the leader and the group members.

In the multidimensional model, group performance and member satisfaction are considered to be a function of the congruence among three states of leader behavior: required, preferred, and actual. The antecedents of these states of leader behaviors are the characteristics of the situation, the leader, and the members.

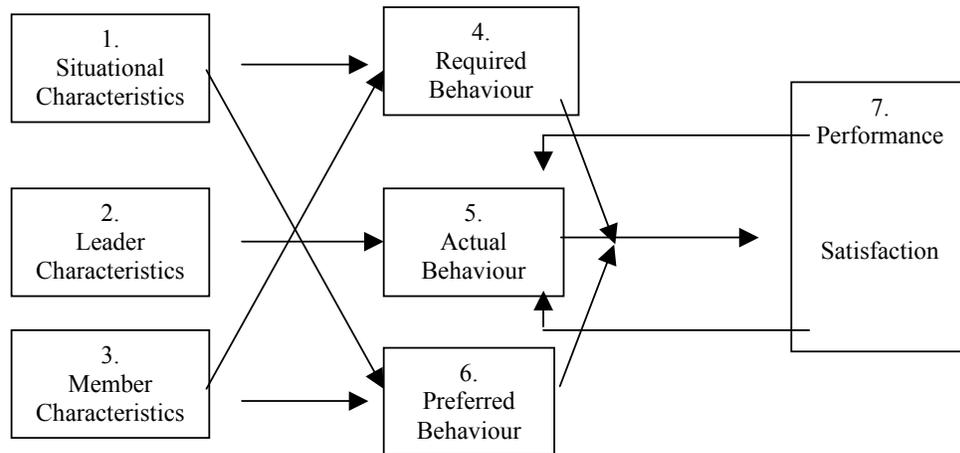


Figure 2. Multidimensional Model of Leadership (Note. Adapted from “Leadership in sports: A review” by P. Chelladurai, in *International journal of Sport Psychology*, 1990, 21, 328-354).

Required Leader Behavior

The leader is required (box 4) to behave in certain ways by the demands and constraints placed by situational characteristics, i.e., the parameters of the organization and its environment. For example, the goals and the formal organizational structure of the team and the larger system, the group task and the associated technology, the social norms, cultural values, and government regulations are some of the situational characteristics that prescribe an exercise leader’s behavior (Chelladurai, 1990).

Leader Behavior Preferred by Members

Members' preferences for specific leader behaviors (box 6) are largely a function of the individual characteristics of group members. Personality variables such as need for achievement need for affiliation, cognitive structure, and competence in the task influence a member's preferences for coaching and guidance, social support and feedback. In addition the situational characteristics also affect member preferences (Chelladurai, 1990).

Actual Leader Behavior

Actual leader behaviors (box 5) are simply the behaviors the leader exhibits. According to Chelladurai, the leaders' characteristics, such as personality, ability, and experience affect these behaviors directly. In addition, leaders are considerably influenced by situational requirements. Actual behaviors also directly affected by group preferences (Chelladurai, 1990).

Performance and Satisfaction

Chelladurai and Riemer (1997) have defined athletic satisfaction as "a positive affective state resulting from a complex evaluation of the structures, processes, and outcomes associated with the athletic experience" Performance and satisfaction are a function of the degree of congruence among the three stages of leader behavior. They are not independent of each other. Thus, performance and satisfaction (box 7) are jointly affected by congruence among the required, preferred, and actual leader behavior (Chelladurai, 1990).

Recently, Riemer and Chelladurai (1998) developed a multiple-item, multiple dimension scale to measure athlete satisfaction.

A central thesis of the MML is that congruence between preferred and actual leadership behavior enhances member satisfaction. Previous findings related to this central thesis have been inconsistent. While some indicated a significant curvilinear relationship between discrepancy scores of leadership behavior and satisfaction with leadership (i.e., satisfaction was highest when discrepancy was zero), others reported only significant linear relationship (i.e., satisfaction was greatest when perceptions were greater than preferences), or no relationship (Riemer & Toon, 2001).

Leadership Scale for Sport (LSS)

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

- a. Training and Instruction: coaching behavior aimed at improving the athletes' performance by emphasizing and facilitating hard and strenuous training; instructing them in the skills, techniques, and tactics of the sport; clarifying the relationship among the members; and by structuring and co-ordinating the members' activities (Chelladurai, 1990).

b. Democratic Behavior: coaching behavior which allows greater participation by the athletes in decisions pertaining to group goals, practice methods, and game tactics and strategies (Chelladurai, 1990).

c. Autocratic Behavior: coaching behavior which involves independent decision making and stress personal authority (Chelladurai, 1990).

d. Social Support: coaching behavior characterized by a concern for the welfare of individual athletes, positive group atmosphere, and warm interpersonal relations with members (Chelladurai, 1990).

e. Positive Feedback: coaching behavior which reinforces an athlete by recognizing and rewarding good performance (Chelladurai, 1990).

2.3. Leadership Studies by Using Leadership Scale for Sport

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

Individual Differences

Erle (1981) assessed the effects of sex, experience, and motivation on the leadership preferences of university and intramural players. He found that males preferred training and instruction more than females. Also, athletes high on task

motivation preferred more training and instruction, on the other hand, athletes high on affiliation motivation and extrinsic motivation preferred more social support. Moreover, the greater experience the higher the preference for positive feedback in competitive sports.

Chelladurai and Carron (1983) examined the high school midget, high school junior, high school senior, and university level basketball players' preferences – a paradigm thought to reflect the maturity level of the subjects. Trend analysis revealed two significant results. First, preference for training and instruction progressively decreased from high school midget through junior to senior levels and increased at the university level. Secondly, the preference for social support progressively increased from the high school midget level to the university level.

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

Situational Variables

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

Another study to mention effects of situational variables on leadership behavior patterns was performed by Ipinmoroti (2002). This study was to find out whether type of sport would be a predictor of coach leadership behavior. Subjects in this study consisted of team sport coaches and individual sport coaches. Findings of this study did not show any significant differences in coach leadership behaviors of team and individual sport coaches.

Consequences of Leadership

Some authors have dealt with the consequences of leadership. For example, Chelladurai (1984) examined the relationship between the discrepancy between

preferred and perceived leadership and athlete satisfaction in varying sports on the basis of task variability and/or task dependence. The results showed that discrepancy in leadership for athletes in various sports were associated with three measures of satisfaction: satisfaction with team performance, with leadership, and overall involvement. Further, discrepancies in training and instruction and positive feedback were the most common dimensions of leader behavior affecting the athletes' satisfaction in all three sport groups (basketball, track and field, and wrestling).

Horne and Carron (1985) examined the relationship between coach-athlete compatibility and athlete performance and the relationship between coach-athlete compatibility and athlete satisfaction on university volleyball, basketball, track and field, and swimming athletes and their coaches. They found that the discrepancy between athletes' perceptions and their preferences for positive feedback and autocratic behavior were the best discriminators of compatible and incompatible dyads. Further, the results showed that the discrepancies in training and instruction, social support and positive feedback were significant predictors of athlete satisfaction with leadership.

In Schliesman's (1987) study of university track and field athletes, perceived democratic behavior and social support were positively related to general satisfaction with leadership. Also discrepancy scores in training and instruction, social support, and positive feedback were significantly related to satisfaction with the three leader behaviors. The higher the perception of those behaviors relative to the preferences, the higher the satisfaction. In addition, Schliesman mentioned that

the perceived democratic behavior and social support were slightly better predictors of satisfaction with general leadership than the corresponding discrepancy scores.

Weiss and Friedrichs (1986) examined the relationship of university basketball players' perceptions of coach behavior, coach attributes, and institutional variables to team performance and athlete satisfaction. They found that neither institutional nor coach attribute variables were significantly related to team performance or satisfaction. On the other hand, leader behaviors were found to be significantly related to these team outcomes. Positive feedback was found as the most predictive of team satisfaction. Analysis with individual satisfaction scores revealed that size of school, coach attributes, and leader behaviors were predictive of athlete satisfaction. Moreover, coaches who engaged in more frequent rewarding behavior, social support behavior, and democratic behavior produced more satisfied athletes.

In their study, Riemer and Chelladurai (1995) the differences between the offensive and defensive personnel of football teams in preferred leadership, perceived leadership and satisfaction with leadership, and also, the relationship among preferred and perceived leadership, their congruence, and satisfaction with leadership were examined. The results showed that defensive players preferred and perceived greater amounts of democratic behavior, autocratic behavior, and social support than did offensive players. Also, the congruence preferred and perceived leadership in the dimension of social support was critical to enhancing member satisfaction. On the other hand, perceived leadership in training and instruction as well as positive feedback was stronger determinants of satisfaction with leadership

than either the preferred leadership or the congruence of preferred and perceived leadership in these dimensions.

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

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

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

CHAPTER III

METHODS

The main purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship among preferred and perceived leadership, their congruence and satisfaction with leadership, and the second purpose of this study was to investigate the differences among the offensive, the defensive and the mid-field players of soccer teams in preferred leadership, perceived leadership and satisfaction with leadership.

This chapter outlines the methods and procedures used to investigate congruence hypothesis and the differences between the offensive, defensive and mid-field players in preferred and perceived leadership and satisfaction with leadership.

3.1. Selection of the Participants

The subjects of the study were 138 male university soccer players from 7 universities (Ankara, Gazi, Hacettepe, Bilkent, METU, Çankaya, and Başkent) of 9 in Ankara region of Turkey. The other universities, Atılım and Ufuk have no soccer teams. The athletes consisted of 38 offensive players, 49 defensive players, and 51 mid-field players.

Coaches of the selected teams at universities in Ankara were contacted to obtain permission to meet the athletes, inform them of the nature of the study and invite them to participate this study. If permission was given, appointments were scheduled to meet with athletes. All of the universities that have soccer teams participated in this study. Players filled LSS and ASQ to determine their preference for and perception of leadership behaviors of their coaches and their satisfaction with leadership behaviors of their coaches.

3.2 Instruments

Leadership Behavior

Preferred and perceived versions of Chelladurai and Saleh's (1980) Leadership Scale for Sport (LSS) were used to assess the leader behaviors. These 40-item scales measure 5 dimensions of leadership behavior: training and instruction behavior (13 items), democratic behavior (9 items), autocratic behavior (5 items), social support behavior (8 items), and positive feedback behavior (5 items) through both a preference ("I prefer my coach to...") and a perceived version ("my coach to...") version. The items are assigned a score between 1 and 5 (1= never, 5 = always).

Chelladurai and Saleh (1980) reported that the test-retest reliability estimates from the repeat responses of 53 physical education majors over a four-week interval were ranged from .71 (social support) to .82 (democratic behavior).

In this study, this questionnaire was adapted into Turkish. In the first stage, experts translated the preference version of the LSS into Turkish. In order to overcome differences in meaning of translated items; Turkish translation was back translated into English. In the second stage, Turkish version of the 40 items of LSS into the five original scales was administered to 45 physical education students at METU and asked them if the items were clear or not to understand. If any item was not clear, it was revised. The final revised translation was acceptable to the experts.

Finally, the Turkish version was administrated to 25 basketball players at Çankaya University and redistributed with two weeks interval. The test-retest reliability ranged from .57 (autocratic behavior) to .93 (democratic behavior).

Chelladurai and Saleh (1980) reported the internal consistency ranged from .45 (autocratic behavior) to .83 (training and instruction) in preferred version and from .79 (autocratic behavior) to .93 (training and instruction) in perceived version

Internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha, 1951) of the LSS for the current study ranged from .65 (autocratic behavior) to .91 (training and instruction) for the preference version, and .74 (autocratic behavior) to .88 (social support) (table 1).

Satisfaction

Satisfaction was evaluated using 4 of the Athlete Satisfaction Questionnaire's (ASQ; Riemer & Chelladurai, 1998) 15 subscales: training and instruction satisfaction (3 items), personal treatment satisfaction (5 items), team performance satisfaction (3 items), and individual performance satisfaction (3 items). Riemer and Toon (2001) also used these 4 subscales in their study to examine leadership and

satisfaction in tennis. The first two subscales focus on satisfaction with the processes of coaching behavior, while the latter two evaluate satisfaction with outcomes with the processes of leadership (Riemer & Chelladurai, 1998). The items are assigned a score between 1 and 7 (1= very dissatisfied, 7= very satisfied).

In this study, ASQ was also adapted to Turkish from English in the same manner with LSS. The test-retest reliability ranged from .73(individual performance) to .95(personal treatment).

Riemer and Chelladurai (1998) reported internal consistency estimates (Cronbach's alpha, 1951) ranging from .85 (individual performance satisfaction) to .95 (team performance satisfaction). In the present sample, estimates ranged from .60 (individual performance) to .90 (personal treatment)) (table 1).

These estimates are all considered adequate.

Table 1. Internal Consistency Estimates for the LSS and ASQ Dimensions.

Dimension	α
	.91 ^a
Training and instruction (LSS)	.79 ^b
	.84 ^a
Democratic behavior (LSS)	.82 ^b
	.65 ^a
Autocratic behavior (LSS)	.74 ^b
	.76 ^a
Social support (LSS)	.88 ^b
	.90 ^a
Positive feedback (LSS)	.78 ^b
Individual performance (ASQ)	.60
Team performance (ASQ)	.86
Training and instruction (ASQ)	.90
Personal treatment (ASQ)	.86

LSS = Leadership Scale for Sport; ASQ = Athlete Satisfaction Questionnaire.
^a = preferences. ^b = perceptions.

3.3. Data Analysis

Bivariate correlation (Pearson r) of the major variables was calculated. To examine congruence hypothesis two sets of five multiple regression analyses were carried out for each satisfaction subscale. This procedure provided for assessment of the unique and cumulative variance in personal treatment satisfaction, training and instruction satisfaction, individual performance satisfaction, and team performance satisfaction explained by the preferences for and perceptions of the leadership behaviors and their interactions. Each interaction term was found by multiplying preference score by perception score (e.g. interaction term for training and instruction leadership behavior = preference for TI x perception of TI). In the first set, the preference score in each of the five dimensions of leader behavior was

entered first, followed by preference score and the interaction term. In the second set the order of preferences and perceptions were reversed. “This procedure provided information on the amount of unique variance accounted for by each component variable and was expected to reveal the dominance, if any, of preference scores, perception scores, or interaction scores “(Riemer & Chelladurai, 1995). This approach has been carried out in similar studies (e.g., Courneya & Chelladurai, 1991; Riemer and Chelladurai, 1995; Toon and Riemer, 2001).

Multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was used to assess differences between offensive, defensive and mid-field players in the five dimensions of preferred leadership, five dimensions of perceived leadership and the four dimensions of satisfaction.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The main purpose of this study was to find out the relationship among preferred and perceived leadership, and satisfaction with leadership. The second purpose was to investigate the differences among offensive, defensive and mid-field players of football teams in preferred, perceived leadership, and satisfaction with leadership. Multiple regression analysis was used to examine the congruence hypothesis. Correlation analysis of leadership satisfaction with preferences for and perceptions of each dimension of leader behavior were computed. In order to examine the differences between offensive, defensive and mid- field player's multivariate analysis of variance and descriptive analysis were used. The analyses were described following sections.

4.1 Descriptive Statistics

138 football players from university teams were included in the statistical analysis. The means and standard deviations of preference and perception leadership behavior, and satisfaction scores and also means and standard deviations by players' positions were presented in tables 2 and 3.

Table 2. Means and Standard Deviations Preference and Perception Leadership Behaviors, and Satisfaction

	M	SD
Leadership Behaviors		
Preference Leadership		
Training and instruction	1,81	0,53
Democratic behavior	2,21	0,62
Autocratic behavior	2,93	0,86
Social support	2,08	0,62
Positive feedback	2,04	0,72
Perception Leadership		
Training and instruction	1,94	0,66
Democratic behavior	2,44	0,77
Autocratic behavior	2,89	0,91
Social support	2,2	0,76
Positive feedback	2,15	0,72
Satisfaction with		
Individual performance	4,47	1,4
Team performance	4,49	1,4
Personal treatment	5	1,6
Training and instruction	4,87	2,6

The results of study indicated that players preferred more autocratic behavior (M=2.93) and also they perceived more autocratic behavior (M=2.89) than other leadership behaviors. Players preferred and perceived less training and instruction leadership behavior (M= 1.81, M= 1.94 respectively). Players were satisfied more with personal treatment (M=5 on a 7- point scale) and they satisfied less with individual performance (M= 4.47).

The players consisted of 38 offensive, 51 mid-field and 49 defensive players. The means and standard deviations for all variables by players' positions as offence, midfield, and defense were presented in table 3.

Table 3. Means and Standard Deviations by Players' Position

	Offence		Midfield		Defense	
	n=38		n=51		n=49	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Preferred Leadership						
Training and instruction	1,76	0,47	1,74	0,53	1,88	0,56
Democratic Behavior	2,33	0,71	2,14	0,59	2,21	0,58
Autocratic Behavior	2,89	0,84	2,98	0,96	2,92	0,75
Social Support	2,09	0,65	2,03	0,54	2,12	0,68
Positive Feedback	2,07	0,63	2,01	0,76	2,02	0,76
Perceived Leadership						
Training and instruction	1,96	0,53	1,88	0,74	2,04	0,63
Democratic Behavior	2,42	0,65	2,51	0,85	2,44	0,73
Autocratic Behavior	2,95	0,82	2,83	1,04	2,96	0,84
Social Support	2,25	0,71	2,12	0,79	2,29	0,73
Positive Feedback	2,18	0,79	2,07	0,76	2,21	0,61
Satisfaction with						
Individual Performance	4,75	1,22	4,54	1,63	4,18	1,23
Team Performance	4,52	1,51	4,41	1,83	4,55	1,18
Personal Treatment	4,95	1,45	5,04	1,69	4,96	1,61
Training and instruction	4,53	1,44	5,25	3,82	4,65	1,31

The findings of the study showed that offensive players reported greater preference than mid-field and defensive players did for democratic behavior (M= 2.33 vs. 2.14, 2.21) and for positive feedback (M= 2.07 vs. 2.01, 2.02). Moreover, offensive players more satisfied with individual performance than mid-field and defensive players (M= 4.75 vs. 4.54, 4.18). The mid-field players reported greater preference for autocratic behavior than offensive and defensive players did (M= 2.98 vs. 2.89, 2.92) and reported greater perception of democratic behavior (M= 2.51 vs. 2.42, 2.44). Besides these, mid- field players more satisfied with personal treatment (M= 5.04 vs. 4.95, 4.96) and training and instruction (M= 5.25 vs. 4.53, 4.65) than offensive and defensive players. The defensive players scored greater preference for training and instruction (M= 1.88 vs. 1.76, 1.74) than offensive and

mid-field players and for social support (M= 2.12 vs. 2.05, 2.03) than offensive and midfield players. They also more satisfied with team performance (M= 4.55 vs. 4.52, 4.41) than offensive and mid-field players. However mean differences between the offensive, the midfield, and the defensive soccer players regarding to prefer and perceived leadership behaviors and satisfaction with leadership were not great.

4.2. Relationships among Variables of the Study

Bivariate correlation of leadership satisfaction with preferences for and perceptions of each dimension of leadership behavior were computed. The results of the correlation analyses were represented in table 4.

Table 4. Correlation Matrix for Preference and Perception Leadership, and Satisfaction Scores

n= 138	Tia	Tib	DBa	DBb	ABa	ABb	SSa	SSb	PFa	PFb	IP	TP	PT	T&I
Tia	1,00													
Tib	0,47	1,00												
DBa	0,57	0,28	1,00											
DBb	0,33	0,66	0,45	1,00										
ABa	0,33	0,22	0,52	0,44	1,00									
ABb	0,19	0,39	0,36	0,61	0,58	1,00								
SSa	0,62	0,39	0,51	0,37	0,39	0,32	1,00							
SSb	0,28	0,74	0,26	0,67	0,31	0,48	0,38	1,00						
PFa	0,54	0,30	0,41	0,21	0,32	0,19	0,46	0,24	1,00					
PFb	0,29	0,63	0,23*	0,49	0,29	0,39	0,41	0,63	0,45	1,00				
IP	-0,17*	-0,18*	-0,13	-0,12	-0,05	-0,03	-0,11	-0,18*	-0,22*	-0,34**	1,00			
TP	-0,15	-0,05	-0,21*	-0,06	0,05	0,02	-0,07	-0,007	-0,03	-0,03	0,52	1,00		
PT	-0,14	-0,24**	-0,11	-0,15	-0,02	-0,03	-0,07	-0,15	-0,08	-0,19*	0,62	0,46	1,00	
T&I	-0,17	-0,18*	-0,19	-0,17*	0,05	-0,13	-0,15	-0,13	-0,21*	-0,15	0,43	0,42	0,48	1,00

*p < ,05 **p < ,01 a = preferences b = perceptions.

Note. TI = training and instruction; DB= democratic behavior; AB= autocratic behavior; SS= social support; PF= positive feedback; IP= individual performance satisfaction; TP= team performance satisfaction; T&I= training and instruction satisfaction; PT= personal treatment satisfaction.

The results of the study indicated that individual performance satisfaction with preferences for training and instruction ($r = -.17, p < .05$), positive feedback ($r = -.22, p < .05$) were negatively correlated. Team performance satisfaction with only preference for democratic behavior ($r = -.21, p < .05$) was negatively correlated. Training and instruction satisfaction with only preferences for democratic behavior ($r = -.19, p < .05$) and positive feedback ($r = -.21, p < .05$) were negatively correlated. Perceptions were negatively correlated with individual performance satisfaction in the cases of training and satisfaction ($r = -.18, p < .05$), social support ($r = -.18, p < .05$), and positive feedback ($r = -.34, p < .01$). Personal treatment satisfaction with perceptions of training and instruction ($r = -.24, p < .01$) and positive feedback ($r = -.19, p < .05$) were negatively correlated. Training and instruction satisfaction with perceptions of training and instruction ($r = -.18, p < .05$) democratic behavior ($r = -.17, p < .05$) were negatively correlated.

4.3. Congruence Hypothesis

Multiple regression analyses were conducted to determine the influence of leader behavior variables on athlete satisfaction.

A total of 40 hierarchical multiple regression analyses were carried out to examine congruence hypothesis (hypothesis 1). For each of the four dependent variables, two analyses were conducted for each of the five leadership behavior dimensions. In the first, in order of entry was preference score, perception score,

and the interaction score; in the second, perception scores were entered first then preference scores and interaction term was entered last. An adjusted per comparison alpha of .00125 (α / number of comparisons =, 05/40) was used to ensure a familywise error rate of .05. The congruence hypothesis is supported if the change in R^2 associated with the interaction term is significant.

Details of regressions were shown in tables 5, 6, 7, and 8.

Table 5. Variance Attributable to Preferred and Perceived Leadership in Individual Performance Satisfaction.

Variable		B	Std. Error	β	t	R^2	Initial Order	Reverse order	F	
							R^2	R^2		
							Change	Change		
TI	preference	-,16	,62	-,06	-,26	,028	,028	,034	,034	
	Perception	-,17	,59	-,08	-,28	,043	,016	,043	,009	
	Interaction	-,07	,3	-,09	-,22	,044	,000	,044	,00	,05
DB	preference	-,96	,56	-,42	-,17	,017	,017	,015	,015	
	Perception	-,08	,48	-,44	-,1,7	,023	,006	,023	,008	
	Interaction	,3	,21	,59	1,45	,039	,016	,039	,016	2,09
AB	preference	-1,3	,43	-,07	-,08	,003	,003	,001	,001	
	Perception	-,04	,42	-,03	-,03	,003	,00	,003	,002	
	Interaction	-,02	,14	,05	,05	,003	,00	,003	,00	,37
SS	preference	-,38	,49	-,16	-,16	,012	,012	,034	,034	
	Perception	-,57	,48	-,32	-,32	,036	,024	,036	,002	
	Interaction	,13	,21	,22	,22	,036	,003	,039	,003	,42
PF	preference	-,43	,46	-,21	-,21	,047	,047	,115	,115	
	Perception	-,89	,48	-,45	-,45	,121	,073	,107	,005	
	Interaction	,13	,20	,24	,24	,123	,003	,103	,003	,011

Multiple regression analyses were conducted to determine the effect of congruence between preferred and actual leadership behavior variables (training and instruction; democratic behavior; autocratic behavior; social support; positive

feedback) on individual performance satisfaction. For the dependent variable of individual performance satisfaction, none of the interaction terms was significant ($p > .001$). (Table 5.)

Table 6. Variance Attributable to Preferred and Perceived Leadership in Team Performance Satisfaction.

Variable	B	Std. Error	β	T	Initial Order		Reverse Order		F	
					R^2	R^2 Change	R^2	R^2 Change		
TI	preference	-,5	,68	-,17	-,73	,022	,022	,002	,002	
	perception	-,02	,65	,01	,03	,023	,023	,023	,023	
	interaction	-,02	,33	,02	,06	,023	,023	,023	,001	
DB	preference	-1,3	,59	-,55	-2,3	,039	,039	,003	,003	
	perception	-1,7	,51	-,35	-1,3	,04	,04	,041	,037	
	interaction	,34	,22	,62	1,6	,057	,057	,057	,018	
AB	preference	-,04	,46	-,21	-,08	,003	,003	,001	,018	
	perception	-16	,46	-,1	-,34	,001	,001	,003	,002	
	interaction	-05	,15	,15	,33	,001	,001	,004	,001	
SS	preference	,12	,54	,04	,21	,004	,004	,001	,001	
	perception	,36	,53	,18	,67	,001	,001	,005	,005	
	interaction	-,14	,23	-,24	-,64	,003	,003	,008	,003	
PF	preference	-,77	,54	-,35	-1,4	,001	,001	,001	,001	
	perception	-,78	,56	-,36	,1,4	,001	,001	,001	,001	
	interaction	,35	,24	,59	1,5	,016	,016	,018	,016	

Multiple regression analyses were conducted to determine the effect of congruence between preferred and actual leadership behavior variables (training and instruction; democratic behavior; autocratic behavior; social support; positive feedback) on team performance satisfaction. Multiple regression results revealed that for the dependent variable of team performance satisfaction, none of the interaction terms was significant ($p > .001$). (Table 6.)

Table 7. Variance Attributable to Preferred and Perceived Leadership in Personal Treatment Satisfaction.

Variable	B	Std. Error	β	t	Initial Order		Reverse Order		F	
					R ²	R ² Change	R ²	R ² Change		
TI	preference	-,12	,70	-,04	-,18	,021	,021	,056	,056	2,12
	perception	-,47	,67	-,21	-,17	,058	,037	,058	,002	
	interaction	-,02	,33	-,02	-,05	,058	,001	,058	,001	
DB	preference	-1,3	,62	-,53	-2,2	,009	,009	,022	,022	4,9*
	perception	-1,3	,53	-,67	-2,5	,023	,014	,023	,001	
	interaction	,51	,23	,89	2,2	,059	,036	,059	,036	
AB	preference	-,43	,48	-,23	-,89	,001	,001	,001	,001	,97
	perception	-,48	,47	-,28	-1,1	,001	,001	,001	,001	
	interaction	,16	,16	,45	,99	,008	,008	,008	,008	
SS	preference	-,76	,55	-,36	-1,3	,005	,005	,026	,026	,005
	perception	-,47	,56	-,17	-,83	,026	,021	,026	,001	
	interaction	,21	,24	,32	,85	,032	,005	,032	,005	
PF	preference	-1,1	,54	-,49	-2,1	,007	,007	,036	,036	5,18*
	perception	-1,6	,56	-,72	-,9	,036	,029	,036	,001	
	interaction	,54	,24	,89	2,3	,073	,038	,073	,038	

*p < .05

Multiple regression analyses were conducted to determine the effect of congruence between preferred and actual leadership behavior variables (training and instruction; democratic behavior; autocratic behavior; social support; positive feedback) on individual performance satisfaction. Multiple regression results demonstrated that for the dependent variable of personal treatment satisfaction, none of the interaction terms was significant ($p > .001$). (Table 7.)

Table 8. Variance Attributable to Preferred and Perceived Leadership in Training and Instruction Satisfaction

Variable	B	Std. Error	β	t	Initial Order		Reverse Order		F	
					R ²	R ² Change	R ²	R ² Change		
TI	preference	-1,4	1,5	-,28	-1,2	,03	,03	,033	,033	0,65
	perception	-1,3	1,1	-,34	-1,2	,045	,014	,045	,011	
	interaction	,44	,55	,33	,81	,049	,005	,049	,005	
DB	preference	-,33	,99	-,79	-3,3	,32	,032	,03	,03	9,26*
	perception	-2,8	,85	-,84	-3,3	,044	,012	,044	,014	
	interaction	1,13	,37	1,19	3,04	,108	,064	,108	,064	
AB	preference	,09	,78	,30	1,16	,003	,003	,017	,017	,193
	perception	-,37	,76	-,13	-,49	,043	,04	,043	,026	
	interaction	-,12	,26	-,20	-,43	,044	,001	,044	,001	
SS	preference	-1,2	,91	-,29	-1,3	,024	,024	,017	,017	,81
	perception	-1,1	,90	-,31	-1,2	,03	,006	,03	,013	
	interaction	,35	,39	,33	,91	,036	,006	,036	,006	
PF	preference	-1,7	,89	-,45	-1,9	,039	,039	,021	,021	1,72
	perception	-1,4	,93	-,38	-1,5	,043	,004	,043	,022	
	interaction	,52	,39	,52	1,3	,056	,013	,056	,013	

*p < .05

Multiple regression analyses were conducted to determine the effect of congruence between preferred and actual leadership behavior variables (training and instruction; democratic behavior; autocratic behavior; social support; positive feedback) on individual performance satisfaction. Multiple regression analyses results indicated that for the dependent variable of training and instruction satisfaction, none of the interaction terms was significant ($p > .001$). (Table 8.)

The total variance explained by any single leadership behavior ranged from a low of 0.3% in autocratic behavior for individual performance satisfaction to a high of 12.3% in positive feedback for individual performance satisfaction. The positive feedback for individual performance satisfaction and democratic behavior for

training and instruction satisfaction variables explained the highest amount of variance in satisfaction with leadership (12.3 % and 10.8 %, respectively). In general the amount of variance accounted for the leadership behaviors was greater for training and instruction satisfaction and personal treatment satisfaction than team and individual performance satisfaction. Moreover, the interaction terms were better predictors of satisfaction (compared to preferences or perceptions) but none of the interaction terms was statistically significant ($p > .001$). (Tables 5, 6, 7, and 8).

The results did not support the MML's hypothesis that satisfaction is dependent on the congruence between preferred and actual leadership behaviors. The congruence between preferred and perceived leadership behaviors was not critical to enhance athlete satisfaction. Across all dependent variables, none of the interaction terms were significant.

4.4. Subgroup Difference Hypotheses

In order to test hypotheses 2, 3, and 4 Multivariate Analyses of Variance (MANOVA) was used to determine the differences in preference, perception and satisfaction scores. MANOVA results demonstrated that team (offence vs. defense vs. midfield) had no significant effect on the overall set (Wilks' lambda = .87), $F = 1.02$, $p = .44$.

Table 9. Differences of Offence, Defense, and Midfield Players in Preference, and Perceived Leadership and Satisfaction with Leadership

Source	Dependent Variable	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Position	T1a	.58	2	.29	1.1	.36
	T1b	.63	2	.31	.74	.48
	DBa	.55	2	.27	.72	.49
	DBb	.13	2	.07	.11	.89
	ABa	.30	2	.15	.20	.82
	ABb	.86	2	.43	.50	.61
	SSa	.13	2	.07	.19	.83
	SSb	.79	2	.40	.70	.50
	PFa	.30	2	.15	.30	.74
	PFb	.55	2	.28	.54	.59
	IP	6.9	2	3.4	1.8	.18
	TP	.61	2	.30	.13	.88
	PT	.21	2	.10	.04	.96
	T&I	13.3	2	6.8	.98	.38

MANOVA results revealed that there was no significant difference between the offensive, the midfield and the defensive players with regard to preferred leadership, perceived leadership and satisfaction with leadership (Table 9).

The means of observed leadership behaviors and satisfaction with leadership were shown in Table 3.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

Sport leadership research continues to focus on the study of selected situational variables and their relationship to leadership effectiveness. To extend the knowledge of leadership in sport, the main purpose of this study was to examine the congruence hypotheses of the Multidimensional Model of Leadership. Second purpose was to investigate the differences between offensive, mid-field, and defensive players of the soccer teams in preferred leadership, perceived leadership and satisfaction with leadership.

A preliminary note on the instrument and analytical procedures employed in this study; the alpha values for the autocratic behavior were low (.65 for preferences and .74 for perceptions) but higher than those reported by Riemer and Chelladurai (1995) (.45 for preferences and .79 for perceptions) and Riemer and Toon (2001) (.67 for preferences and .59 for perceptions). Additionally, the alpha value for the individual performance satisfaction were rather low (.60)

Congruence Hypothesis

The present study found no support for congruence hypothesis of Multidimensional Model of Leadership. The current finding contrast to the study

reported by Riemer and Chelladurai (1995). First, their study supported the congruence hypothesis in the case of social support behavior. Second, preferences for leadership behaviors accounted for more variance in satisfaction than did perceptions. In the current study, perceptions for leadership behaviors accounted for more variance in satisfaction than did preferences.

On the other hand the present study supports the findings reported by Riemer and Toon (2001). They also did not support the congruence hypothesis. They also found that perceptions accounted for more variance in satisfaction than did preferences. Riemer and Toon (2001) indicated that “it may be that when preferences account for more variance in satisfaction than perceptions, the congruence hypothesis will be supported. While the MML suggests the situational factors are antecedent to preferences and perceptions, they might also impact how preferences and perceptions interact to athlete satisfaction. ” This may be one possible explanation for the results. The second possible explanation may be differences between demands and perspectives of athletes in different sports (tennis, football, vs. soccer). While democratic and social support behaviors were the most salient leadership dimensions for tennis players, training and instruction and positive feedback behaviors were more salient for football players. Another explanation for lack of evidence for the congruence hypothesis might be with how perception behavior has been studied. Eagly and Chaiken (1993) suggested that one’s attitude toward behavior might actually distort subsequent perceptions. Preferences for behavior might influence perceptions of the behavior.

In summary, lack of evidence for the congruence hypothesis in the present sample might also have resulted from small sample size.

Subgroup Difference Hypothesis

This study also did not support the hypotheses that there are differences between offensive, defensive and midfield players of soccer team regarding to preferred leadership, perceived leadership and satisfaction with leadership. However, players in different positions have different athletic environments and different skills so they have different demands. Leaders are required to behave in relation to the demands. Because behavior in one athletic environment may be effective and may not be effective in other athletic environment. Current result is inconsistent with the results reported by Chelladurai and Riemer (1995). They divided a single football team as offensive and defensive according to task variability. They found differences between offensive and defensive players that defensive players preferred greater amounts of democratic behavior and social support behavior. One explanation for this result, players may have no fixed position in university soccer teams. One player may play as offensive, as defensive or as mid field player in a university team. Players in university teams view their time during training as spare time activity. For this reason, it is needed to investigate differences in athletes' perceptions and preferences according to their position in professional soccer teams.

In the current study, it is interesting to note that autocratic behavior was the most salient for soccer players ($M= 2.93$ for preferences and $M= 2.89$ for

perceptions). Riemer and Toon (2001) suggested that situational differences between sports might determine saliency of leadership behaviors. Also, these results suggest that leadership would be divergent among nations (American vs. Turkish). Chelladurai, Imamura, Yamaguchi, Oinuma, and Miyauchi (1988) studied sport leadership in cross-national setting and they found differences in leadership behaviors and satisfaction with leadership among Canadian and Japanese athletes because of the effects of cultural differences.

The current the study also indicated that individual performance satisfaction with preference for positive feedback ($r = -.22, p < .05$) was negatively correlated. Team performance satisfaction with only preference for democratic behavior ($r = -.21, p < .05$) was negatively correlated. Training and instruction satisfaction with only preference for positive feedback ($r = -.21, p < .05$) were negatively correlated. Perception was negatively correlated with individual performance satisfaction in the case of positive feedback ($r = -.34, p < .01$). Personal treatment satisfaction with perceptions of training and instruction ($r = -.24, p < .01$) was negatively correlated. The correlation of preferences for and perceptions of other dimensions with satisfaction were all less than .21. (Table 4.).

The inconsistent results could be an artifact of selecting players from just university teams who might not be trained seriously, might not be trained by a coach regularly. Future research to may consider including players from professional soccer players who trained regularly. In addition, most of the players, at university teams, play also another amateur or professional soccer clubs and may be in different position. Therefore, it is difficult for players to decide using the real

coach as the focal point of the investigation regarding the effect leadership behavior on leadership and the real position as the focal point of investigation. Moreover, the inconsistent scores could be an artifact of small amount of players. This issue needs to be studied with more teams.

Sports leadership research continues to be important on study to leadership effectiveness around the world because it is believed as a determinant factor of performance and success. And it is accepted that the influence of a coach on team performance is important and players are important source of information for a coach because players input can be very beneficial to the coach. Therefore leadership must be studied in order to help sports teams to achieve their goal of a successful season. Future sport leadership research will help to increase sport participation; player satisfaction and productivity also provide coaches with new ideas for enhancing athlete satisfaction.

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The question of effective leadership has been a subject of discussion in various fields for many years but there is still little known about it. One of the problems in understanding leadership research is that there are so many conflicting views. Additionally, sports leadership research continues to focus on coaching leadership. This study assesses the congruence hypotheses, and the subgroup difference hypotheses relating to players' position, of Chelladurai's (1978) Multidimensional Model of Leadership.

The results of current study indicated that:

- Athlete satisfaction was not dependent on the congruence between preferred and perceived leadership behavior.
- An athlete's position did not affect preferences for leadership behavior.
- An athlete's position did not affect perceptions of leadership behavior, and
- An athlete's position did not affect satisfaction with leadership.

The central thesis of the MML was not supported in this study. Lack of congruence hypothesis in the present study should not make decision that congruence between preferred and actual leadership does not enhance player satisfaction. Further research is needed with the multidimensional theory of

leadership in varying sport populations and with greater number of participants to identify other situational and behavioral factors associated with athletic performance.

Additionally, further research is needed to be made based on variables such as experience, age, gender, ability of players and so on in order to obtain further information concerning the variables that affect player performance. Also, further research should obtain additional information about coaches' characteristics such as gender, experience, ability, and so on, because leader characteristics affect actual behavior.

Players are important source of information to assess coaching behaviors. If coaching behavior is important to the coach for players' performance and satisfaction, player input should be sought as a source of documentation. In order to obtain genuine information, players and coaches should give full attention for future research in coaching leadership. Therefore player input will be beneficial to the coach for understanding what players prefer and what behaviors the coach is actually exhibiting.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

LİDERLİK DAVRANIŞI ÖLÇÜM ANKETİ (LSS)

(Tercih Versiyonu)

Değerli katılımcı;

Aşağıdaki ifadelerin her biri, bir antrenörün sergileyebileceği belli davranışları tanımlar. Bu anket, antrenörünüzün hangi davranışlarını ne kadar **tercih ettiğinizi** belirlemek amacıyla hazırlanmıştır.

- 1 Her zaman
- 2 Sık sık (zamanın yaklaşık %75'i)
- 3 Ara sıra (zamanın yaklaşık % 50 'si)
- 4 Nadiren (zamanın yaklaşık % 50' si)
- 5 Hiçbir zaman

Lütfen bu anketin şu andaki antrenörünüzün ya da herhangi bir antrenörün değerlendirmesi olmadığını unutmayınız. Öğrenilmek istenen sizin kişisel tercihinizdir.

Antrenörümün;	1	2	3	4	5
1. Sporcuların kapasitelerini zorlamaları için ne gerekiyorsa yapmasını tercih ederim.					
2. Özel maçlarda, stratejiler üzerine sporcuların fikirlerini sormasını tercih ederim.					
3. Sporcuların kişisel problemlerine yardımcı olmasını tercih ederim.					
4. İyi bir performans gösterdiğinde, sporcuyu diğer sporcuların önünde övmesini tercih ederim.					
5. Her sporcuya, sporun teknik ve taktiklerini açıklamasını tercih ederim.					
6. Her sporcu için ayrı ayrı antrenman planı hazırlamasını tercih ederim.					
7. Grup üyeleri arasındaki sorunların çözümüne yardımcı olmasını tercih ederim					
8. Sporcuların hatalarını düzeltmek için özel dikkat göstermesini tercih ederim					
9. Önemli konularda, sorun daha ileri gitmede grubun onayını almasını tercih ederim.					
10. Sporcu iyi bir iş yaptığında bunu ona söylemesini tercih ederim					
11. Takım içindeki fonksiyonunun, bütün oyuncular tarafından anlaşılıp anlaşılmadığını sormasını tercih ederim.					
12. Kendi çalışmalarını açıklamamasını tercih ederim.					
13. Sporcunun kişisel sağlığına dikkat etmesini tercih ederim.					
14. Spor becerilerini, her sporcuya kişisel olarak Öğretmesini tercih ederim.					

15. Karar alırken, sporcuların katılımına izin vermesini tercih ederim					
16. Bir sporcunun , iyi performansından dolayı ödüllendirilmesi konusuna dikkat etmesini tercih ederim					
17. Neler yapılması gerektiği konusunda plan yapmasını tercih ederim.					
18. Çalışmaları yönlendirirken, sporcuların öneri sunmalarını teşvik etmesini tercih ederim.					
19. Sporculara kişisel iyilikler yapmasını tercih ederim.					
20. Her sporcuya, neleri yapması ve neleri yapmaması gerektiğini açıklamasını tercih ederim.					
21. Sporcuların kendi hedeflerini belirlemesine izin vermesini tercih ederim.					
22. Sporculara karşı hissettiği sevgisini ifade etmesini tercih ederim.					
23. Her sporcunun görevini en ince ayrıntısına kadar yerine getireceğine inanmasını tercih ederim.					
24. Hata yapsalar bile, her sporcunun kendi yöntemini denemesine izin vermesini tercih ederim.					
25. Sporcuları, kendisine güvenmeleri için teşvik etmesini tercih ederim.					
26. Her sporcunun zayıf ve güçlü yönlerini söylemesini tercih ederim.					
27. Bir konuda uzlaşma sağlanmasını reddetmesini tercih ederim.					
28. Bir sporcu iyi bir performans gösterdiğinde onu takdir etmesini tercih ederim.					
29. Her sporcuya, her durumda neler yapılması gerektiğine dair, özel bilgiler vermesini tercih ederim.					
30. Önemli antrenörlük sorunları konusunda sporcuların fikirlerini almasını tercih ederim.					
31. Sporcuları, kendisiyle yakın ve gayri resmi bir ilişki kurmaları için cesaretlendirmesini tercih ederim.					
32. Sporcuların çabalarını birbirleriyle koordine etmek için ne gerekiyorsa yapmasını tercih ederim.					
33. Sporcuların, antrenmanlarda kendi hızlarında çalışmalarına izin vermesini tercih ederim.					
34. Sporcularla arasına mesafe koymasını tercih ederim.					
35. Her sporcunun, takıma katkısını açıklamasını tercih ederim.					
36. Sporcuları evine davet etmesini tercih ederim.					
37. Bir şeyi hak ediyorsam, bu konuda bana şans vermesini tercih ederim.					
38. Sporculardan ne beklediğini ayrıntılı bir şekilde açıklamasını tercih ederim.					
39. Sporcuların oyunda kullanacakları taktiklere karar vermesine müsaade etmesini tercih ederim.					
40. Soru sormayı engelleyecek bir tavırdaki konuşmasını tercih ederim.					

(Gerçek Davranış Versiyonu)

Değerli katılımcı;
Aşağıdaki ifadelerin herbiri, bir antrenörün sergileyebileceği belli davranışları tanımlar. Bu anket, **antrenörünüzün, hangi davranışını hangi sıklıkta sergilediğini** belirlemek amacıyla hazırlanmıştır.

- 1 Her zaman
- 2 Sık sık (zamanın yaklaşık %75'i)
- 3 Ara sıra (zamanın yaklaşık % 50 'si)
- 4 Nadiren (zamanın yaklaşık % 50' si)
- 5 Hiçbir zaman

Ankette vereceğiniz cevaplar sadece bu araştırma kapsamında kullanılacaktır. Bu nedenle her soruyu dikkatli bir şekilde doğru olarak cevaplandırınız. Katkılarınız için şimdiden teşekkürler.

Antrenörüm;	1	2	3	4	5
1. Sporcuların kapasitelerini zorlamaları için ne gerekiyorsa yapar.					
2. Özel maçlarda, stratejiler üzerine sporcuların fikirlerini sorar.					
3. Sporcuların kişisel problemlerine yardımcı olur.					
4. İyi bir performans gösterdiğinde, sporcuyla diğer sporcuların önünde över.					
5. Her sporcuya, sporun teknik ve taktiklerini açıklar.					
6. Her sporcu için ayrı ayrı antrenman planı hazırlar					
7. Grup üyeleri arasındaki sorunların çözümüne yardımcı olur.					
8. Sporcuların hatalarını düzeltmek için özel dikkat gösterir					
9. Önemli konularda, sorun daha ileri gitmede grubun onayını alır.					
10. Sporcu iyi bir iş yaptığında bunu ona söyler.					
11. Takım içindeki fonksiyonunun, bütün oyuncular tarafından anlaşılıp anlaşılmadığını sorar.					
12. Kendi çalışmalarını açıklamaz					
13. Sporcunun kişisel sağlığına dikkat eder					
14. Spor becerilerini, her sporcuya kişisel olarak öğretir.					
15. Karar alırken, sporcuların katılımına izin verir					
16. Bir sporcunun , iyi performansından dolayı ödüllendirilmesi konusuna dikkat eder.					
17. Neler yapılması gerektiği konusunda plan yapar					
18. Çalışmaları önlerken,sporcuların öneri sunmalarını teşvik eder.					
19. Sporculara kişisel iyilikler yapar.					
20. Her sporcuya, neleri yapması ve neleri yapmaması gerektiğini açıklar.					
21. Sporcuların kendi hedeflerini belirlemesine izin verir.					

22. Sporculara karşı hissettiği sevgisini ifade eder.						
23. Her sporcunun görevini en ince ayrıntısına kadar yerine getireceğine inanır.						
24. Hata yapsalar bile, her sporcunun kendi yöntemini denemesine izin verir.						
25. Sporcuları, kendisine güvenmeleri için teşvik eder.						
26. Her sporcunun zayıf ve güçlü yönlerini söyler.						
27. Bir konuda uzlaşma sağlanmasını reddeder.						
28. Bir sporcu iyi bir performans gösterdiğinde onu takdir eder.						
29. Her sporcuya, her durumda neler yapılması gerektiğine dair, özel bilgiler verir.						
30. Önemli antrenörlük sorunları konusunda sporcuların fikirlerini alır.						
31. Sporcuları, kendisiyle yakın ve gayri resmi bir ilişki kurmaları için cesaretlendirir.						
32. Sporcuların çabalarını birbirleriyle koordine etmek için ne gerekiyorsa yapar.						
33. Sporcuların, antrenmanlarda kendi hızlarında çalışmalarına izin verir.						
34. Sporcularla arasına mesafe koyar						
35. Her sporcunun, takıma katkısını açıklar.						
36. Sporcuları evine davet eder.						
37. Bir şeyi hak ediyorsam, bu konuda bana sans verir.						
38. Sporculardan ne beklediğini ayrıntılı bir şekilde açıklar.						
39. Sporcuların oyunda kullanacakları taktiklere karar vermesine müsaade eder.						
40. Soru sormayı engelleyecek bir tavırdan konuşur.						

APPENDIX B

SPORCU TATMİNİ ÖLÇÜM ANKETİ (ASQ)

Değerli katılımcı;

Bu anket bir sporcunun, *sezon boyunca gösterdiği kişisel performansından, takımının gösterdiği performanstan, antrenörünün davranışlarından ve antrenöründen aldığı eğitim ve antrenmandan ne kadar tatmin olduğunu* ölçmek için hazırlanmıştır.

- 1- Hiç tatmin etmedi
- 2-Çok az derecede tatmin etti
- 3-Az derecede tatmin etti
- 4-Orta derecede tatmin etti
- 5-Tatmin etti
- 6-İyi derecede tatmin etti
- 7-Çok iyi derecede tatmin etti

Tatmin düzeyinizi belirlerken lütfen tamamladığınız sezonu göz önünde bulundurunuz.

Ankete vereceğiniz cevaplar sadece bu araştırma için kullanılacaktır. Çalışmanın tamamlanabilmesi için sizin sorulara eksiksiz ve doğru cevap vermeniz önemlidir.

Katkılarınız için şimdiden teşekkürler.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Sezon boyunca, performans hedeflerimin ulaştığı seviye.							
2. Antrenörümden gördüğüm saygı, itibar.							
3. Sezon boyunca takımımın galibiyet- mağlubiyet durumu							
4. Sezon boyunca antrenörümden aldığım antrenman.							
5. Antrenörümün bana karşı arkadaşça yaklaşımı							
6. Bir önceki sezona kıyasla performansımdaki gelişme							
7. Antrenörümden aldığım eğitim							
8. Sezon boyunca takımımın gösterdiği performans							
9. Antrenörümün, pozisyonumla ilgili teknik ve taktikleri öğretmesi							
10. Takımımın hedeflerinin ulaştığı seviye							
11. Beceri seviyemdeki gelişme							
12. İyi oynadığımda antrenörümün gösterdiği takdirin derecesi.							
13. Antrenörümün bana karşı olan bağlılığı							
14. Antrenörümün beni destekleme derecesi .							