Comparison of Leadership Preferences and Perceptions Among Canadian High School, CÉGEP, University, and Professional Football Players.

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Abstract

This study was conducted using the Leadership Scale for Sports research instrument on 61 high school, 62 CÉGEP, 86 university, and 34 professional football players to determine if these players' preferences for five leadership behaviours differed with respect to level of play, unit of play (offensive and defensive), and team success. The leadership behaviours investigated in this study are training and instruction, autocratic, democratic, social support, and positive feedback. In addition, the data collected was analysed to determine if differences were present between football players' preferences for and perceptions of their unit co-ordinator coach's leadership behaviours taking into consideration level of play, unit of play, and team success. Multivariate and Doubly Multivariate Analyses of Variance Tests were used to interpret the data.

No differences were found among the football players' preferences for coaching leadership behaviours at the various levels of play, units of play, and team success. Differences were however found between players' preferences for and perceptions of their unit co-ordinators in training and instruction, social support, and positive feedback coaching leadership behaviours.

Résumé court

Cette étude fut réalisée en utilisant le barème de recherche de l'Èchelle de Leadership en sport. Le résultat de la recherche comprenait de 61 joueurs d'école secondaire, 62 de CÉGEP, 86 d'université et 34 joueurs professionnel de football pour déterminer si la préférence des joueurs de cinq comportements de leadership sont différents par rapport au niveau de jeu, à l'unité de jeu (offense et défense) et le succès de l'équipe.

Les comportements de leadership observés dans cette étude sont l'entraînement et l'instruction, l'autocratique, le démocratique, le support social et la rétroaction positive. De plus, l'information collectée fut analysée pour déterminer si les différences ont été observées entre la préférence des joueurs de football, de la perception du comportement de leadership de leur entraîneur coordinateur d'unité, en prenant en considération le niveau de jeu, l'unité de jeu, et le succès de l'équipe en utilisant «Multivariate» et «Doubly Multivariate Analyses of Variance Tests» pour interpréter l'information.

Aucunes différences ont été découverte entre le comportement de leadership des entraîneurs de football selon les préférences des joueurs peu importe le niveau de jeu, l'unité de jeu, et le succès de l'équipe. Cependant, des distinctions ont été découverte entre la préférence des joueurs de la perception du comportement de leadership de l'entraîneur coordinateur d'unité dans l'entraînement et l'instruction, l'autocratique, le démocratique, le support social et la rétroaction positive.

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CHAPTER 1 – INTRODUCTION

Introduction

Since Coleman Griffith first began his research into football and the psychological factors affecting football players, the systematic investigation of football has changed considerably (Freudenberger & Bergandi, 1994). In fact, it is increasingly recognised that the type of leadership used by football coaches can greatly influence both team success (Westre & Weiss, 1991) and player satisfaction (Riemer & Chelladurai, 1995). Leadership is provided at the various levels of a football team. At the top of the organisational structure is the head coach, who oversees the entire team. At the next level are the unit co-ordinator coaches for the offensive, defensive, and special teams. Below the unit co-ordinator coaches are the various positional coaches within each unit of play. Finally, at the bottom of the football leadership organisational structure are the team captains and player leaders.

With the number of football players in the province of Quebec having more than doubled in less than 10 years at every level from Atom to professional football (from 7163 football players in 1991 to 16,573 in 1999), it would seem important for coaches to understand those leadership behaviours generally preferred by players in the level at which they coach (Football Québec, 2000). According to research conducted by Hersey and Blanchard (1979), a subordinate's leadership preference changes with increase in job experience and professional development. These researchers suggested that supervisors could determine the most appropriate way to work with their subordinates based on the subordinate's position within a model stemming from their Situational Leadership Theory (formerly known as the "Life Cycle Theory") (Hersey & Blanchard, 1979). By extension, this theory would seem to apply to football; that is, players' preferences for leadership behaviours should change as they mature

chronologically and/or athletically. According to this theory, as younger players mature, they are expected to strive for greater independence, thereby affecting their leadership behaviour preferences. While leadership behaviour preference and perception data has been collected in other sports, such as basketball (Case, 1990; Chelladurai & Carron, 1983; Chelladurai, 1984, 1993; Weiss & Friedrichs, 1986), track and field (Chelladurai, 1984; Schliesman, 1987), wrestling (Chelladurai & Carron, 1981; Chelladurai 1984), rowing, and paddling (Kirby, 1980), published studies of leadership behaviour in football have been few and largely limited to those conducted at American high schools and colleges (Garland & Barry, 1988; Robinson & Carron, 1982; Roy, 1999; Riemer 1991; Riemer & Chelladurai, 1995; Westre & Weiss, 1991).

To investigate football players' leadership behaviour preferences one must consider the athlete's role on the field. Since offensive players determine the type of play to be executed, they have more control over the athletic environment than do the defensive players who, in contrast, are in a reactionary position. They must be able to instantaneously evaluate a situation based on various cues given by an opponent and then properly react to that situation (NCCP Football Canada, 1993). As a result of these distinct differences, it has been found that "defensive players preferred and perceived greater amounts of democratic behaviour, autocratic behaviour, and social support" than did offensive players (Riemer & Chelladurai, 1995, p. 290).

In 1978, Chelladurai presented a theoretical sports model proposing that satisfaction and team performance would be enhanced if an alignment occurred among the athletes' preferred behaviours, the situation-required behaviours, and the coaches' actual behaviours. In his research with Canadian Intercollegiate Athletic Union (CIAU) basketball players and wrestlers, Chelladurai (1984) found that alignment of leadership behaviour preference and perception of what actually occurred increased athlete satisfaction with team performance. These results have

given support to Chelladurai's Multidimensional Model of Sport Leadership (1980). Once football players' leadership preferences have been determined, their coach might choose to behave in a manner congruent with their players' preferences, thereby, according to this model, enhancing players' performance and satisfaction. To date, the evidence supporting this athletic leadership model in football is limited.

Statement of the Problem

This study investigates individual and situational characteristics affecting football players' leadership behaviour preferences and perceptions. The study examines leadership behaviour preferences of football players at various levels of play, in different units of play (offensive or defensive), and on successful and unsuccessful football teams. Furthermore, this study measures the differences between football players' preference for and their perception of their coaches' actual leadership behaviours, as well as the degree to which that difference varies on successful and unsuccessful teams. The dependent variables are the preferred and perceived actual leadership behaviours of training and instruction, democratic, autocratic, social support, and positive feedback. The independent variables are levels of play, units of play, and team success.

Significance of the Study

Canadian football coaching is developed at all levels within the framework of the National Coaching Certification Programme (NCCP), sponsored by 3M Canada (NCCP, 1993). Leadership behaviour research specific to each level and unit of play (offensive or defensive) to date is limited as there has been little research conducted on football leadership in Canada.

Through studies such as this one, the development of Canadian football could be enhanced by information specific to Canadian coaches.

The results of this study should assist football coaches and coaching theory specialists to understand the effects of both athletic maturity and unit of play on the leadership behaviour preferences of football players. Moreover, these coaches and specialists should be able to see the effects of both levels of play and team success on players' leadership behaviour preferences. The results of this study should help to confirm or disprove the application of the Situational Leadership Theory that refers to leadership behaviour preferences of athletes as they progress through different levels of play. According to Reimer and Chelladurai, research on the application of this theory in football has been minimal and limited primarily to players in the United States (Reimer, 1991; Reimer & Chelladurai, 1995). Limited research has been found examining the leadership behaviour preferences of football players in the Canadian context (Robinson & Carron, 1982; Roy, 1999). Furthermore, Riemer and Chelladurai (1995) found that football players have specific positional leadership preferences. They found that "athletes whose task is more open (defensive players) preferred greater amounts of democratic behaviour and social support than athletes with less variability in their environment (offensive players) (1995, p. 289). Examination of the leadership preferences of Canadian football players in the various team units should provide information for coaches of those units on how to align their leadership behaviours to best meet their players' needs.

Competitive sports are structured to have only one winner, also referred to as a zero-sum relationship. While this relationship certainly exists in football, the satisfaction of playing, regardless of the outcome, keeps athletes motivated (Riemer & Chelladurai, 1995). In 1980 Chelladurai developed a sport specific leadership model called the Multidimensional Model of

Sport Leadership (MMSL). The MMSL hypothesises that a leader's actual behaviour is influenced by his/her own characteristics, preferred behaviour, and required behaviour. Thus, according to this model, congruence among these three factors will result in enhanced performance and satisfaction. By applying the MMSL to football, the congruence between preference and perception could lead football programmes to be more successful in reaching the playoffs, thus enhancing support for this model. Increased performance may enhance the chance for success, but satisfaction in playing football will surely contribute to long term commitment to football play.

The purposes of this study are threefold: first, the study investigates whether differences in football players' leadership behaviour preferences exist at various levels and units of play; second, team success is examined to determine if players of successful and unsuccessful football teams have different preferences for leadership behaviours; and finally, football teams are studied to try to determine the degree to which coaches actually use the leadership behaviours that their players preferred them to use. Specifically, the preferred and perceived actual leadership behaviours are examined to determine whether differences exist within units of play, as well as within successful and unsuccessful teams at the different levels of play.

Research Hypotheses

Based on theoretical considerations and earlier empirical findings, the following hypotheses were proposed:

1.   Football players at various levels of play will differ in their preferences for each of the leadership behaviours being studied.

2.   There will be differences between the leadership behaviour preferences of football players in offensive and defensive units of play.

3.   Players of successful teams will differ from those of unsuccessful teams in their

       leadership behaviour preferences.

4.   Taking into consideration unit of play and team success, there will be no significant

       differences between the preferences players indicate related to the five leadership

       behaviours measured by the LSS and the actual behaviours that they perceived their unit

       co-ordinator coaches used with them.

Definitions

The following terms are identified and defined to provide a clear understanding of their

use in this study.

Actual Leadership Behaviour is defined as the degree to which the players perceived that their

coaches actually used a particular type of leadership behaviour. At times this will be referred to

as perceived leadership behaviour.

Athletic Maturity is:

> ...viewed as the relative mastery of skill and knowledge in sport, the development of
>
> attitudes appropriate to sport, and experience and the capacity to set high but attainable
>
> goals...it can be assumed that athletic maturity increases as the athlete progresses through
>
> the competitive levels of elementary, high school, university and professional sport.
>
> (Chelladurai & Carron, 1983, p. 372)

The expressions "level of play" and "athletic maturity" will be used interchangeably throughout

this study.

CÉGEP refers to the college system in the province of Quebec known as the Collège

d'enseignement généneral et professionnel.

Leader is one who influences human behaviour, through interaction with subordinates, to accomplish a mission in the manner desired by both the group and the leader.

Leadership Behaviour Dimensions in Athletics:

- **Training and Instruction** is defined as coaching behaviours requiring athletes to practice skills and tactics which are designed to be physically and mentally challenging in an effort to teach players to achieve their optimal performance. (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1980; Riemer & Chelladurai, 1995)

- **Autocratic Behaviour** is defined as "coaching behaviour that involves independence in decision making and stresses personal authority." (Riemer & Chelladurai, 1995, p. 278)

- **Democratic Behaviour** is defined as "coaching behaviour that allows greater athlete participation in decisions pertaining to group goals, practiced methods, game tactics and strategies." (Riemer & Chelladurai, 1995, p. 278)

- **Social Support** "…refers to the extent to which the coach is involved in satisfying the interpersonal needs of the athletes." (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1980, p. 42)

- **Positive Feedback** refers to "…coaching behaviour that reinforces an athlete by recognising and rewarding good performance." (Riemer & Chelladurai, 1995, p. 278)

Preferred Leadership Behaviour is the degree to which players preferred their coaches to use specific leadership behaviour.

Satisfaction is defined as the positive internal motivation that enhances a player's desire for long term commitment to a sport.

Team Success is, for the purpose of this study, defined as a team that makes the playoffs and advances into the league final championship game.

Assumptions

This study accepts the Leadership Scale for Sports (LSS) as a valid measure of athletes' leadership behaviour preferences and perceptions. In order to attend each of the educational institutions, from which participants were drawn, the players had to have a basic level of understanding of the English language; therefore, it is assumed that all football players of this study are proficient enough in English to fully understand the questionnaire used.

Delimitations and Limitations

A delimitation of this study is the selection of leadership coaching behaviours of tackle football in Quebec. The participants of this study were selected because of their geographic location, thereby facilitating data collection and allowing the researcher's physical presence during the administration of the questionnaire. Moreover, the delimitation of the sample population consisting entirely of males limits the results to a male perspective of leadership. Although female leaders are prevalent in sport today (Knoppers, 1992), the sample population all but precludes their representation within this study. A further limitation is the language of instruction on each team. Because the players were coached in English, the original version of the Leadership Scale for Sports was used. The study was therefore limited by the use of this questionnaire and the weaknesses that it may entail.

CHAPTER 2 – LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

Research of leadership in various disciplines of study will inevitably bring about large

empirical bodies of knowledge. This literature review is broken in four sections designed to

provide a background to the study of leadership in football. First, football is discussed,

highlighting its development from a game played with a spherical object that was kicked forward

to gain points to that of a game where points are scored through well executed plays consisting

of running, passing, and kicking an oval shaped ball. This section also highlights the important

psychological studies in this athletic domain. The second section consists of a general overview

of leadership in disciplines related to football. These disciplines include the military, education,

and business environments. A third section investigates the development of research perspectives

in leadership. Specifically, these leadership perspectives are Trait, Behavioural, Situational, and

Interactional. Specific models and their corresponding theories will be used to expand upon the

Situational and Interactional perspectives. The final section explains in detail the Leadership

Scale for Sports (LSS), a measurement tool chosen for this study to test leadership dimensions of

coaching behaviours.

Study of Football

Understanding the Evolution of Canadian Football

It is believed that the ancient Greeks and Romans were the first peoples to play games

with spherical objects that were kicked forward as a method of scoring (Encyclopedia

Americana, 1983). These ancient games in which kicking the spherical object was the sole

method of scoring differed considerably from the modern game of football. It was not until 1823

that a player named Webb Ellis first modified this kicking concept. Displeased with the lack of

scoring, Ellis caught a punted ball and proceeded to run with it tucked under his arm across the opponent's goal line for what became known as the first touchdown in history (Collier's Encyclopedia, 1985).

The first game that resembles present day football was played in 1874 between McGill University and Harvard University (World Book Encyclopedia, 1999). McGill arrived in Massachusetts prepared to play the English game of Rugby, which allowed for running with the ball and tackling, while Harvard was prepared to play a soccer-like game. Remarkably, it is reported that they decided that it would be best to play two games, one under McGill's rules and the other under Harvard's rules. In the end, Harvard enjoyed McGill's method of play so much that the team adopted the running and tackling style of play in preference to their soccer kicking style game (Encyclopedia Americana, 1983).

Some thirty years later, in 1905, after serious injuries and even a few deaths, President Theodore Roosevelt, a true fan of the game, urged that changes to the rules be made to increase the players' safety (World Book Encyclopedia, 1999). During the 1906 season, football coaches allowed one major rule change resulting in the acceptance of a forward pass. As most teams were sceptical of the forward pass, it took another seven years for the first pass-catch combination in football to be developed. The play occurred in a Notre Dame versus Army game in 1913 when Notre Dame defeated the powerful Army team. The crushing victory saw Notre Dame execute a well-orchestrated set of offensive passing plays, thereby establishing the passing game as it is known today (World Book Encyclopedia, 1999). Modern day football incorporates running, passing, and kicking the football in order to score points.

Within the sports community, football is unique due to its sheer number of players per team. Football organisations range in size from 30 players at the high school level to some 100

players at many large colleges and universities. High school coaching staffs may consist of a few coaches, while college and professional coaching staffs may range from 10 to 12 individuals (Riemer & Chelladurai, 1995). Furthermore, football is unique in that players train year round, practice five days a week for one to four hours per night (film and field work), and play in a total of only eight to fourteen games each season. Similar to most sports, though, at the end of the season, teams play off in their respective conferences, culminating in a championship game.

The evolution of safety in football and its tactical nature has led coaches to develop rigorous training programmes. Each season begins with a one- to two-week training camp to prepare players physically and mentally for the upcoming games. Between games, coaches' conduct practices to correct players' mistakes and to oversee their physical conditioning. A practice, typically ranging from one to four hours in duration, will consist of a warm-up or WIN period—"What is Important Now", a team stretch period, a positional/technical skill period, an inter-positional period, and a pass and run skeleton period (Baillie, 2000). Near the end of the practice, coaches run offensive, defensive, and special team time-up, unit scrimmages, and depending on the head coach's vision, physical conditioning may follow the practice.

A game will range from 48 minutes playing time for younger players to 60 minutes for college, university, and professional teams. During a game, the coaching staff uses a number of strategies to catch the opponent off guard by implementing appropriate plays. "Calls" for specific plays are either signalled in with a secret code from the coaches to a player on the field or they are sent in with a substitute player from the sideline. Although most play calls are sent in by one of the above two methods, at higher levels of football, in specific situations the coach may allow the quarterback or defensive signal caller to choose the play autonomously. This is usually the

case when time is limited, or when the call from the sideline is delayed (NCCP Football Canada, 1993).

Weekly, coaches prepare a game plan for their upcoming game. The game plan includes a list of offensive, defensive, and special team plays and formations that the coaches feel will lead their team to success. The nature of the coaching staff will have an effect on the development of the game plan. The coaches' leadership behaviours may prompt them to invite athletes' input specific to their unit (Baillie, 2000).

Wittur's 1992 essay, "A Wholistic Approach to Coaching Running Backs", suggests that football's offensive, defensive, and special teams units must be prepared in the following four components of the game in order to perform successfully: physical, technical, tactical, and psychological (see Figure 1).
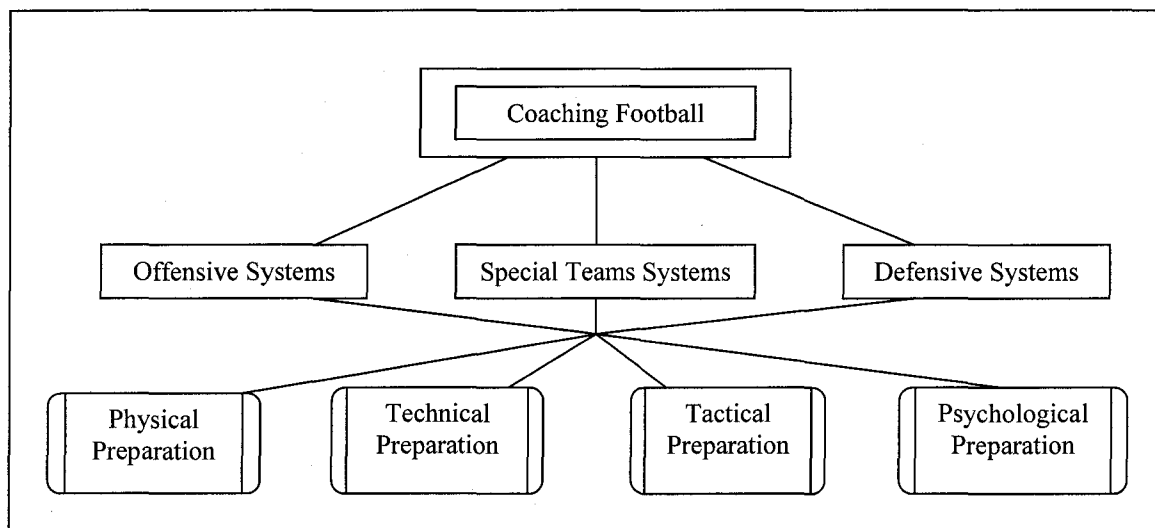
Figure 1. Coaching Methodology (Adapted from Wittur 1992, p. 1).

The first component, physical preparation consists of strength training, proper running form, quick foot speed, and agility. Technical preparation, the second component, refers to the preparation of those skills specific to a particular playing position. The third component

highlights the preparation of a player's tactical knowledge of the game. Coaches will implement game plans at the beginning of each week in preparation for the next opponent, but it is the players' ability to apply this knowledge in a game situation that will determine success. Furthermore, the player must manipulate this information and apply past tactical knowledge in response to changes in the playing environment. The final component, discussed in detail in the next sub-section, is a football player's psychological preparation. Wittur (1992) suggests that this component is crucial when two teams are equally prepared in the physical, technical, and tactical components of football.

<div align="center">Psychological Aspects of Football</div>

As mentioned previously, football teams are composed of three units of play (offensive, defensive, and special teams) each of which has four areas of preparation (physical, technical, tactical, and psychological). This sub-section highlights the importance of the psychological component, specifically as it relates to both player preparation and the role coaching leadership plays.

Each week players are faced with the possibility of not playing in a game, or even not dressing for the game. As previously described, football players give an enormous amount of their time in preparation for the possibility of playing during the short intense football season. Taking into consideration the amount of time these athletes spend training pre-, during, and post-season, it is no wonder that a player's motivation might wane when he is not played. It is therefore extremely important for coaches to help athletes maintain their foci and enthusiasm, both as individuals and as team members (Frierman, 1995a). Effective football coaches work to build strong cohesion among individuals, resulting in a team that will work together towards team success (Frierman, 1995b). While the effective coach strives to develop the athlete as a

whole, many programmes overlook the importance of the psychological aspects of the game and rely solely on the physical aspects of the player (Frierman, 1995a). Frierman (1995a) suggests that, "Although success in football is recognised to be at least 50% psychological, it's the physical skills that tend to be practised while the psychological skills are simply inferred" (p. 62).

Ravizza and Osbourne explain that for an athlete to "have consistent control over his football performance, he must first have control over his physical, mental and emotional self" (1991, p. 257). Further, Allen (1995, p. 25) states that the "more mentally relaxed the athletes are, the better they will perform". If football players are mentally relaxed, they will be able to concentrate and focus on the instructions that are required to perform a particular technical move at their position.

A study conducted by Fenker and Lambriotte (1987) developed and implemented a psychological performance enhancement programme at Texas Christian University. A decade earlier the school's football team was ranked one of the top teams in the nation. After a ten-year losing streak, this same team (at the time of the study) earned the distinction of being one of the "10 worst teams in America" (Fenker & Lambriotte, 1987, p. 225). Following this experience, and upon entering his second year with the football team, the head coach decided to implement a psychological performance enhancement programme. The programme consisted of imagery training techniques in conjunction with a process-oriented approach to performance. Fenker and Lambriotte reported that 86% of the starters evaluated the programme as being important or significant (p. 231) and the team achieved its best record in 20 years.

It is evidence such as this that emphasises the importance of the psychological component in football. By increasing the attention paid to the research of psychological

preparation, particularly in coaching leadership behaviours, the potential exists to enhance the coaches' understanding of the effects of good leadership.

<div align="center">Leadership in Related Disciplines</div>

One way in which to examine leadership in football is by comparison to leadership in other domains. In examining the leadership prevalent within military, education, and business organisational structures, one may gain an understanding of their possible applications in football.

The game of football, with its hierarchical structure and publicly perceived authoritarian nature, derived a number of its coaching methodologies from the military. For example, the fall training camp, which occurs at the beginning of each season, is a time when players are physically trained to exhaustion and mentally pushed to their limits, not unlike the concept of basic recruit training (DND, 1978). When one thinks of leadership in the military, one might envision a sergeant screaming at a private recruit struggling to complete the task at hand. Consider, however, the basic training of military officers. Leadership development begins with basic officer training where individuals are taught to lead by first understanding how to follow; only then are they given the opportunity to lead their peers (DND, 1978).

In Canada, a large number of football coaches are educators. Thus, it is important to consider leadership research in education (Baillie, 2000). Over the last twenty years, the field of education in North America has moved from instructional to transformational leadership. Leithwood (1992) describes the former, which was prevalent in the 1980s and early 1990s, as a movement to enhance technical and instructional activities in teaching. Specifically, school administrators closely monitored teachers' and students' classroom work. The result was implementation of activities that would enhance student learning and improve teacher

performance (Leithwood 1992, 1994). In contrast, transformational leadership strives to empower subordinates by facilitating educational advancement in the areas of professional development, collaborative problem solving, and the development of a school culture (Leithwood, 1992).

Smylie (1995) describes one of the benefits of transformational leadership in education as the provision of numerous incentives meant to attract and retain the most talented teachers in the profession. By empowering teachers' participation in development of their educational milieu, motivation is increased, their work has meaning, and personal goals are realised (Maeher, Midgley, & Urdan, 1992). Because teachers tend to be intrinsically, rather than financially motivated, transformational leadership addresses their needs.

By extension, the interactive process inherent in transformational leadership could represent one of the key motivating factors in Canadian football coaching. Because most coaching positions in Canada are filled by volunteers, or minimally paid individuals, with less than 15 per cent of university coaches on full-time salary and even fewer at lower educational levels, financial rewards are obviously not the primary motivator (Baillie, 2000). For coaches, the incentives are much the same as for today's educators: a sense of team work, a sense of belonging, and professional development by way of coaching clinics.

It is said that of all sports, football organisations stand to learn the most from the typical business model (Keidel, 1984). Consider a football team's structure as compared to a business organisation of 60 to 120 employees. The chief executive officer represents the head coach, the vice presidents resemble unit co-ordinator coaches, and department managers mirror positional coaches. For a business to succeed, each employee must be effective in order to achieve the company's aim, much the same as it is in successful football organisations. Football success, as

in business, is highly dependent upon each team member carrying out their responsibilities on each play (Keidel, 1984).

In business organisations, analysts pore over endless reports in order to identify and capitalise on the strengths and weaknesses of their competitors. Similarly, football coaches use film and videotape analysis to determine clues about the opponent for play sequences, formation keys, and specific weaknesses. A team's own previous performance is analysed and critiqued to confirm strengths and identify areas for improvement. As Keidel (1984) observed, football's meticulous preparation and high volume of information leads to fragmenting of tasks and building of a coaching hierarchy.

Finally, business provides a strong model for large football organisations due to its human resource strategies (Keidel, 1984). Fundamental to a football organisation are the clusters of group-work at the positional, unit, and team levels—a structure found in many businesses. Football, with its unique positional requirements necessitates the need for strong human resource management skills. The coach should develop strategies to maintain the satisfaction level of the players and to assist them in reaching their full athletic and mental potential.

With leadership knowledge gained from the fields of business management, education, and the military, it is possible that developments in sport leadership could provide a reciprocal contribution to the advancement of leadership in these environments.

Leadership Perspectives

For decades researchers have been seeking to identify qualities that result in successful leadership. Stogdill (1974) provides more than 3,500 references to the topic of leadership. Nevertheless, he states that there appears to be no generally accepted definition of leadership.

Burns (1978) observed that with so much research in this subject area, it is interesting that leadership remains one of the least understood phenomena on earth.

Bennis (1989) describes the need for leadership stating, "one person can live on a deserted island without leadership. Two people, if they are totally compatible, could probably get along and even progress. But, if there are three or more, someone has to take the lead" (p. 15). Leadership has been described as the behavioural process of influencing individuals and groups toward set goals and the attainment of those goals (Murray, 1986; Barrow, 1977). In 1989, Cratty stated that, "for the most part this transaction involves an implied interpersonal contract. The followers agree to bestow authority upon an individual; in return the leader agrees to help the group attain one or more objectives" (p. 267). For this reason it would appear that when studying leadership it is important to examine not only the leader, but also the followers.

Leaders help give direction to people and work together with the group to build both a vision of the future and a process of how to achieve this vision. They step up and take charge of the situation and start the organisation moving forward. Leaders then work with subordinates to draw on their strengths and help correct their weaknesses. By accomplishing this process, the leader can step back, allowing the subordinates to effectively run the organisation. This allows subordinates to build their confidence by identifying the abilities that will allow them to best serve the organisation. When the group ceases to move forward, the leader may be forced to redefine the vision or to choose a different approach to achieving the vision.

Leaders are motivators for the group (Parcells, 1995). They need to maintain a positive outlook that is realistic, not just optimistic, when the organisation is experiencing difficult periods of development. Leaders need to understand not only the mechanics of the job, but also what motivates the individuals who work with them. Jimmy Johnson, retired National Football

League head football coach, agrees with this point and emphasises, "in order to motivate people, you need to know what makes them tick. You have to predict how they will respond in tight situations, so you'll know who should get called on and who might find the pressure too great" (Parcells, 1995, p. 191).

When studying leadership one must understand whether individuals simply comply with leaders as a means to an end or whether leaders actually influence their subordinates. For example, according to Murray (1986), by complying with leaders, individuals expect reciprocation in the form of remuneration, perks, or privileges. Coaches need to be aware of the rewards and reinforcements that their athletes expect. The athlete who complies with the wishes or demands of the leader might expect to win, to be positively reinforced, to get playing time, and/or to receive a higher status (Murray, 1986). A balance between the wants of the coach and those of the athletes must be established: in essence, a cost-benefit ratio.

According to Maslow, the greatest leaders are those who are humble and flexible while also having the strength of character to make decisions that may not be popular (Murray, 1986). These unpopular decisions may not always be the correct ones, but they show a leader's commitment to the vision of success. Former professional football coach Don Shula (1995) explains that as a coach, one is forced to make difficult decisions under pressure involving great risk. "If you ever make a mistake or don't make the right call, and you don't acknowledge that it was your mistake, that'll eat away at your credibility" (p. 51). A leader can gain respect by acknowledging poor decisions on his or her part, thereby maintaining his/her professional integrity.

As mentioned at the beginning of this section, "leadership itself is one of the most mentioned and least understood processes" (Morrow, 1987, p. 21). The remainder of this section

covers a selection of leadership perspectives that have been an important part of the development of leadership in athletics, particularly football.

<div align="center">Trait Perspective of Leadership</div>

One of the first leadership perspectives on record studied all the great leaders of the past. The researchers wanted to determine if these individuals possessed some particular characteristics that would allow for successful leadership. This perspective, called the Great Man Theory, postulated that "effective leaders could be differentiated from non-leaders on the basis of the specific traits they possessed" (Carron, 1980, p. 105). If these traits or qualities remained constant from one successful individual to another, it was believed that valuable insights into leadership research would be gained (Murray, 1986). The proponents of this theory believed that certain personality traits would make it likely for these leaders to be successful regardless of the situation in which they were involved. For example, someone like Joe Montana, one of the top quarterbacks to ever play in the National Football League (NFL), would be as successful off the field in a boardroom as on the field playing the game of football (Parcells, 1995).

Within athletics, leadership has received only minimal and peripheral attention (Carron, 1980; Bird, Cripe, Stutts, & Brame, 1986). Is it possible that coaches, as a group of leaders, are unique and possess a distinct set of dispositions or traits? According to Carron (1980), Cratty's 1967 research showed that where young men are concerned, "physical size and athletic prowess were important factors in ascendancy to leadership positions at particular age levels" (p. 107). Further to these two factors, Ogilvie and Tutko (1966) characterised coaches as being inflexible and having low interest in dependency needs of others, while Hendry (1974) found coaches to be dominant, decisive, in control, calm, able to hide emotions, and well-organised.

In 1948, through a meta-analysis of articles on trait perspective, Stogdill found some variance between traits exhibited by leaders versus non-leaders (Slack, 1997). Although Stogdill's results showed leadership variance, he concluded that the qualities, characteristics, and leadership skills he discovered suggest a relationship between the situation and the leader rather than just the actual characteristics of the leader (Slack, 1997). In particular, "leader intelligence only explains approximately seven to nine percent of the variability in task performance" (Carron, 1980, p. 106). In a review of literature pertaining to leadership in sport, Sage (1975) found that personality traits and leadership effectiveness could not be conclusively related due to the small and unrepresentative sampling the research evidence showed.

Unfortunately, trait leadership perspective has never provided conclusive evidence about the characteristics of great leaders. "With the possible exception of elite athletes, the trait approach provided little insight into how personality relates to sport performance. Those same problems appear when this approach is used to describe the desirable qualities of coaches and other sport leaders" (Bird et al., 1986, p. 285). In particular, certain general trends were noticed by researchers; however, these traits or qualities could not discriminate between effective and non-effective leaders, especially when the traits were applied to other contexts (Murray, 1986; Horn, 1992; Weinberg & Gould, 1995). Behavioural and situational factors, and the interaction of these two factors are the stepping stones to further leadership research.

Behavioural Perspective of Leadership

Research in behavioural perspectives conceptualised that great leaders can learn behaviours to lead successfully. In contrast to trait perspective, behavioural perspective proffers that nurture, not nature makes an effective leader (Bird et al., 1986). Most research on behavioural perspectives has been conducted in the area of business management (Murray,

1986). Its focus was to identify the style of leadership or those leader behaviours deemed most likely to increase the effectiveness of subordinates (Slack, 1997) and subordinates' satisfaction (Carron, 1980).

Researchers at Ohio State University (OSU) and the University of Michigan (U of M) have recorded the greatest developments in this area of research. Prior to 1957, the OSU group identified nine dimensions of behaviour that all leaders possessed (Carron, 1980). Specifically, the nine dimensions are initiation, membership, representation, integration, organisation, domination, communication—up and down, recognition, and production. In 1957, OSU researchers proceeded to develop the Leadership Behaviour Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) to identify the different behaviours of leaders (Cox, 1985). These researchers believed that successful leaders in business, military, government, and education would react in certain situations with particular behaviours. Results from further development of this questionnaire indicated that two of the original nine dimensions were present across all four occupational domains: consideration and initiating structure. Consideration refers to friendship, mutual trust, respect, and warmth between the leader and subordinates. Initiating structure refers to such behaviours as setting up rules and regulations, channels of communication, procedural methods, and well-defined patterns of organisation to achieve goals and objectives (Cox, 1985; Murray, 1986). According to studies conducted by OSU, successful leaders score high on both consideration and initiating structure (Murray, 1986).

For their part, following World War II, researchers at the U of M furthered the study on the behavioural approach to leadership. Initially, their studies described a leader as being either production-centred or employee-centred, but not both (Stogdill, 1974); however, further research

concluded that while a leader could use both production- and employee-centred approaches, the most successful leaders would actually score high in both behaviours (Murray, 1986).

When Chelladurai and Saleh (1978) related behaviour perspectives to sport, they found that those coaches most desired by athletes trained their athletes competitively, provided social support, and were rewarding in nature. In a study conducted by Massimo in 1973, gymnasts were asked to rank behaviours they preferred most in coaches. The study identified the following behaviours, listed in order of the gymnasts' preference: minimal verbiage, a sense of humour, individual psychology, having technical competence, and understanding the sociology of the team (Murray, 1986).

While these studies led to advances in leadership, the behavioural approach emphasised that learned behaviours could be applied universally to all environments. The concern with universality is that "it ignores the possibility that the best leadership style may depend on the situation" (McShane, 1998, p. 368). Although researchers were able to identify consideration and initiating structure as behaviours apparent in successful leaders, they were not able to develop a conclusive set of behaviours that could apply to all situations. It was determined that further research should focus on situational characteristics and how they influence behaviour.

Situational Perspective of Leadership

The situational perspective discusses the relationship between the leader's environment and its impact on the trait characteristics and behaviours of the leader. Currently it is believed that leadership effectiveness is context or situation specific, which implies that the behaviours, decision styles, and traits of successful leaders vary as a result of factors within the environment (Horn, 1992). Factors important to leadership success are the characteristics of coaches and

subordinates, the organisational situation, and the demands of the specific situation (Murray, 1986).

Leaders respond to environmental demands in two manners: relationship-oriented and task-oriented. These two orientations are representations of the behavioural perspective dimensions, consideration and initiating structure, respectively. A leader could change from a relationship-oriented style to a task-oriented style depending on the situation. Relationship-oriented leaders tend to focus on developing and maintaining good interpersonal relationships, where the final game performance outcome is less important to the leader. In contrast, task-oriented leaders focus on setting team performance goals and achieving the team's mission and are therefore much less concerned with the building of strong relationships. Perhaps a combination of the two in various situations would be the best method (Weinberg & Gould, 1995).

It is important for coaches and team leaders to be aware of different situational factors that may influence their decision styles. Physical location within a group, degree of situational stress, and the type of behaviour resulting from the stress are all a part of situational perspective (Carron, 1980). By understanding different situational factors, coaches and team leaders can better prepare themselves to lead in a variety of environments. To better understand the situational perspective of leadership, specific leadership models and their supporting theories are discussed next.

Path Goal Model of Leadership
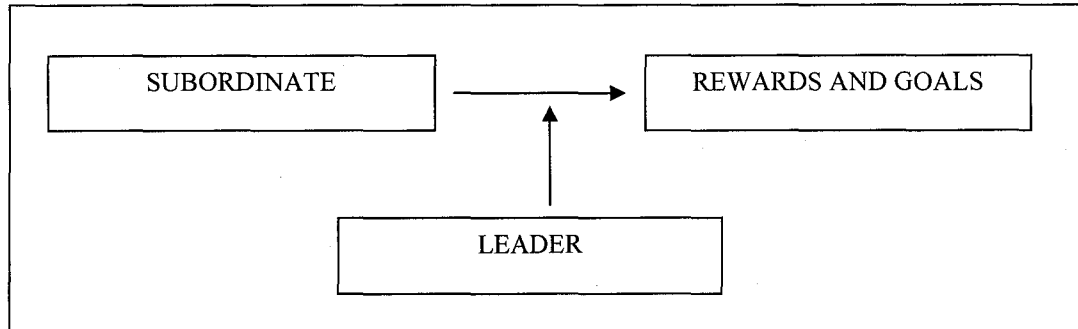
Figure 2. Path Goal Model of Leadership (House, 1971).

The Path Goal Theory (PGT) of leadership is concerned with how leadership behaviour influences subordinates to reach their goals and rewards. According to the PGT, the nature of the task to be completed and the subordinates' characteristics are two factors that affect the subordinates' needs for leader influence. Chelladurai and Carron (1983) describe the leader's primary goals to be "supplemental, namely, to provide the coaching, guidance, support, and necessary rewards to subordinates, as they move along the organisational path towards their goals" (p. 371). Performance and satisfaction of group members are linked to a leader who exhibits "behaviours appropriate to individuals' needs, and to task characteristics" (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1978, p. 85). A leader would first clarify the path required to reach the group members' goals. He or she would then determine any obstacles that could alter the process of reaching task completion and then work to eliminate those obstacles should they hamper progress to the goals. The leader must then provide social support for the group and reward group members for their efforts towards achieving the goal (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1978).

The task itself was a major determinant of specific leader behaviour. Since structure serves to reduce role ambiguity and clarify path-goal relationships, it would be desired more by subordinates who are involved in ambiguous tasks rather than unambiguous tasks (House, 1971).

Where tasks are varied and interdependent in nature, "the PGT will regulate and clarify path-goal relationships" (House, 1971, p. 325).

There have been conflicting results as to the strength of this model in the research fields of management and organisational behaviour; however, researchers found that this theory was relevant in finding specific situational variables. In the athletic context, Chelladurai and Saleh (1978) used House's PGT (1971) to establish five different leadership behaviours: training and instruction, autocratic, democratic, social support, and rewarding behaviour (now termed as positive feedback). These five behaviours would later be used in the Leadership Scale for Sports, a measurement scale described later in this chapter. Chelladurai (1980) further developed the PGT in athletics by substituting the leader for coach and described the coach's role as merely supplemental to the athletes' progress towards their goals. He explained that member satisfaction was a function of congruence between actual leader behaviour and the athlete's preference for such behaviour. Chelladurai used this relationship of actual leader behaviour and preferred leader behaviour in his Multidimensional Model of Sport Leadership in athletics (described in more detail later in this chapter) (Chelladurai, 1980).

Normative Model of Decision Styles in Coaching
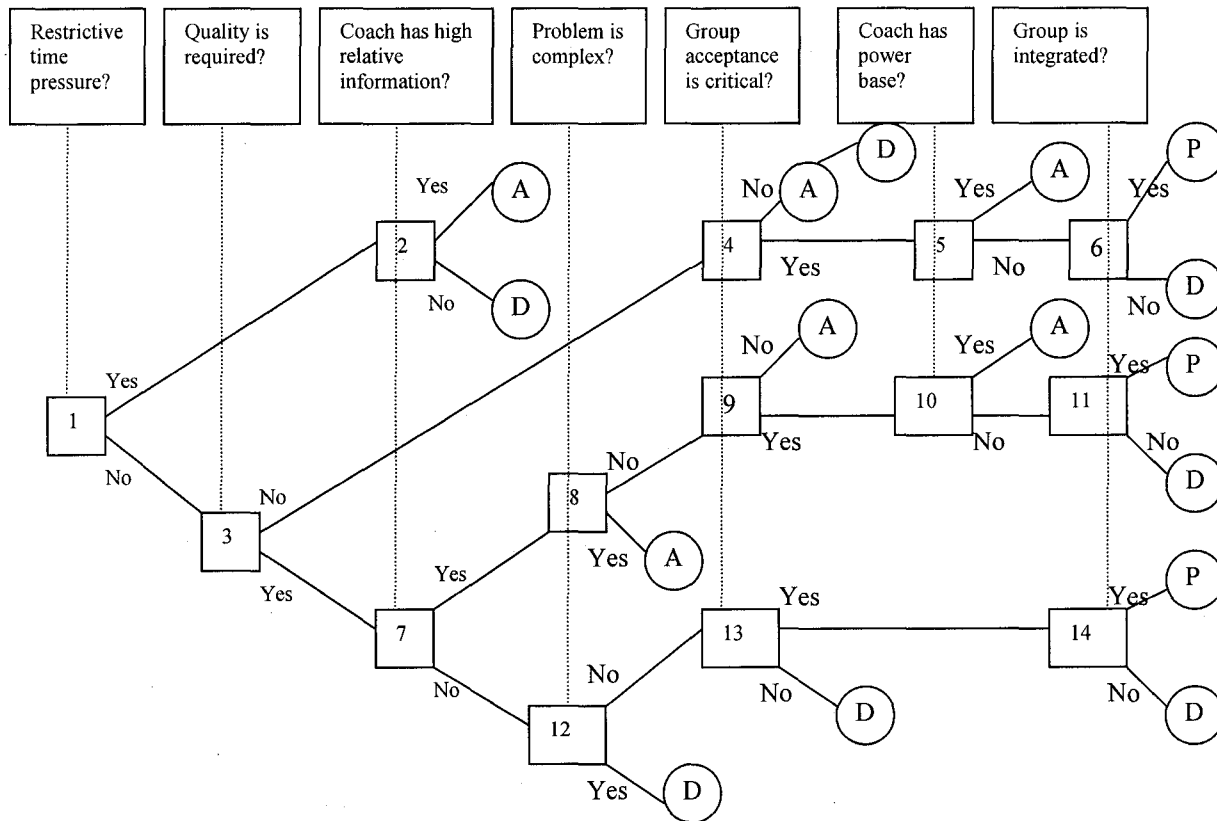
Figure 3. Normative Model of Decision Styles in Coaching (Chelladurai & Haggerty, 1978).

A leadership model, originally designed by Vroom and Yetton (1973), was applied to the sport setting by Chelladurai and Haggerty in 1978 and called the Normative Model of Decision Styles in Coaching (NMDSC). The theory for this model suggested that a coach's leadership philosophy would determine the degree to which he/she would allow subordinate participation in decision making. They proposed three leader decision styles that would describe this level of athlete participation: autocratic, delegative, and participative. An autocratic leadership style describes a coach who makes the final decision without consulting the athletes for their opinions. In participative leadership style, the coach becomes another member of the team during decision making. Lastly, delegative leadership style describes a coach who allows an athlete or a group of

athletes to make a decision, and then he/she merely announces the decision or implements it

(Chelladurai & Haggerty, 1978).

According to Chelladurai (1986), "all of the various activities carried out by a coach

involve decision making, which is defined as the process of selecting an alternative from among

many choices to achieve a desired end" (p. 107). Variables affecting the decision process

included time pressure, quality of decision, extent to which individuals are informed, problem

complexity, group acceptance, power base, and group interaction. The model is designed as a

flow chart. The coach is required to follow the branches of the flow chart answering yes or no to

each particular question. Depending on the situation, a coach would answer each of the questions

contained in this model either consciously or subconsciously. Through the answering of these

questions the coach would determine the appropriate decision style, indicated at the end of the

flow chart (Chelladurai, 1986).

As a result of studies conducted by Gordon (1983), and Chelladurai and Arnott (1985), a

new concept called consultative decision style was proposed. This concept was in essence, an

extension of the autocratic decision style wherein the coach allowed for consultation with players

prior to his/her final decision. While these studies showed that the delegative decision style in the

NMDSC was "totally rejected by the respondents", this model identified the delegative style in 7

of the 15 situations tested (Chelladurai, 1986, p. 114). Chelladurai and Arnott (1985) suggested

that the four decision styles (autocratic, consultative, participative, and delegative) should be

placed on a continuum reflecting the degree of coaching influence in each decision. In fact, they

found that players who deemed the coach as extremely knowledgeable in their particular sport

preferred him/her to be more autocratic in decision making. This was also the case when the

quality of the decision was important, such as involving a decision potentially affecting the

outcome of the game, or if the problem was complex (Chelladurai & Arnott, 1985).

Contingency Model of Leadership
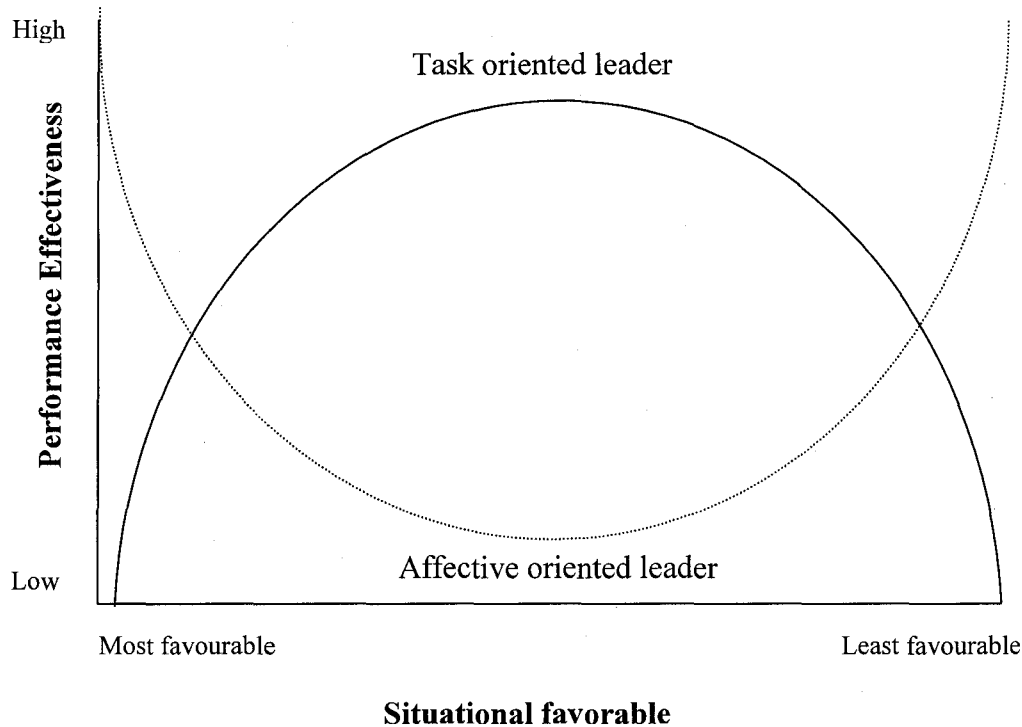
Figure 4. Contingency Model of Leadership (adapted from Fiedler, 1967 by Chelladurai &

Carron, 1978).

Fiedler's 1967 Contingency Model of Leadership (CML) demonstrates that the leader's

personality, his/her leadership style, the group, and the situation all combine to affect group

performance and satisfaction. In a sport setting the coach would choose an appropriate leadership

behaviour dependent on the athletes' skill level, age, and maturity as well as on their

expectations of the appropriate leader behaviour (Anshel, 1990). Fiedler believed that a leader's

style would be dependent on his or her own needs and personality (Bird et al., 1986; Murray,

1986). Murray (1986) claimed leaders were either people-oriented (affective-oriented) or task-oriented. A people-oriented leader would focus his/her attention on the needs of the individual group members whereas a task-oriented leader would focus on the task to be performed. According to Bird et al. (1986), since it is more difficult to change a leader's personality to meet specific situational requirements, Fiedler's model stressed the importance of matching the leader's style to a situation.

Fiedler's CML and theory gained general support from the large number of studies conducted on its use in management and organisational behaviour research (Slack, 1997). Bird et al. (1986) discuss three studies linking CML to sport environments. These studies concluded that teams consisting of highly skilled individuals, that is, players possessing task-oriented skills, would be more successful if the coach were more people-oriented (affective-oriented). In contrast, they found that teams with lower skilled players required coaches to be adopt a task-oriented style (Bird et al., 1986).

Discrepancy Model of Subordinate Satisfaction with the Leader
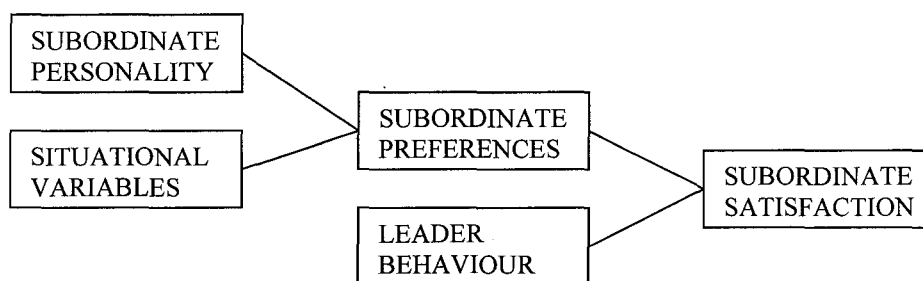
Figure 5. Discrepancy Model of Subordinate Satisfaction with the Leader (Yukl, 1971).

Yukl's (1971) Discrepancy Model of Subordinate Satisfaction with the Leader outlines the relationship between subordinate preferences for leader behaviour, leader behaviour specific

to the particular situation, and the resultant subordinate satisfaction. Two factors affecting

subordinate preferences are the subordinate's personality and the situational variables. He

hypothesised that if a leader were to behave in accordance with a subordinate's preferred

behaviour, the outcome would be increased subordinate satisfaction (1971). Another facet of

Yukl's discrepancy theory is degree of satisfaction, that is, the degree of importance that a

subordinate attributes to the preference for particular leader behaviour. The importance level for

a preference varies from person to person; thus, Yukl (1971) states one must adjust for

importance before comparing discrepancy scores among individuals.

When relating this theory to athletics, Chelladurai (1984) stated, "that satisfaction would

be maximal when there is congruence between athletes' perceptions and preferences" (p. 31). In

fact, according to Chelladurai (1984) as athletes increase their sport experience, they show

greater preference for authoritarian and social support coaching behaviour. Therefore, in order to

increase satisfaction among athletes, coaches should work to align their behaviours to the level

of play and preferences of the athletes they are coaching.

Situational Leadership Theory (Life Cycle Model)
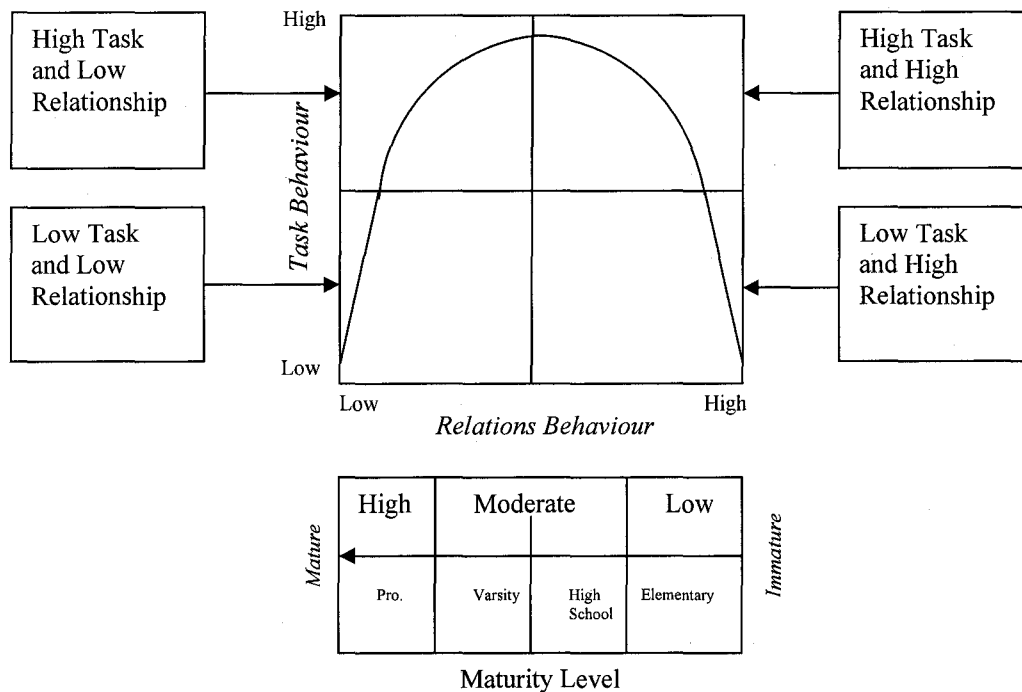
Figure 6. Situational Leadership Model in Athletics (Chelladurai & Carron, 1978).

The Situational Leadership Theory (SLT), also known as Hersey and Blanchard's Life

Cycle Theory of Leadership (1979), investigated the association between relationship-oriented

and task-oriented leadership behaviours with respect to subordinates' maturity level. These

researchers identified initiating structure (task-oriented) and consideration (relationship-oriented)

as the two most important dimensions of leadership. Initiating structures deals with establishing

well-defined patterns of organisation, communication channels, and proper protocols. In contrast,

consideration fosters friendship, mutual trust, respect, and amicable situations (Case, 1990).

These leader behaviours are distinct and are thus plotted separately on two axes, rather than a

single continuum. According to Case (1990) research suggests that leaders may possess a

combination of these orientations, allowing them to be both relationship- and task-oriented.

The essential facet of the SLT is the concept of "task-relevant maturity" which indicates the appropriate use of relationship- and task-oriented behaviours given a group of subordinates within their environment (Anshel, 1990, p. 167). Anshel (1990) further describes the importance of task-relevant maturity:

> The leader's actions are dependent on the maturity of the group members, specifically job maturity and psychological maturity. Job maturity comprises three components: (1) the group's capacity to set and reach goals, (2) the group's willingness and ability to assume responsibility, and (3) the extent of group education and experience – in a word, competence. Psychological maturity indicates the level of self-respect, self-confidence, and self-esteem that each member brings to the group. (p. 167)

Slack (1997) suggests that if the maturity level of the followers were low, then high task- and low relationship-oriented behaviours would be most effective. The leader would provide direction by establishing proper methods to achieve task completion. When the subordinates gain maturity in relation to the task, to a medium level, the leader would begin to reduce the task behaviour and to increase relationship behaviour. In the latest stages of maturity, leader-subordinate relationships will be further developed and the leader will allow the subordinates to make decisions about how tasks are to be completed. The SLT suggests that in the final stages, as one has psychologically matured, the leader takes on more of a consultant-type role with his or her followers and adopts a style of decision making in which negotiation is prevalent (Anshel, 1990).

Similar to the concept of job maturity, but specific to sports, is athletic maturity or "relative mastery of skill and knowledge in sport" (Chelladurai & Carron, 1983, p. 372) further described as the progression of an athlete through sport. Chelladurai and Carron (1983) have

linked the SLT to athletics, essentially differentiating maturity levels in sports by elementary

school, high school, university, and professional. The first level would require high task- and low

relationship-oriented behaviours. The second level calls for high task- and high relationship-

oriented leader behaviours. At the third level, a low task- and high relationship-oriented

approach would be most appropriate, with the final stage of athletic maturity prescribing a low

task- and low relationship-oriented leader behaviour.

The SLT has been tested in both educational and industrial settings, obtaining various

results (Chelladurai & Carron, 1983). In the sport context, research has led to limited support for

this theory. In a study investigating minor hockey at the elementary to junior high school level,

results indicated that increased relationship-oriented behaviour was more effective than task-

oriented behaviour (Danielson, 1978). The findings of this study contradict the SLT at the lower

maturity levels. Another study conducted in the same year, dealing with thousands of athletes

ranging from 11 to 18 years of age, indicated that irrespective of culture, sex, sport, or age, the

primary motive for continuing in sport was a positive affiliation with the coach (Alderman,

1978). Once again support for the SLT was not found. A third study, investigating little league

baseball with relationship-oriented coaching behaviours indicated no increase or decrease in win-

loss records, but did find enhanced learning and enjoyment (Smith, Smoll, Hunt, Curtis, and

Coppell, 1979). Players reported greater degrees of satisfaction when playing for coaches

exhibiting this behaviour and an increased desire to continue playing for them in the following

season. On the basis of this research, the investigators, Smith et al. (1979), suggested youth

baseball coaches should use a relationship-oriented approach to coaching this sport.

In a fourth study, by Vos Strache (1979), which assessed 20 collegiate coaches, a concern

arose that the athletic maturity range in most athletic studies was not broad enough, and thus this

researcher suggested further studies should try to incorporate all levels of play when applying research validating the SLT.

Coincidentally, while these various researchers were testing the validity of SLT, Chelladurai and Carron (1978) modified this theory in order to apply it to athletics. The most significant modification to the SLT was the shift from the previous task-oriented focus to a greater emphasis of relationship-oriented behaviours at lower maturity levels. The task-oriented approach increased only in the middle range of athletic maturity. The final stage of athletic maturity remained the same as the SLT such that low relationship- and low task-oriented behaviours were most appropriate.

To test both the SLT and the revised athletic version of the theory, Case (1980) conducted research on 40 basketball coaches and their players at the junior high school, senior high school, college, and university athletic levels. Case (1980) found no support for the SLT and mixed results for the athletic version. He found that task-oriented behaviours should be stressed at both the lowest and highest levels of athletic maturity and even more in the middle stages of maturity. While Chelladurai and Carron (1978) suggested an increased need for relationship-oriented behaviours, Case's results (1980) did not support this. In a later study Chelladurai and Carron (1983) expressed concern over the measurement tool used in Case's 1980 study. By limiting his test to the second and third levels of athletic maturity, and by testing only the athletes' perceptions rather than their preferences for leadership behaviour, Chelladurai and Carron (1983) argue that further research on this theory is needed. They suggested an investigation of the full spectrum of athletic maturity from the youngest level of an organised sport to the highest. They explained that some sports contain a chronological age span of 27

years or more, beginning with the youngest athletes at age eight to the oldest at age 35 or more (Chelladurai & Carron, 1983).

A major concern of the application of the SLT to sport is whether the social system of athletics allows for the full development of athletic maturity. According to Chelladurai and Carron (1983), as athletes progress though athletic maturity levels, they "become socialised into preferring less responsibility" (p. 378). Chelladurai and Carron (1983) referred to previous research determining that athletes preferred greater amounts of autocratic behaviour from their coaches as they increased levels of experience (Chelladurai, 1978; Chelladurai & Saleh, 1978; and Chelladurai & Carron, 1982). To properly test this theory, Chelladurai and Carron (1983) concluded that the SLT would best be investigated by covering the full spectrum of athletic maturity as well as looking at leadership behaviours of coaches of successful and unsuccessful teams.

Interactional Perspective of Leadership

The final leadership perspective covered in this literature review might be described as a combination of the trait, behavioural, and situational perspectives. The interactional perspective of leadership examines the relationship between two or more independent variables and how they influence one another. In essence, this perspective of leadership is an extension of the situational perspective, in that each situation is "interpreted, analysed, filtered, and perceived based on the unique set of past experiences, learning, and biological qualities of each individual" (Phares, 1991, p. 244). While the situational leadership perspective examined leader and member trait characteristics, leader behaviour, and how these factors were affected by environmental circumstances, the interactional perspective looks at how each of these factors influence one another (Zimbardo, 1988).

Adams and Gullota (1989) suggest that behavioural change is a process of the interaction of many factors, "such as biological, psychosocial, historical, and socio-cultural influences that occur in many situations and environments" (p. 44). In order to determine the most effective leadership behaviour for a particular situation, a leader must grasp an understanding of the importance of the situation to the subordinate (Phares, 1991). Thus, interaction is an ongoing process, whereby all the factors within a particular situation influence one another having a direct impact on leadership behaviours.

In applying this perspective of leadership to the sport setting, Chelladurai (1980) developed the multidimensional model of leadership. This model is described in greater detail in the next section highlighting the interaction of various factors that influence a coach's behaviour. The resulting outcome is dependent on the particular leadership behaviour chosen by the coach. According to the interactional perspective of leadership, this outcome will have an influence on further coaching decisions.

Multidimensional Model of Sport Leadership
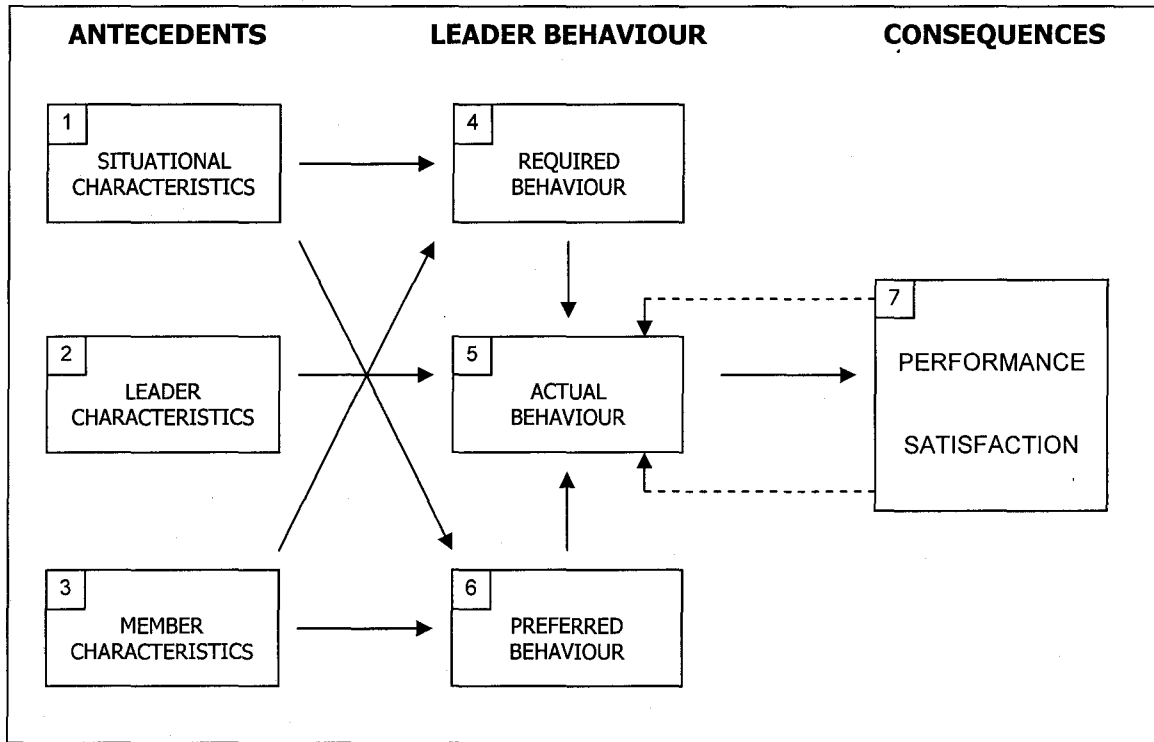
Figure 7. The Multidimensional Model of Sport Leadership (Chelladurai, 1980).

In direct response to a perceived void in leadership sport research, Chelladurai (1980)

developed a sport-specific leadership model called the Multidimensional Model of Sport

Leadership (MMSL). Drawing upon ideas from previous industrial and educational models,

Chelladurai (1980) derived the MMSL model. A number of previous models had been

transformed for application in the sport setting, but the MMSL was the first to be developed

specifically for sport (Garland & Barry, 1988). The specific models that were synthesised in the

development of the MMSL include the Path Goal Model (House, 1971), the Normative Model of

Decision Styles in Coaching (Vroom & Yetton, 1973; Chelladurai & Haggerty, 1978), the

Contingency Model in Athletics (Fiedler, 1967; Chelladurai, 1978), the Discrepancy Model of

Subordinate Satisfaction with the Leader (Yukl, 1971), and the Situational Leadership Theory

(Hersey & Blanchard, 1979; Chelladurai & Carron, 1978).

The term multidimensional is used to describe this model due to its multi-faceted nature (Weiss and Friedrichs, 1986). One of these facets, actual leadership behaviour, is influenced by the interaction of three factors: leader characteristics, required behaviour, and preferred behaviour. Leader characteristics are predominantly affected by the leader's personality traits, abilities, and previous experiences (Chelladurai, 1990). Required and preferred behaviour are affected by two antecedents, namely situational characteristics (i.e., sport type), and member characteristics (i.e., athletes' personality traits) (Garland & Barry, 1988). Thus, the model proposed that the interaction of these three factors can have a significant impact upon performance and satisfaction (Chelladurai, 1980). Ultimately, the performance and satisfaction will also contribute to actual leadership behaviour in a continual feedback loop.

Athletes of different age groups and skill levels do not necessarily have the same requirements and needs for participating in athletic contexts (Anshel, 1990). It is therefore assumed that leaders aspiring to enhance performance and satisfaction should behave according to the various facets of the physical and social environments determined by the leader characteristics, the required behaviours, and the preferred behaviours (Weiss & Friedrichs, 1986). Westre and Weiss (1991) have defined athlete satisfaction "as the degree to which athletes are satisfied with existing leadership styles and behaviours" (p. 43). Performance may relate to individual or team win-loss records and/or completing specific tasks to a pre-determined level of success. Chelladurai and Carron (1978) explain that younger athletes prefer behaviour that is relationship-oriented over task-oriented, whereas professional players prefer greater amounts of task-oriented behaviour by their leaders.

Results from a study conducted by Garland and Barry (1988) investigating the influence of personality traits and perceived leader behaviours on performance in collegiate football

indicate support for the MMSL. They found that leader behaviours and antecedent variables, specifically group member characteristics (personality traits) positively influenced athletic performance. To facilitate the testing of the MMSL, Chelladurai and Saleh (1980) developed a sport specific leadership questionnaire called the Leadership Scale for Sports. The remainder of this section will describe antecedents affecting leadership in sports, team performance, and satisfaction.

Antecedents Affecting Leadership in Sport

    Situational characteristics.

This section discusses the effects of the environment or situation on preferred and required leadership behaviours. A situational factor effecting leader behaviour, is the organisational goal, which can be described as the end result toward which athletes will motivate themselves. The organisational goal might range from mere participation to a high-level championship (Chelladurai, 1990, 1993). With different motives for participating in competitive versus recreational sports, it is no wonder that the "development of personal confidence, co-operation, and independent thinking in a group context may all be improved through participation in intercollegiate athletics" (Ryan, 1989, p. 125). Ryan's (1989) research found that the pressures of competition, the amount of time and effort committed to sport activities, practices, and travelling all combine to develop a unique learning experience and personal growth advantage not always available to non-athletes. In fact, Erle's (1981) study, investigating leadership preferences of intercollegiate and intramural hockey teams, found that intercollegiate players preferred greater amounts of training and instruction and social support behaviours from their coaches. In addition, this study concluded that intercollegiate players preferred less positive feedback and democratic behaviours than did the intramural players (Erle, 1981). Thus, coaches

should consider the sport's organisational goal (winning versus participation) when interacting with their athletes.

A second factor affecting the optimal leadership behaviours was the type of sport involved. For example, athletes in closed-skill versus open-skill sport will likely have different expectations of their coaches. A closed-skill sport has low variability; environmental changes have little effect on play, thereby requiring few adjustments on the athlete's part. On the other hand, open-skilled sport has high variability, and the athlete needs a firm understanding of the nature of the sport's constant fluctuations (Chellardurai & Saleh, 1978; Rink, 1985). Chelladurai and Saleh (1978) found that in contrast to the Path Goal Theory, closed-sport athletes preferred training behaviour more than did the open-sport athletes. House (1971) believed that training behaviour would become redundant and dissatisfying in a closed-skilled sport. In the former study, researchers suggested that one of the reasons closed-sport athletes emphasise the importance of structure and training in their sport is the monotonous nature of their training in general. Hence, a coach who enforces regimented training may have a greater chance of keeping athletes on task and reaching their full potential (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1978). Males in closed-skilled sports preferred a more supportive behaviour than males in open-skilled sports. As previously discussed, closed-skill sports tend to be dissatisfying in nature and the increased desire for supportive behaviour of coaches may offset the monotony of closed-skill tasks (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1978).

Another factor affecting leader behaviour is the level of player independence in any given sport. A sport requiring little or no interaction among members would be classified as independent. These types of sports may include dance, diving, gymnastics, wrestling, and tennis. Chelladurai and Saleh (1978) suggest that player interdependence is essential in team sports

requiring co-ordinated efforts to achieve success. Terry and Howe (1984) found that athletes in independent sports preferred more democratic and less autocratic behaviour than did interdependent sport athletes. Moreover, studying the differences of individual sport and team sports, Terry and Howe (1984) concluded that interdependent athletes preferred significantly more training and instruction, autocratic and positive feedback leadership behaviours than did independent athletes.

The results of a study in which Chelladurai and Saleh (1978) investigated the effects of dependence and task variability of athletes on preferred leader behaviour, indicated that regardless of the leadership style chosen, the leader must focus on one of three behaviours: training, social support, or the rewarding of members. Team sport athletes (interdependent) expressed greater preference for their coach to emphasise more training behaviour than did the individual sport athletes (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1978). The success of the team was dependent on practicing various plays and strategies, along with each team member working to perfect his or her own ability to execute plays. This evidence confirms earlier research by House (1971) that interdependent sport athletes prefer training behaviour and structure in their sport environment.

Culture is another factor affecting leader behaviour. In a study conducted by Terry and Howe (1984) using the Leadership Scale for Sports with athletes from Canada, Great Britain, and United States, no significant differences were found in the athletes' preferences for leadership behaviours. Concerned with the similarity of cultures among the three countries studied in Terry and Howe's (1984) research, Chelladurai, Malloy, Imamura, and Yamaguchi (1987) investigated leadership preferences of Japanese and Canadian physical education students. Chelladurai et al. (1987) determined that those Japanese students participating in modern sports (i.e., basketball and volleyball) preferred more democratic and social support than did the Canadian students in

similar sports, leading the researchers to conclude that cultural background had an effect on leadership behaviour preferences.

Thus, this section outlines the necessity to recognise how required and preferred leadership behaviours may be influenced by situational characteristics, including a group's organisational goal, the type of sport (closed or open and independent or interdependent), level of play, and culture. A better understanding of these antecedents may enhance the application of the MMSL in athletics.

Individual (team member) characteristics.

This section discusses the effect that individual characteristics have on the required and preferred leadership behaviour chosen by the coach. For example, in their study of dependence, variability, and gender in sport, Chelladurai and Saleh (1978) discovered a difference between the leadership behaviour preferences of male and female athletes. Specifically, they determined that more males preferred their coach to be autocratic than did females. Furthermore, females, as compared to males, showed a preference for democratic behaviours. Thus, a coach should pay close attention to leadership decision-making styles when working with mixed-gender teams. Interestingly, when looking at supportive behaviour, the study showed that males, more than did females, preferred a coach who was supportive. This would imply that males are more dependent on the coach than are females, which may appear "contrary to generally held assumptions" (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1978, p. 91).

Ability of athletes is also a factor affecting leadership behaviour in sport. Garland and Barry (1988) grouped football players into three categories according to their amount of playing time: starters, substitutes, and survivors. Results of their study indicated those players who received greater amounts of playing time perceived their coaches to emphasise more training and

instruction, social support, and positive feedback behaviours than did the other players (Garland & Barry, 1988). In addition, the football players with limited playing time perceived their coaches' leadership behaviour as being more autocratic. This confirms findings of an earlier study, in which Robinson and Carron (1982) discovered that high school football team dropouts perceived their coaches to be more autocratic than did the starters on those same teams.

Another characteristic affecting leadership behaviour is athletic maturity. In their study, testing 262 male basketball players, Chelladurai and Carron (1983) found that respondents showed a greater desire for social support behaviour as athletic maturity increased. Furthermore, the investigators' results found that training and instruction behaviour decreased from the high school midget to senior level and sharply increased at the university level. In what was termed "competitive sports" Erle (1981) found that athletes with more experience expressed an increased preference for positive feedback. As previously mentioned, studying athletes across a wider range of athletic maturity, may provide broader perspective of leadership behaviour preferences among a variety of levels of play (Chelladurai & Carron, 1983).

Team Performance and Satisfaction

This section discusses the consequences variable of the Multidimensional Model of Sport Leadership (MMSL) (Chelladurai, 1980). Chelladurai's (1980) MMSL theory proposes that increased team performance and satisfaction will result if the actual leadership behaviour consists of an alignment of required coaching behaviour, preferred coaching behaviour, and leader characteristics. Team performance may consist of winning the league championship, a specific match, or reaching a set of group goals or objectives. One concern of focusing solely on winning a specific contest as a determinant of team performance is the possibility of the team never achieving this target. Winning or losing a football game is rarely determined by simply the

players or coaches alone. Other factors, such as an opponent's superior performance, pure chance, and officiating decisions, may also have effects on the outcome (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1978). A team that focuses entirely on winning the championship without any other success indicators will often be disappointed due to the "zero-sum" nature of sports. Competitive football is structured to guarantee but one winner of the championship (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1978).

Komaki and Barnett's (1977) research on youth football lends support to the argument for the importance of identifying specific performance objectives. With the aid of a checklist, specifying five performance objectives within a particular play, these researchers identified a 20% play execution improvement over the course of the research period. Coaches of this youth football team expressed ease in providing feedback and positive reinforcement as the play developed (Komaki & Barnett, 1977). Garland and Barry's (1988) study found football players' perceptions of autocratic coaching behaviours were linked to a less successful coach. The football players on successful teams perceived greater levels of training and instruction, democratic, social support, and positive feedback (rewarding) behaviours and had higher levels of performance than those on unsuccessful teams.

The second component of the consequences variable is satisfaction. Chelladurai (1984) found that when coaches used greater amounts of training and instruction behaviour, athletes' satisfaction with leadership increased. This finding coincides with the notion that because most sports are perceived to be task-oriented, players prefer a coach who chooses training and instruction behaviour (Chelladurai, 1984). Moreover, Anshel (1990) argued that increased positive feelings of subordinates would contribute to long term benefits of team loyalty, support, and enjoyment of participation. A result of this positive attitude and stronger affiliation with the team is enhanced performance (Anshel, 1990). Therefore, although football coaches enter each

game to win, choosing to focus on performance objectives could result in higher satisfaction, and in turn, elevate performance. This helps to confirm Chelladurai and Carron's (1978) belief that satisfaction and performance are dependent upon each other.

Leadership Measurement Tool – Leadership Scale for Sports

The Leadership Scale for Sports (LSS) was developed to measure leadership behaviour in sports. In addition, it was designed to test the validity of the Multidimensional Model of Sport Leadership (MMSL) (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1980). Leadership assessment instruments have been used in other fields of research (i.e., Leadership Behaviour Description Questionnaire-LBDQ, Halpin, 1957 and Leadership Opinion Questionnaire, Fleishman, 1957b); however, their application to the sports setting has had limited success (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1980).

Athletic researchers have maintained that at least three reservations were present in using these measurement tools with athletes due to the uniqueness of the sport domain. First, athletes spend a disproportionate amount of time practising in comparison to the amount of time spent in competition. This differs from industrial settings where training may be minimal in comparison to performance. Another differing factor relates to the reward structure in sports. In competitive sports, individuals and teams work to improve throughout the season with the understanding that only one individual or team can achieve the ultimate goal of first place. Even as athletes strive for success they realise that they may be deprived of it, either due to their opponents' superior performance or pure chance. A final reason that the sport setting differs from others is the relatively short existence of an athletic team. The duration of a team is roughly three to six months, with players moving on to higher levels of play, being released, or retiring at the end of the season. Thus, the social dynamic of the team changes each year, making the sport setting different from others where employee turnover is not usually as frequent.

With sport's uniqueness, an approach to developing a sport-specific leadership measurement began. Danielson, Zelhart, and Drake (1975) administered a questionnaire, containing 140 items modified from the LBDQ, to junior and senior high school hockey players. Results of this study found between eight and 20 different leadership dimensions relating to coaching behaviour in sport. In a later study Chelladurai and Saleh (1978) derived the initial version of the LSS. This second measurement tool in athletics, consisting of 99 items developed from existing leadership questionnaires, LBDQ (Halpin, 1957), Supervisory Behaviour Description Questionnaire (Fleishman, 1957a), Leadership Opinion Questionnaire (Fleishman, 1957b), and LBDQ-Form XII (Stogdill, 1963), was administered to 160 Physical Education students in order to investigate coaching leadership behaviours. In order to quantify the coaches' behaviours, these researchers assigned the following scale based on the percentage of occurrences: "always" 100%, "often" 75%, "occasionally" 50 %, "seldom" 25%, and "never" 0% (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1980). The resulting data was factor analysed and a total of five factors were found to be most meaningful. These factors were named training, democratic behaviour, autocratic behaviour, social support, and rewarding behaviour (now known as positive feedback). A total of 40 items were selected to represent the five different behaviours (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1980).

The development of the LSS proposed five leadership behaviours, the first of which is training and instruction (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1980). This factor included 13 items on the scale relating to the teaching and instructing of the athletes to assist them in reaching their full potential. The orderly and uniform methods of training correspond to the task-oriented and initiating structure behaviour of earlier studies. The second and third factors take into consideration the decision-making style of the coach and their interaction with the athletes. The

second factor, autocratic behaviour, consisting of five items, refers to a coach who makes

decisions and remains relatively aloof from athletes, whereas the third factor, democratic

behaviour, with nine items on the scale, refers to a coach who allows athletes to participate in the

decision making process. Here a coach may ask athletes' opinions to seek their approval or

disapproval on significant matters. The fourth factor, which is linked to consideration and

relationship-oriented behaviour, is social support and involves eight items on the scale. This

factor describes a coach who is concerned with the athletes' welfare and works to maintain a

positive atmosphere among them. The final factor relates to the coach's motivation of athletes

both during training sessions and in competition, regardless of outcome. This factor is defined as

positive feedback (rewarding behaviour) and corresponds to five items on the scale.

To determine the athletes' preferences for coaching leadership behaviours, Chelladurai

and Saleh's (1980) Leadership Scale for Sports Questionnaire preceded each item with, "I prefer

my coach to...". A second version of the test, developed to investigate the athletes' perception of

their coach's actual behaviour, used the prefix, "My coach..." in order to specify participants'

current athletic experience (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1980).

The LSS internal consistency was calculated for each sub-scale, and the scale in general

was considered acceptable. Chelladurai and Saleh (1980) found the alpha coefficient for

autocratic behaviour on the varsity athletes' preference version to be low (.45). However, when

testing both the athletes' perception version and the Physical Education students' preference

version the alpha coefficient was considered to be adequate. With 53 Physical Education students

responding the to the second version of the LSS over a four-week period, the test/re-test

reliability indicated that the five dimensions were adequate. The reliability coefficients "were .72

for training behaviour, .82 for democratic behaviour, .76 for autocratic behaviour, .71 for social support and .79 for positive feedback" (Chelladurai, 1990, p. 333).

The LSS remains a valid measurement tool for leadership in sport due to its proven validity. While it may seem obvious, the fact that the LSS was designed specifically for the sports setting makes it an attractive tool when testing in the sport domain. Furthermore, because it was developed particularly for its Multidimensional Model of Sport Leadership application, it may allow for increased accuracy when testing this model. And finally, because it was designed to test both the players' coaching behaviour preferences and the actual coaching behaviours, the LSS allows for a more comprehensive understanding of coaching leadership behaviours.

Summary of Literature Review

This chapter is designed to provide a thorough understanding of the literature pertaining to leadership in football and is divided into four sections. The first section highlights the historical development of the game and identifies leadership behaviour research as it pertains to the psychological component of football. As leadership has evolved in football, three distinct domains have proven to be excellent resources of information for this research. Specifically, this second section highlights the military, education, and business domains as having an impact on football leadership. The third section of the literature review explains the development of leadership perspectives pertaining to the athletic domain. The perspectives include trait, behavioural, situational, and interactional. Particular emphasis is placed on the latter two perspectives, the basis for this study.

The situational perspective is described as the relationship between a leader's environment and its impact on the leader's trait characteristics and behaviours. Although several models are discussed to describe the situational perspective, this study focuses on the Situational

Leadership Theory (SLT) model as modified to the sport domain. The model looks at the emphasis of relations and task coaching behaviours as they apply to the various athletic maturity levels. This study seeks to examine the SLT across the full spectrum of athletic maturity for both successful and unsuccessful teams.

Finally, the interactional perspective considers the relationship between two or more independent variables and how they influence one another. In other words, this perspective applies the underlying principles of the trait, behavioural, and situational perspectives and considers that these factors are continuously interacting upon one another enabling the leadership process to be ongoing and continuously developing. The Multidimensional Model of Sport Leadership (MMSL) was designed to represent the interactional process of coaching in athletics. The MMSL encompasses the effect of situational characteristics, leader characteristics, and member characteristics on actual leader behaviour (as prescribed by preferred and/or required behaviours). Performance and satisfaction (or consequences) further influence the actual leader behaviour.

The final section of the literature review provides detailed information on the measurement tool chosen for this study, the Leadership Scale for Sports (LSS). This questionnaire was the first of its kind to specifically test leadership within the sport domain. The tool allows research of coaching leadership behaviours preferred and perceived by athletes. The questionnaire identifies five behaviours including training and instruction, autocratic, democratic, social support, and positive feedback.

CHAPTER 3 – METHODS AND PROCEDURES

Introduction

This study investigated the preferred and perceived actual leadership behaviour of football players at four different athletic levels. Canadian high school, CÉGEP, university, and professional football players completed the Leadership Scale for Sports (LSS) Questionnaire which was used to examine their preferences for and perceptions of their unit co-ordinator coach's leadership behaviours from the previous football season. The obtained data was analysed to determine whether level of play and/or unit of play (offensive or defensive) influenced players' leadership behaviour preferences. Successful and unsuccessful teams were investigated to determine if players on teams with varying levels of success had different preferences for leadership behaviours. Finally, the successful and unsuccessful players' perceptions of their coaches were studied to determine whether a difference existed between their preference for and perception of their coaches' actual leadership behaviours.

Participants

While there are two official languages in Canada, English and French, the participants chosen for this study were required to be proficient in English. This need stemmed directly from the research tool chosen: the Leadership Scale for Sports.

A total of 264 participants were given questionnaires. All participants were males, aged 15 to 40 years. The participants were selected from four different levels of Canadian football organisations, high school, CÉGEP, university, and professional, who played for their respective teams during the 1998 season. The high school players ranged in age from 15 to 17 years, CÉGEP from 17 to 21, university 18 to 27, and the professional players were 20 to 40 years of age. While the high school and CÉGEP players had all been trained in the Quebec football

environment, many of the university and professional players originated from other provinces

and throughout the United States. The amount of playing experience for high school players

ranged from one to five years, CÉGEP one to eight years, university one to twelve years, and the

professional football players had a minimum of three to four years. For all levels except the

professional, one of the two teams being studied was triumphant in reaching the championship

final of its league playoffs, while the other did not make it to the playoffs. For purposes of this

study, the first group were designated the successful teams and the second, the unsuccessful

teams.

A visual synopsis of the number of teams at each level, the number of participants, the

number of players at each unit of play, and the number of successful and unsuccessful team

members may be viewed in Table 1.

Table 1

Description of Sample Population

| Level of Play | Teams | Total Players | Unit of Play | | Team Success | |
			Offence	Defence	Successful	Unsuccessful
High school	2	61	30	31	31	30
CÉGEP	2	62	32	30	30	32
University	2	86	48	38	41	45
Professional	1	34	16	18		
Total	7	243	126	117	102	107

The two high school teams were from independent schools (semi-private schools partially

funded by the provincial government) with players in their final two years of high school and

playing on their respective high school Juvenile football teams. Both of these teams were playing

at Sport Étudiant Level III in an eight-team conference. The CÉGEP teams were selected from

two different regions of Montreal and were members of the CÉGEP Sport Étudiant Level AAA

football conference which was comprised of six teams in total. Although both teams are located in Montreal, the players originated from throughout Quebec.

The two university teams are part of the Canadian Intercollegiate Athletic Union (CIAU) and play in the Ontario-Quebec Intercollegiate Football Conference. This conference consisted of seven teams during the season involved. The professional team is one of four teams in the Eastern Conference of the Canadian Football League, which was made up of eight teams from across Canada.

<p style="text-align:center">Research Instrument</p>

The research instrument used was the Leadership Scale for Sports (LSS) designed by Chelladurai in 1980 at a Canadian university. The LSS consists of 40 questions measuring five leadership behaviours: Training and Instruction, Democratic, Autocratic, Social Support, and Positive Feedback. This leadership measurement tool consists of two components. The first component, the player's preference for leadership behaviour, is measured on a scale of "always", "often", "occasionally", "seldom", and "never". The second component uses the same scale to measure players' perceptions of their unit co-ordinator coach from the previous season.

After consultation with a researcher of a recent study that used the LSS, the format of the questionnaire was modified by placing both the preference and perception scales on the same page to facilitate participant completion (Riemer, 1998). Attached to each of the questionnaires was a brief player identification section in which they were asked to provide their name, their team's name, their level of play, and their playing positions. Furthermore, a player consent form was included with each questionnaire, authorising their involvement in the study and the analysis of the participant's question responses.

Data Collection Procedures

Prior to the actual data collection, the head coaches of each team of the educational

institutions involved were contacted by telephone. This initial contact was designed to request

permission from the above individuals to conduct a study with their respective players. At that

time the potential benefits and possible risks were explained and the procedure of the

questionnaire was described, as well as the amount of time foreseen for players to complete the

questionnaire. In the case of the professional team, the initial contact consisted of a letter sent to

the Director of Player Personnel and General Manager requesting permission for their

professional team to be involved in this study. Once contact with this individual was achieved,

the details of the study were explained.

The investigator met with the head coaches of the two high schools to explain the study

in greater detail at which time the questionnaires, accompanied by a covering letter and requisite

consent form, were provided. Due to the age of the high school players, in addition to their own,

the signature of the players' parent or legal guardian was required. At the end of the 1998/1999

school year, the head coach of each high school held a meeting for his team, during which the

purpose of the study was explained, and players were invited to participate. The coaches

emphasised to their players that when completing the perceived version of the questionnaire

("My coach...") they were to respond according to their experiences with their unit co-ordinator

coach from the 1998 season. Those who chose to participate took the questionnaires home to

complete and to have the consent form signed. Initially, too few responses were received from

either school, thereby necessitating a second attempt to gather the required data. In August,

during their 1999 fall training camps, the investigator re-issued questionnaires to the veteran

football players of the 1998 season who had not already returned them, with at plea for their participation. A significant number of players agreed to participate.

The data was gathered from one of the two CÉGEPs during spring training camp in May of 1999. A meeting was held between the investigator and the team's head coach to re-emphasise the purpose of the research prior to issuing questionnaires to the players. The investigator met with the veteran players of the 1998 season who were invited to volunteer their responses by filling out the forms. The head coach encouraged his players to volunteer their responses in order to contribute to the advancement of research on football. The investigator explained to the CÉGEP players that when completing the perceived version of the questionnaire they were to respond in accordance to interaction with their unit co-ordinator coach from the 1998 season. The players took approximately 20 minutes to complete the questionnaire.

Following initial contact, the investigator met with the head coaches of the university teams, at which time they were provided with a copy of the measurement tool. This meeting served to describe in greater detail the purpose of the study and to explain the content of the questionnaires. Data collection began in the first week of April of 1999, immediately following one of the universities' evening Spring training sessions. The head coach explained the purpose of the study to the players while they were still on the field. Directing his comments to the veteran players of the 1998 season, he encouraged those players wishing to participate in the study to meet with the investigator in a classroom. The questionnaire was then administered separately to the offensive and defensive units. Each group was asked to carefully read the instructions at the top of the questionnaire and then reminded that the perceived version was to be filled out while reflecting upon coaching behaviours of their unit co-ordinator coach from the 1998 season. It took an average 20 minutes for each group to complete the questionnaire.

In April 1999, the second university's data was collected between practices on the final day of spring training. Players were assembled and the head coach introduced the investigator who explained the importance of the study. Veteran players of the 1998 season were encouraged to complete the questionnaire. The investigator circulated amongst the players in order to provide the instructions along with clarification between the preferred and perceived versions of the LSS.

In early June of 1999, the professional team data was collected during the first week of their pre-season training camp. The team's personnel director introduced the investigator to the players during their team breakfast. The personnel director encouraged veteran 1998 players to volunteer to complete the questionnaire. As the veteran players received their questionnaires, the difference between the preferred and the perceived version was explained and queries regarding the instructions were answered by the investigator. The investigator distributed the LSS questionnaire to those players who agreed to participate. The questionnaires were completed in approximately 25 minutes.

Data Analysis

A total of 264 participants returned the questionnaires. Due to incompleteness, 21 questionnaires had to be discarded, leaving a total of 243. The Statistical Analysis System (SAS), version 6.12 was used to analyse the data collected from the questionnaires. The 5-point scale of the LSS for players' leadership behaviour responses reflected the frequency with which their coach exhibited each of the behaviours described in the questionnaire. It was scored using a 5 to represent a response of always, 4 for often (about 75% of the time), 3 for occasionally (about 50% of the time), 2 for seldom (about 25% of the time), and 1 for never. The data entered was keyed to identify the number of items on each leadership dimension assessed by the scale and so that a respondent's score on each behaviour was identifiable.

Hypothesis I, Hypothesis II, and Hypothesis III

The data obtained from the administration of the LSS preference version was analysed

using multivariate analyses of variance (MANOVA). A 3 X 5 multivariate analyses of variance

was performed to generate descriptive statistics, main effects and interactions for each of the five

dependent variables (leadership behaviours: training and instruction, autocratic, democratic,

social support, and positive feedback) taking into account differences in the independent

variables: level of play (high school [1], CÉGEP [2], university [3], and professional [4]), unit of

play (offensive [1] and defensive [2]), and team success (success refers to making the playoffs

and their league championship [1] while unsuccessful refers to not making the playoffs [2]). Due

to the fact that only one professional team participated in this study, Hypothesis III is applied to

only the first three levels of play.

A decision was made to use multivariate analyses of variance, rather than completing

five-univariate analyses of variance for each of the leadership behaviours, as the dependent

variables were significantly correlated. Therefore, when, "multicolinearity exists, the MANOVA

is the recommended procedure to solve the problem" (Stevens, 1996, p. 76). A significance level

of $p = .01$ was established. Stevens (1996) furthermore explains that the Tukey test procedure,

"enables us to examine all pair-wise group differences on a variable with experiment-wise error

rate held in check" (p. 203). Hence, all possible pair-wise, pre-planned contrasts were performed

with Tukey tests in order to identify group differences.

Hypothesis IV

Hypothesis IV addressed the differences between the leadership behaviours football

players preferred their coaches to use and the actual behaviours they perceived their coaches

exhibited. This hypothesis is applied to the first three levels of play (professional players were excluded as the data collected includes only one team). A Doubly Multivariate Analyses of Variance was used to examine data obtained on the five dependent variables (leadership behaviours) and the three independent variables (level of play, unit of play, and team success). Each of the dependent variables was tested from both the players' preferred and perceived perspectives in relation to their unit co-ordinator coach. Correlations were found between the dependent variables as well as within each dependent variable. When investigating each leadership behaviour, the football players' preferred and perceived actual scores for this variable were correlated; in addition, the players' scores on this behaviour were correlated with the other four leadership behaviours. Thus, as Stevens (1996) states, "in these cases, the problem is doubly multivariate because there is a correlational structure within each measure and a different correlational structure across the measures" (p. 502). Tukey tests were performed to identify significant group differences, as was the case with the data from the other three hypotheses.

<center>Summary of Methods and Procedures</center>

The Leadership Scale for Sports (LSS) research instrument was used to collect data pertaining to high school, CÉGEP, university, and professional football players' preferences for and perceptions of their 1998 unit co-ordinator coaches' leadership behaviours. All of the data was collected from veteran players during either the 1999 Spring or Fall training camps. Each individual's responses to the two versions of the LSS questionnaire was entered into a database to be statistically tested.

The data from the football players was statistically analysed in two parts. The first part investigated the preferred coaching behaviours of football players at the four levels of play, and the two units of play. A total of 243 participants' responses to the LSS were analysed using

multivariate analyses of variances. In addition to testing for significant differences among the levels of play and units of play, the lower three playing levels' data was interpreted to determine if differences existed between successful and unsuccessful teams. Tukey tests were used to determine specific group differences.

The second part tested for significant differences among football players' preferences for and perception of their football coaches' actual leadership behaviours using a doubly multivariate ANOVA statistical procedure. As with the first part, Tukey post hoc tests were used to determine where differences existed among the group once the manova had indicated they existed.

CHAPTER 4 – RESULTS

Introduction

This chapter is structured to present results of the data analysis from the Leadership Scale for Sports (LSS) of 243 football players' responses to two versions of the LSS questionnaire. The data gathered from the questionnaire was analysed using multivariate analyses of variance (MANOVA) programmes from version 6.12 of the Statistical Analysis System (SAS).

As presented in the introductory chapter, the following four major hypotheses were addressed in this study:

1. Football players at various levels of play will differ in their preferences for each of the leadership behaviours being studied.

2. There will be differences between the leadership behaviour preferences of football players in offensive and defensive units of play.

3. Players of successful teams will differ from those of unsuccessful teams in their leadership behaviour preferences.

4. Taking into consideration unit of play and team success, there will be no significant differences between the preferences players indicate related to the five leadership behaviours measured by the LSS and the actual behaviours that they perceived their unit co-ordinator coaches used during the season.

In reporting the results, the first three hypotheses are addressed in the initial section of this chapter, followed by a subsequent section dealing with hypothesis four.

Differences in Leadership Behaviour Preferences by Level of Play,
Unit of Play, and Team Success

Table 2 presents the means and standard deviations for the leadership behaviour

preference scores of the total sample, and for the offensive and defensive football players

separately at each level of play. At a glance, it would appear that players at all levels prefer

training and instruction and positive feedback leadership behaviour "often to always" on the

scale of 1 to 5 from the LSS. Of particular note, the professional football players' mean score for

positive feedback indicates that even at this high athletic level, players prefer this leadership

behaviour "almost always". Offensive and defensive players appear to have similar preferences

for these two leadership behaviours. It would appear that for the sample as a whole, autocratic

behaviour is least preferred and only occasionally.

Table 2

Means and Standard Deviations for the Leadership Behaviour Preference Scores of the Total Sample and for, Offensive and Defensive Football Players Separately at Each Level of Play

Behaviour	Level	Total Sample			Offensive Players			Defensive Players		
		N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD	n	Mean	SD
Training & Instruction	H.S.	61	4.47	.37	30	4.50	.34	31	4.43	.41
	CÉGEP	62	4.38	.39	32	4.41	.37	30	4.34	.42
	Univ.	86	4.40	.36	48	4.34	.35	38	4.46	.37
	Pro.	34	4.39	.42	16	4.34	.44	18	4.44	.42
Autocratic	H.S.	61	2.94	.51	30	2.96	.52	31	2.94	.50
	CÉGEP	62	3.16	.59	32	3.04	.59	30	3.28	.57
	Univ.	86	3.12	.58	48	3.17	.61	38	3.07	.53
	Pro.	34	3.37	.64	16	3.35	.63	18	3.38	.67
Democratic	H.S.	61	3.35	.63	30	3.39	.70	31	3.31	.55
	CÉGEP	62	3.42	.70	32	3.38	.68	30	3.47	.73
	Univ.	86	3.34	.55	48	3.38	.55	38	3.31	.54
	Pro.	34	3.61	.63	16	3.73	.63	18	3.50	.62
Social Support	H.S.	61	3.42	.58	30	3.36	.63	31	3.47	.53
	CÉGEP	62	3.54	.59	32	3.62	.61	30	3.46	.56
	Univ.	86	3.35	.56	48	3.40	.57	38	3.31	.55
	Pro.	34	3.41	.72	16	3.58	.72	18	3.26	.70
Positive Feedback	H.S.	61	4.34	.59	30	4.35	.62	31	4.33	.57
	CÉGEP	62	4.35	.44	32	4.32	.35	30	4.39	.52
	Univ.	86	4.30	.59	48	4.33	.61	38	4.26	.57
	Pro.	34	4.43	.59	16	4.44	.54	18	4.42	.65

Highlighted in Table 3 are the means and standard deviations for leadership behaviour preference scores for football players on successful and unsuccessful teams at different levels of play. Similar to that, which was seen in the previous Table, no obvious differences for players' preferences are present among the successful and unsuccessful teams at different levels of play.

Table 3

Means and Standard Deviations for the Leadership Behaviour Preference Scores of Football
Players on Successful and Unsuccessful Teams at Different Levels of Play

Behaviour	Level	Successful Teams			Unsuccessful Teams		
		N	Mean	SD	n	Mean	SD
Training & Instruction	H.S.	31	4.38	.52	30	4.55	.41
	CÉGEP	30	4.34	.45	32	4.40	.50
	Univ.	41	4.37	.44	45	4.42	.72
Autocratic	H.S.	31	2.85	.53	30	3.05	.47
	CÉGEP	30	3.16	.62	32	3.16	.57
	Univ.	41	3.27	.57	45	2.97	.54
Democratic	H.S.	31	3.35	.65	30	3.34	.61
	CÉGEP	30	3.60	.74	32	3.24	.62
	Univ.	41	3.39	.53	45	3.29	.56
Social Support	H.S.	31	3.36	.63	30	3.47	.52
	CÉGEP	30	3.68	.53	32	3.40	.62
	Univ.	41	3.44	.50	45	3.26	.60
Positive Feedback	H.S.	31	4.10	.64	30	4.58	.43
	CÉGEP	30	4.43	.45	32	4.28	.43
	Univ.	41	4.29	.57	45	4.31	.61

As indicated earlier, given the number of dependent variables involved and the possibility

of significant correlations among them, an initial correlational analysis was performed. Table 4

shows that there were in fact a number of significant correlations among the dependent variables;

the highest being .45 between democratic and social support leadership behaviours. The next

highest correlation at .44 was between training and instruction and positive feedback behaviours.

However, significant correlations were also found among other leadership behaviour scores,

although they were considerably lower as shown in Table 4. Among the dependent variables, and with the above correlations in mind, a multivariate analyses of variance was conducted.

Table 4

Correlations Among the Five Preferred Leadership Behaviour Scores of the Total Sample of Football Players (n=243)

Behaviour	Training & Instruction	Autocratic	Democratic	Social Support	Positive Feedback
Autocratic	.03 p = .63				
Democratic	.23 p = .0005	.11 p = .08			
Social Support	.27 p = .0001	.15 p = .02	. 45 p = .0001		
Positive Feedback	.44 p = .0001	.12 p = .06	.11 p = .10	.31 p = .0001	

Table 5 presents a summary of the multivariate analyses of variance for each of the five leadership behaviours among the various levels of play, units of play, and team success in football. As seen in Table 5, only in the autocratic leadership behaviour was there found a significant multivariate F statistic (F $_{13,242}$= 2.41, p = .005).

Table 5

Multivariate Analyses of Variance for Each of the Five Leadership Behaviours
Among the Various Levels of Play, Units of Play, and Team Success in Football

Behaviour	Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	p
Training & Instruction						
	Model	1.82	13	.14	.97	.48
	Error	33.16	229	.14		
	Corrected Total	34.98	242			
Autocratic						
	Model	9.87	13	.76	2.41	**.005**
	Error	72.23	229	.32		
	Corrected Total	82.10	242			
Democratic						
	Model	5.27	13	.41	1.05	.41
	Error	88.41	229	.39		
	Corrected Total	93.68	242			
Social Support						
	Model	4.83	13	.37	1.06	.40
	Error	80.49	229	.35		
	Corrected Total	85.32	242			
Positive Feedback						
	Model	5.40	13	.42	1.38	.17
	Error	68.77	229	.30		
	Corrected Total	74.17	242			

With the above exception for the autocratic leadership behaviour results, the multivariate

analyses of variance resulted in no significant effect for level of play, unit of play, or for team

success. Furthermore, there were no significant interactions between level of play and unit of

play, level of play and team success, nor unit of play and team success. Moreover, there was no

three-way interaction for the scores by level of play, unit of play, and team success.

With the significant results of the preceding multivariate analyses in hand, the univariate

analysis of variance for autocratic leadership behaviour resulted in the findings shown in

Table 6.

Table 6

Univariate Analysis of Variance for Autocratic Leadership Behaviour Among the
Various Levels of Play, Units of Play, Team Success, and their Interactions in Football

Behaviour	Source of Variation	Type III SS	Df	Mean Square	F	p
Autocratic	Level	3.39	3	1.13	3.58	**.02**
	Position	.24	1	.24	.75	.39
	Success	.06	1	.06	.20	.66
	Level by Position	1.25	3	.42	1.32	.27
	Level by Success	2.26	2	1.13	3.58	**.03**
	Position by Success	1.56	1	1.56	4.96	**.03**
	Level by Position by Success	.84	2	.42	1.33	.27

(Note: Due to the unequal group size type III values were used)

Given the number of significance tests generated by the research design, it was decided to

use the conservative level of significance of $p= .01$ and to apply it throughout the study to reduce

finding significant differences simply by chance. As Table 6 shows, using the $p= .01$ level as the

criterion for significant differences, there were neither significant univariate effects nor

interactions within the autocratic leadership behaviour. It should be noted that the significant test

for main effect for the level of play neared significance and two interactions, level of play and

team success, as well as unit of play and team success, also nearly reached significance.

Differences Between Preferred and Perceived Actual Leadership Behaviours

Hypothesis IV stated that there would be no significant differences between the preferences players had for a specific leadership behaviour and the actual behaviours the players perceived that their coaches used. As indicated earlier, only three levels of play were involved in this phase of the study, namely high school, CÉGEP, and university. Two sets of the LSS scores were used in the analysis; an initial set of scores indicating the degree to which the players preferred certain leadership behaviours, as well as a set of scores indicating the degree to which the players perceived that their coaches actually used each of the leadership behaviours during the football season. An initial correlational analysis indicated that there were significant correlations between the dependent variables.

Table 7

Correlations Among the Five Perceived Actual Five Leadership Behaviour Scores of the Total Sample of Football Players (n=243)

Behaviour	Training & Instruction	Autocratic	Democratic	Social Support	Positive Feedback
Autocratic	.01 p = .93				
Democratic	.25 p = .0004	.27 p = .0001			
Social Support	.38 p = .0001	.14 p = .06	.45 p = .0001		
Positive Feedback	.48 p = .0001	.09 p = .22	.09 p = .21	.30 p = .0001	

Table 7 presents the correlations among the football players' scores on the five perceived actual leadership behaviours. As the table shows, the highest correlation was between training and instruction and positive feedback. The next highest correlation was between social support and democratic leadership behaviour. There were four other significantly correlated pairs of variables ranging from a correlation of .38 between social support and training and instruction down to a .25 correlation between democratic and training and instruction leadership behaviour. Clearly, colinearity existed among the dependent variables, therefore a doubly multivariate analyses of variance was used to analyse the data.

The results of the doubly multivariate analyses of variance are presented in Table 8. As Table 8 shows, using the Wilks' Lambda statistic, there was a significant difference found for level of play and a significant interaction between level of play and team success.

Table 8

Significant Multivariate Results for Perceived Values by Level of Play, and by
Level of Play and Team Success

Statistical Test	Source of Variation	Df	F	P
Wilks' Lambda	Level of Play	10,384	3.45	.0001
Wilks' Lambda	Level of Play by Team Success	10,386	2.68	.0035

Table 9 reports the significant univariate results for between factors. As depicted in Table 9, significant univariate differences for level of play were found for the training and instruction, social support, and positive feedback dependent variables. Furthermore, there were significant interactions between level of play and team success for the same three leadership behaviours.

Table 9

Significant Univariate Results for Main Effects of Level of Play
and the Interaction Between Level of Play by Team Success

Source of Variation - Behaviour	Df	F	p
Level of Play			
Training & Instruction	2,196	7.37	.0008
Social Support	2,196	6.17	.0025
Positive Feedback	2,196	9.03	.0002
Level of Play by Team Success			
Training & Instruction	2,196	6.09	.0027
Social Support	2,196	5.21	.0062
Positive Feedback	2,196	8.63	.0003

Given the significant higher order interaction, the mean scores for the preferred and perceived actual leadership behaviours used by the coaches for each of the groups within the level of play by team success matrix are presented in figures 8, 9, and 10.

In order to test for the specific location of the significant differences between the preferred and perceived actual leadership behaviour means, the Tukey procedure for obtaining the studentized range statistic was used to establish confidence intervals. This procedure allowed for testing the data for significant differences between the mean scores within the level of play by team success interaction for the training and instruction, social support, and positive feedback leadership behaviour variables.

As shown in figure 8, the results of the Tukey procedure indicated that significant mean differences existed at both the CÉGEP and university levels of play. At the CÉGEP level, a significant mean difference was found only between the preferred and perceived actual scores for those on successful teams. At the university level, significant mean differences were found between preferred and perceived actual leadership behaviour scores for both the successful and

unsuccessful teams. In each of the cases, the players reported that their coaches less frequently

used training and instruction behaviour than they would have preferred.

	High School	CÉGEP	University
Successful Preferred	4.39	4.35	4.38
Unsuccessful Preferred	4.55	4.40	4.42
Successful Actual	3.92	3.82	3.88
Unsuccessful Actual	4.40	4.10	3.61
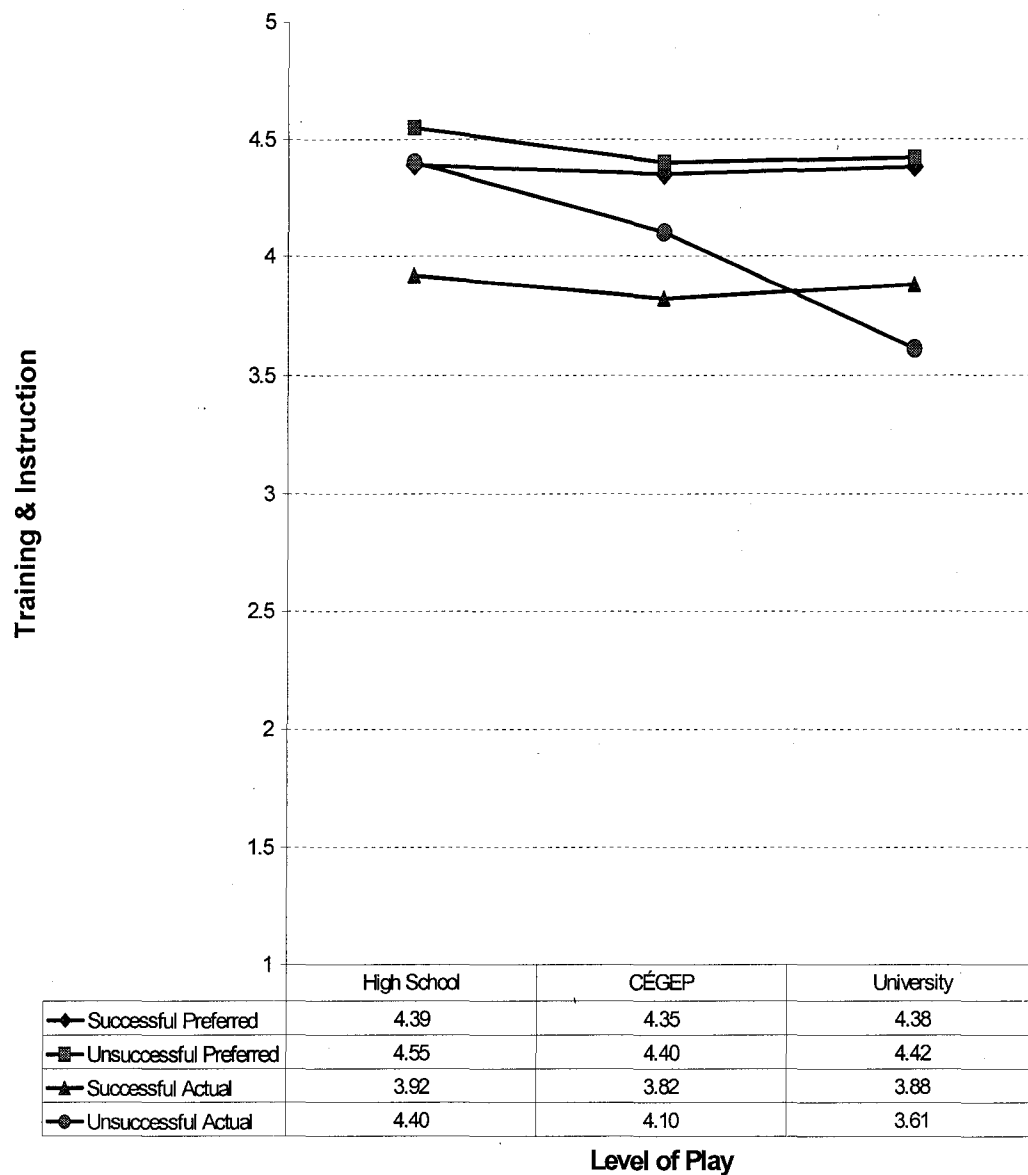
Level of Play

Figure 8. Training and instruction leadership behaviour preferred and perceived actual scores by level of play and team success.

	High School	CÉGEP	University
◆ Successful Preferred	3.37	3.68	3.44
■ Unsuccessful Preferred	3.47	3.4	3.26
▲ Successful Actual	2.77	3.06	2.85
● Unsuccessful Actual	3.22	3.06	2.46
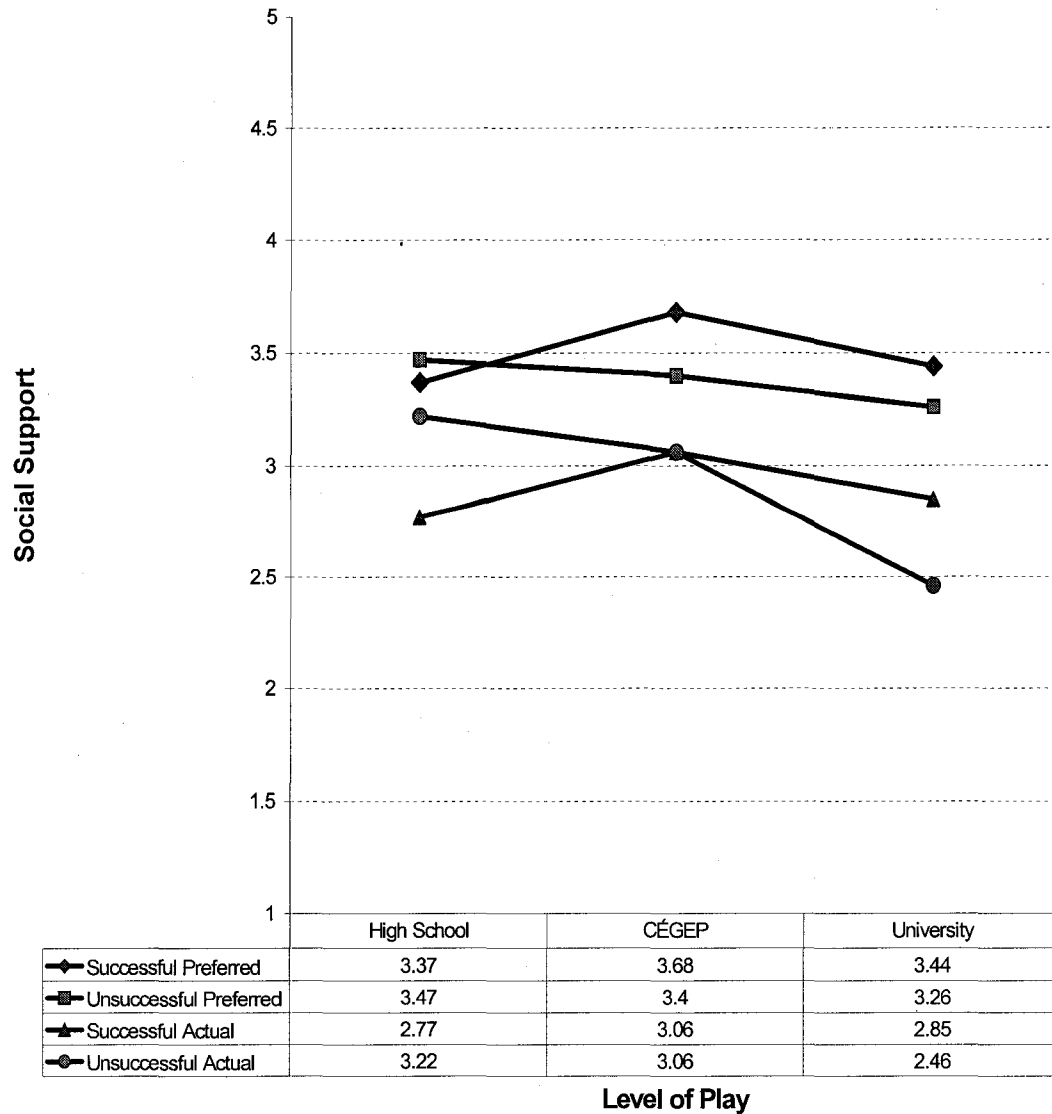
Level of Play

Figure 9. Social support leadership behaviour preferred and perceived actual scores by level of play and team success.

The results of the Tukey procedure on the significant level of play by team success mean scores, for the social support variable, indicated that a significant difference existed at the university level for those on unsuccessful teams. Again, in this situation, the players on unsuccessful teams would have preferred their coaches to more frequently provide social support than they feel that their coaches actually did. No other differences were found for this dependent variable for the level of play by team success interaction.

	High School	CÉGEP	University
◆ Successful Preferred	4.10	4.42	4.29
■ Unsuccessful Preferred	4.58	4.28	4.31
▲ Successful Actual	3.81	3.75	3.64
● Unsuccessful Actual	4.23	3.92	3.21
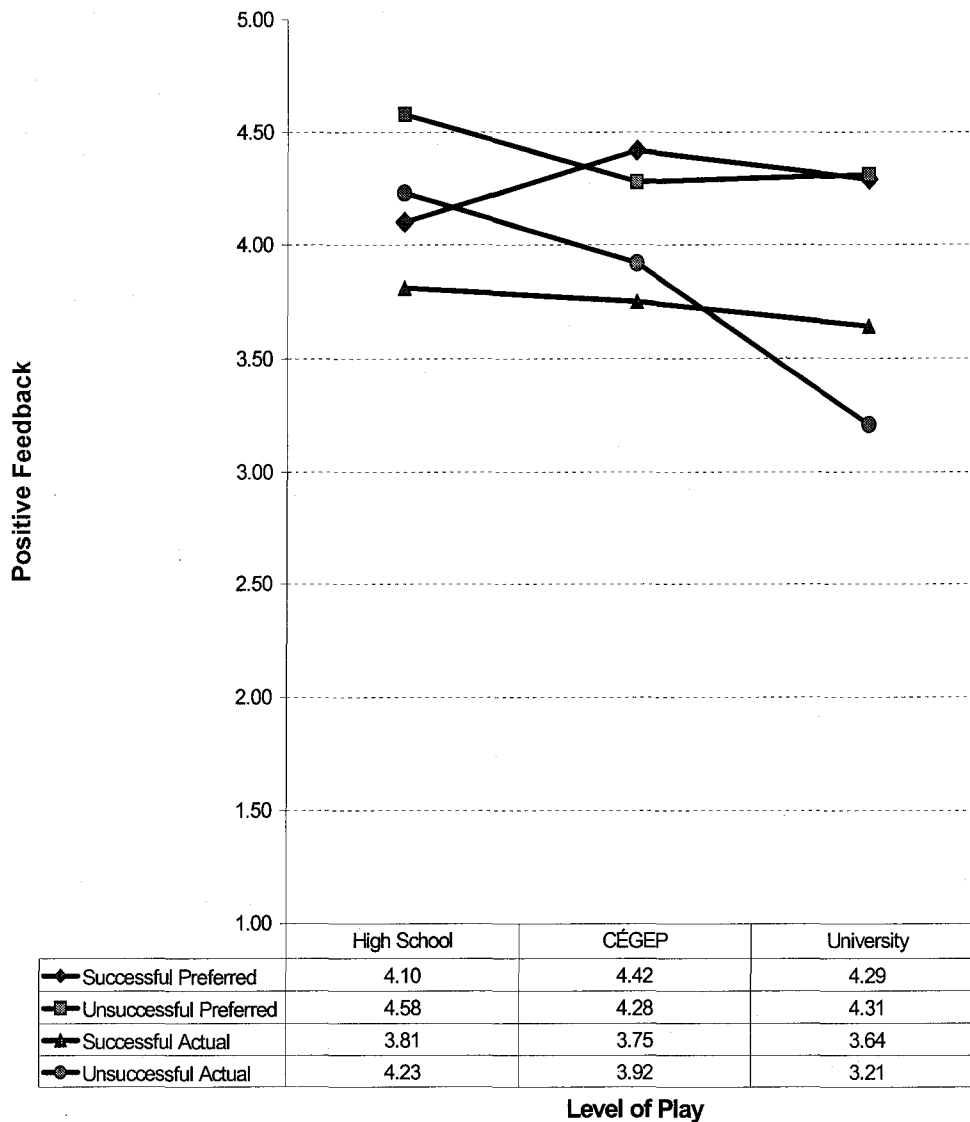
Level of Play

Figure 10. Positive feedback leadership behaviour preferred and perceived actual scores by level of play and team success.

As in the case of the training and instruction dependent variable discussed previously, the results of the Tukey procedures for positive feedback indicated significant differences at the CÉGEP and university levels of play between the preferred and perceived actual mean scores. Specifically, at the CÉGEP level a significant difference was found for the mean scores of the

players on the successful team. At the university level significant mean differences were found

for both the successful and unsuccessful football players between the preferences for and

perceptions of their coaches' actual leadership behaviour during the 1998 season. This finding

indicates that the successful CÉGEP and both teams at the university level would have preferred

greater amounts of positive feedback from their coaches than they thought they received.

Summary of Results

A total of 243 participants—61 high school, 62 CÉGEP, 86 university, and 34

professional football players completed the Leadership Scale for Sports questionnaire

investigating their preference for and perception of their coaches' actual leadership behaviour.

When testing the data for hypotheses I, II, and III, significant correlations were found among the

five leadership behaviours, thus a multivariate analyses of variance was used. The results

indicated that a significant difference was present for among the various levels of play, units of

play, and team success for autocratic leadership behaviour, however, upon completing an

univariate analysis of variance no significant differences could be found. Within autocratic

leadership behaviour the univariate analysis of variance results indicated that main effects for

level of play and the two interactions for level of play by team success and unit of play by team

success neared the significance level of $p=.01$. For the other four dependent variables no

significant differences were found for main effects or for interactions.

For the final hypothesis, again colinearity existed among the five dependent variables and

due to the preferred and the perceived actual mean scores, a doubly multivariate analyses of

variance was used. The results of the analyses indicated that significant differences were present

for the main effects for level of play and the interaction between level of play and team success.

The univariate analysis of variance showed significant differences existed for three dependent

variables, specifically training and instruction, social support, and positive feedback. The Tukey test procedure found significant differences for the successful CÉGEP team between the preferred and the perceived actual leadership behaviours used by their unit co-ordinator coaches for training and instruction and positive feedback. Furthermore, significant differences were found for these two dependent variables at the university level for both the successful and unsuccessful teams between their preferences and perceptions. Finally, in the case of social support, only the university unsuccessful football team preferences were significantly different from their perceptions of their unit co-ordinator coach's actual leadership behaviour.

CHAPTER 5 – DISCUSSION

Introduction

This chapter discusses the results obtained in relation to the four stated hypotheses. It was

hypothesised that football players at various levels of play, units of play, and team success would

differ in their preferences for leadership behaviours. Furthermore, a final hypothesis stated that

players of successful teams would show less difference between their preferences for and

perceptions of their unit co-ordinator coaches' leadership behaviours than would players of

unsuccessful teams. Each hypothesis is restated and previous research specifically relating to this

hypothesis is explained, followed by this study's results as they relate to the previous research.

Leadership Behaviour Preferences at Various Levels of Play

The first hypothesis stated that football players at various levels of play would differ in

their preferences for each of the leadership behaviours studied. In particular, this study

investigated four athletic playing levels: high school, CÉGEP, university, and professional. The

main reason for studying these four levels of football was to address a concern by previous

researchers that in order to truly investigate the effects of athletic maturity on leadership

behaviours, one must look at the full spectrum of the particular sport (Chelladurai & Carron,

1983; Erle, 1981; and Vos Strache, 1979).

Chelladurai (1978) found that athletes who competed longer in their sports had greater

preferences for social support leadership coaching behaviours than would those with less

experience. With this extended commitment to sport, it was believed that the social network

acquired by non-athletes would be less developed in athletes. Hence, the coach was the primary

source in developing the social needs of these long-term athletes (Chelladurai, 1978).

Erle (1981) found that athletes with more experience expressed an increased preference for positive feedback from their coaches. Similarly, a study conducted with high school midget, junior, senior, and university basketball players found differing preferences for leadership behaviours at the various levels of play (Chelladurai & Carron, 1983). Their results indicated that with increasing athletic levels, an increase in preference for social support coaching leadership behaviour was present. Chelladurai and Carron (1983) found from previous research that athletes increasing in sport experience indicated a greater preference for an authoritarian coaching leadership behaviour. Their results showed that players' mean scores on authoritarian preferred leadership increased from midget, junior, senior high school to university in a linear trend (Chelladurai & Carron, 1983). Furthermore, it was found that these basketball players' preference for training and instruction leadership behaviour gradually decreased high school experience increased. However, at the university level, preference for training and instruction leadership behaviour was reversed; university players preferred training and instruction leadership behaviour more than those players at the other three levels (Chelladurai & Carron, 1983).

From the data collected in this study no significant differences for leadership behaviour preferences were found among the four levels of play within the five leadership dependent variables. A possible reason for the lack of significant differences could be due to the limited number of potential playing years at the amateur levels. As described in the Literature Review, athletes may be recruited into football due to their athletic abilities in other sports and therefore, their football playing experience may be limited. This might have had an affect on data collected for this study.

Even though no significant differences were found among the players at the various

levels of play, players at all levels appeared to prefer training and instruction and positive

feedback leadership behaviours "often to always". Furthermore, among the professional football

players, positive feedback was preferred "almost always". While professional football players

receive various forms of public reward through fan response and the media, this mean score may

suggest that these players prefer a high amount of positive feedback from their unit co-ordinator

coaches.

While the Situational Leadership Theory in Athletics (Chelladurai & Carron, 1978)

suggested that coaches should modify their coaching leadership behaviours to suit a team's

athletic maturity level, this study found no support to suggest the preference for different

leadership behaviours across the various levels of play in football. This finding might suggest the

need for further research in the sport of football.

Leadership Behaviour Preferences of Players in Offensive and Defensive Positions

The second hypothesis stated that there would be differences between the leadership

behaviour preferences of football players in offensive and defensive positions. In the realm of

sport, coaches train their players to perfect specific plays so that during competition the task

becomes routine and less ambiguous, almost second nature. As the task becomes more routine

and less ambiguous, the coach can reduce the amount of instruction. Chelladurai and Saleh

(1978) defined football as an open sport with large amounts of task variability and

interdependence such that for a play to be successful it would need cooperation among the group.

Research investigating the leadership behaviour preferences of athletes between open and closed

sports indicated that previous studies focused on different sports but were not focused within a

particular sport (Riemer & Chelladurai, 1995). These researchers felt that football would be an ideal sport to test for differences between closed and open tasks as it has varying degrees of task variability and dependence. On a continuum between closed and open tasks, an offensive player's duties on any given play might be considered more closed as compared to that of a defensive player (Riemer & Chelladurai, 1995). To clarify this point, at the start of each play, offensive players have a set role to execute, and even if the defence tries to disrupt the play, a properly trained offensive player will have steps or procedures to allow for the play's success. In comparison, the defensive player is in a reactionary position to the movements of the offence.

Chelladurai and Saleh (1978) found closed sport athletes preferred more training and instruction leadership behaviour than did open sport athletes. To test this theory Riemer (1991), in a study of Division 1-AA collegiate football players, found defensive players preferred significantly more training and instruction leadership behaviour from their coaches than did offensive players, which is consistent with Chelladurai and Saleh's (1978) results. However, Chelladurai and Riemer's 1995 study partially confirms Riemer's earlier research in that they found that defensive players prefer greater levels of social support and democratic leadership behaviours, but were unable to support findings that defensive players prefer training and instruction leadership coaching behaviour more than offensive players. The increased desire for social support leadership coaching behaviour by defensive players' is consistent with House (1971) which allows that athletes in varied tasks tend to prefer social support to a greater extent than athletes in closed sports. Riemer and Chelladurai (1995) concluded that these results lend support for football consisting of two different units requiring varying degrees of leadership behaviours. Due to the conflicting results, these researchers suggested the need for further studies.

The data collected in this study from the four levels of football indicated no significant differences could be found between the offensive and defensive players on the five dependent leadership coaching behaviours. Thus, further support for the concept of two distinct units within a football team and the need for varying leadership coaching behaviours could not be found within this study.

There are two possible explanations for the lack of significant differences between the units of play. Firstly, in Canada some football players may play on both the offensive and defensive units within the same team due to the small number of players available, particularly at the lower levels of play. Frequently coaches may choose a superior athlete from another unit of play to fill a particular void. Secondly, at the higher athletic levels, players may be recruited for a different unit of play than at their previous level. Taking these two facts into consideration, Canadian football players' coaching leadership behaviour preferences may not be clearly defined along unit of play lines.

Leadership Behaviour Preferences of Successful and Unsuccessful Football Teams

The third hypothesis stated that players of successful teams would differ in their leadership behaviour preferences from those of unsuccessful teams. Within the present study, results were limited to the lower three levels when testing this hypothesis, as these three levels included both successful and unsuccessful teams as defined in this study. The results of the present study found no differences in preferences between football players on either successful or unsuccessful teams. This study's definition of team success may have been a limiting factor when investigating for differences between successful and unsuccessful teams (defined as making both the playoffs and advancing into the league championship game).

Differences Between Preferred and Perceived Actual Leadership Behaviours

Hypothesis IV stated taking into consideration unit of play and team success, there will be no significant differences between the preferences players indicate related to the five leadership behaviours measured by the LSS and the actual behaviours that they perceived their unit co-ordinator coaches used during the season. This is in accordance with the Multidimensional Model of Sport Leadership (MMSL), which displays the interactions of preferred behaviour, required behaviour, team performance and satisfaction, and actual coaching behaviour (Chelladurai, 1980).

Results of Robinson and Carron's (1982) study of successful and unsuccessful football players and their perceptions of coaches, indicated that unsuccessful players perceived their football coach as being more autocratically oriented and less democratically oriented. Further to this finding, these researchers, concluded that coaches who emphasised more training and instruction, social support, positive feedback and who were more democratic in their decision styles would produce players at higher levels of performance (Robinson and Carron, 1982).

In a study conducted by Garland and Barry (1988) on college football players, further support was gained for earlier research suggesting that perceptions of certain leadership behaviours increases the likelihood of performance. Their results indicated that players who perceived their coach to display greater frequencies of training and instruction, democratic, social support, and positive feedback leadership behaviour were more likely to have higher performance levels. However, in their study analysing MMSL, Weiss and Friedrichs (1986) were unable to find support for training and instruction as a significant factor in teams with greater win/loss records. Their results of collegiate basketball players showed that neither situational nor leader characteristics were significantly related to team performance, but coaches perceived as

more autocratic were associated with lower levels of performance. Moreover, coaches who were perceived with greater amounts of social support behaviour were found to have lower team win/loss records and worse team performance (Weiss & Friedrichs, 1986).

The results of this present study found significant differences between football players' preferred and perceived actual leadership behaviours of their unit co-ordinator coaches for training and instruction, social support and positive feedback. In particular, the players of the successful CÉGEP team preferred greater amounts of training and instruction and positive feedback behaviour than their unit co-ordinator coach exhibited. As for social support, the players of the unsuccessful university team would have preferred to experience more of this coaching leadership behaviour than they actually did. For training and instruction and positive feedback, players of the both successful and unsuccessful teams would have preferred these behaviours more frequently during the season studied. In the case of the decision making process, autocratic or democratic, no differences were found between the preferred and perceived actual unit co-ordinator coaching leadership behaviours.

Relating these findings to the MMSL, support was found for the interaction of preferred and actual leadership behaviour for unit co-ordinators. However, as the results of this study showed no differences specific to either successful or unsuccessful teams, further support for the MMSL model's continual feedback loop was not present.

Even at the university level, training and instruction is a leadership behaviour that could be used to a greater extent as indicated by the data. With respect to social support and positive feedback, the findings from the discrepancy between preferred and actual leadership behaviours at the CÉGEP and university levels may prompt coaches to pay closer attention to the extent of these behaviours they exhibit. At the lowest level, the high school players expressed no

differences between their preferences and perceptions on any of the five leadership behaviours. The reason for this may be their limited experience within the sport of football and their limited interactions with different football coaches. As these players progress through football's athletic maturity levels, they may be able to better discriminate between their preferences for and perceptions of their unit co-ordinator coaches.

Summary of Discussion

This study found no differences in football players' leadership behaviour preferences of their unit co-ordinator coach by level of play, unit of play, and team success. Factors that may have contributed to this lack of difference in the Canadian football context include: (1) limited playing experience; (2) athletes playing on both offensive and defensive units during the same season; (3) athletes being recruited to play on the opposite unit of play from the previous level; and (4) a minimal real difference between the successful and unsuccessful teams of this study. From these findings, additional support for the Situational Leadership Theory in Athletics (Chelladurai & Carron, 1978) was not found.

Differences were found with team success for the CÉGEP and university football players' preferences for and perceptions of their unit co-ordinator coaching leadership in training and instruction, and positive feedback behaviours. In addition to this finding, differences were found between players' preferences and perceptions at the university level within the social support leadership behaviour. For decision making leadership behaviours, namely, autocratic and democratic, no differences were found between the players' preferred and perceived actual scores.

The results of this study, which indicated differences for training and instruction, social support, and positive feedback, might be more relevant to the CÉGEP and university levels, in

that differences were not found at the high school level. As players advance through the football athletic maturity levels, they may have more experience from which to draw comparisons between their preferred and perceived actual leadership behaviours of their coaches. While the findings of this study support the interaction between preferred and actual leadership behaviours, as displayed in the Multidimensional Model of Sport Leadership (Chelladurai, 1980), further support was not found for the continual influence that performance may have on the actual behaviour.

CHAPTER 6 – SUMMARY

Introduction

This chapter is divided into five sections, beginning with a summary of the procedures used to collect, analyse, and interpret the data gathered using the LSS questionnaire. This section is followed by a brief synopsis of the results and discussion highlighting the study's significant findings. Conclusions are drawn from these results and are presented in the third section of this chapter. The fourth section explains the implications of this research. The final section suggests further research that may provide insight into football players' preferred and perceived actual leadership behaviours of their unit co-ordinator coaches at various levels of play, units of play, and team success.

Summary of Procedures

The Leadership Scale for Sports (LSS) was used to collect data from 61 high school, 62 CÉGEP, 86 university, and 34 professional football players' preferences for and perceptions of their 1998 unit co-ordinator coaches' leadership behaviours. All of the data was collected from veteran players during either the Spring or Fall 1999 training camps.

The data entered from the football players was statistically analysed in two parts. First football players preferred coaching behaviours at four levels of play and two units of play were examined. A total of 243 participants' responses to the LSS were analysed using multivariate analyses of variances. In addition to testing for significant differences among the levels of play and between the two units of play, the data from the players at the lower three playing levels (high school, CÉGEP, and university) was analysed to determine if differences existed between successful and unsuccessful teams. Tukey studentized tests were used to determine specific group differences at a significance level of $p = .01$.

The second part of the analysis looked for differences among football players'

preferences for and perception of their football unit co-ordinator coaches' actual leadership

behaviours using a doubly multivariate analyses of variance procedure. As in the first part,

Tukey tests were used to determine where significant group differences existed.

Summary of Results – Discussion

The results of the multivariate analyses indicated a significant difference for the

autocratic leadership behaviour. Nonetheless, the proceeding univariate result for autocratic

leadership behaviour showed that no significant difference was present at the p= .01 level. It

should be noted that the main effects for autocratic leadership behaviour in level of play neared

significance at a p= .02 level. Furthermore, for this leadership behaviour, two interactions

between level of play by team success and unit of play by team success also neared significance

at a p= .03 level. As previously mentioned, due to the number of statistical procedures conducted

with this study's data, a conservative significance level was chosen to reduce the possibility of

finding significant results simply by chance.

With the exception of autocratic leadership behaviour, no significant differences were

found between level of play, unit of play, and team success within the remaining four leadership

behaviour variables. Moreover, in testing for significant interactions between level of play and

unit of play, level of play and team success, and unit of play and team success, no significant

results were found. Finally, no significant triple interaction was found between level of play, unit

of play, and team success.

For the final hypothesis a doubly multivariate analyses of variance was used to analyse

the preferred and perceived actual mean scores. The results of the analyses indicated that

significant differences were present for the main effects for level of play and the interaction

between level of play and team success. The univariate analysis of variance showed significant differences for three dependent variables, specifically training and instruction, social support, and positive feedback. The Tukey test procedures found significant differences for the players of the successful CÉGEP team between the preferred and perceived actual leadership behaviours used by their unit co-ordinator coaches for training and instruction and positive feedback. Significant differences were also found for these two dependent variables at the university level for both the successful and unsuccessful teams between their preferences and perceptions. On social support behaviour, only the university unsuccessful football team preferences were significantly different from the perceptions of their unit co-ordinator coach's actual leadership behaviour. For autocratic and democratic leadership behaviour, neither significant main effect differences, nor interactions were found.

The amount of data collected in this study combined with the size and complexity of the statistical analysis performed required that detailed statements of only relevant findings be included in this report. The entire data analysis is available upon request for anyone who might be interested.

Conclusions from the Research

Based on the above results of the multivariate and univariate analysis of variance and within the limitations indicated, the following conclusions can be made:

1.   There are no differences at the various levels of play in the preferences of football players' for their unit co-ordinator coach's leadership behaviours.

2.   Offensive and defensive football players do not differ in their preferences for their unit co-ordinator coaches' particular leadership behaviours.

3.   Whether on successful or unsuccessful teams, football players showed no preference

among the various leadership behaviours of their unit co-ordinator coach.

4.   Differences between players' preferences for and perceptions of their unit co-ordinator

coach's actual leadership behaviour were found for unit of play and team success.

Implications of the Research

Of the possible implications produced by this study, two are discussed herein. First, the

data collected from the 243 football players would suggest that regardless of level of play, unit of

play, and team success, there were no differences in preferences for coaching leadership

behaviours. This finding would imply that even at the lowest athletic playing level, amateur

football players prefer similar training and instruction, autocratic, democratic, social support, and

positive feedback coaching leadership behaviours to those of the professional players. Thus,

from this standpoint coaches might more easily move among the different athletic playing levels.

The second implication from the data collected for both preferred and perceived actual coaching

leadership behaviours might suggest that coaches at all levels, particularly at CÉGEP and

university, could attempt to determine their players' preferences among the five leadership

behaviours by using the LSS. Especially in the case of training and instruction, social support,

and positive feedback, coaches might be better able to reduce any potential differences by simply

asking players to express their preferences.

Recommendations for Further Research

The first recommendation for further study would be to compare the results of this study

with similar data collected from another large city in Canada where football is played across the

full spectrum of athletic maturity. Cities such as Toronto, Calgary, Winnipeg, or Vancouver may

be solid choices as each of these cities have populations similar to Montreal and also have football teams from the high school through to the professional levels. Additionally, it would be beneficial to gather data from a second professional team so that testing of preferred and perceived actual coaching behaviours could be achieved at all four levels.

A second recommendation would be to compare the results with previous or future studies investigating coaching leadership behaviours in football across the full spectrum of athletic maturity in American cities. Taking into consideration that Canada and the United States may differ in their developmental football structure, it could be useful to determine whether this difference affects coaching leadership behaviour preferences and/or perceptions of players at different levels.

As a third recommendation, due to the limited research found between football team success and players' preferences for leadership behaviour, it may be of interest to look more closely at team success. While this study found no differences between the preferences for specific coaching leadership behaviours of players of successful versus unsuccessful football teams, gathering larger amounts of data specific to a particular level may allow for a larger range in the measure of success between the successful and unsuccessful teams.

Within Canada, the relatively small number of participants in the sport of football, particularly at the lower athletic levels, requires that football teams use certain players on both offence and defence. Therefore, a fourth recommendation that further research across all levels of football, with players unique to one unit of play, may result in finding differences for their leadership preferences. Moreover, with larger numbers at one level, the data collected from these players might allow for the breakdown of specific positional preferences within the offensive and defensive units of play.

A fifth recommendation is to collect data at different times throughout a playing season. This would allow an examination of differences between players' preferences for and perceptions of coaching leadership behaviours throughout a season. This might take into consideration the effect of the different playing stresses that are present as a season progresses. For example, data could be collected during the pre-season training camp, at the middle of the regular season, and then post season, once the year is finished. The first data collection phase might be limited to the preferred version of the LSS questionnaire, while the final two phases might require the players to complete both the preferred and perceived versions.

A final recommendation for future research is to study the same coaches, teams, and football organisations over a number of years to determine if the level of play, unit of play, and/or team success differ over time. In many football organisations, there tends to be an annual rebuilding period, especially in the case of new coaches or a large influx of new players; these factors might affect the data collected in any one given year. Thus, data collection over a few years with the same coaches, teams, and organisations, may provide more comprehensive results.

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Appendix A

Ethics Committee Form

McGill University Faculty of Education
Statement of Ethics of Proposed Research

1. Informed Consent of Subjects:

    One method of informed consent will be used with the players under 18 years of age and a second will be used with those 18 years of age and over. As all of the high school football players in Quebec are under 18 years of age the first method will be to meet these players either before or after practice to explain my research project. It will be emphasised with the players that completion of the Leadership Scale for Sports (LSS) questionnaire is entirely up to them. Each of the questionnaires will have a consent form on the front which I will explain to the players must be signed by themselves, and one of their parents, after carefully reading the information on the form. I will explain to them the reasons why this research may benefit football players and possibly help coaches in the sport. I will only give copies of the questionnaires to those players wishing to take part in the study. The players will be invited to take the questionnaires home to fill out on their own time and I will return the next day to collect them. Those players that may be unable to bring their questionnaires in will be given a stamped addressed envelope, which they can put in the mail to me.

    In the second method to be used with the adult groups (college, university, and pro teams) a meeting will be held with the players. During the training camp or early in the football season, with authorisation of the coaching staff, I will meet with the players in a large team meeting room. I will take the opportunity to discuss the purposes of my research and discuss the possible risks and benefits of such research. I will take a moment to explain the procedure and explain to the players that the completion of the questionnaire is entirely voluntary. Explanation will be given to all the athletes so if they do not wish to take part in the study they may leave the

questionnaire empty. I will explain the importance of signing the consent form after reading the given information on it if they wish to take part. The players will be given time to complete the questionnaire and they will then be collected.

2. Subject Recruitment:

2.1   The subjects will consist of high school, college, university, and professional football teams. The head coach of each team will be contacted at least one month before data collection to give them ample time to ask questions and determine whether they truly want their team members to participate. I will contact the coaches again within two weeks to verify their permission and any specifics of the meeting date. The potential teams that I would like to participate in this study consist of athletes aged between 14 and 40 years old. Each team contains roughly 45 – 85 players.

2.2   There will be no remuneration for the players participating in this study. Moreover, the players will be informed that no harm will be brought upon them should they choose not to participate before, during, or upon completion of the study. Each of the players will be informed that the coaching staffs will not see the individual results of the questionnaires. The results will consist of group conclusions and thus the identity of the participants will remain confidential. No extra incentive will be given to the players for helping in this study nor any punishment for not participating. I will request the coaching staffs to emphasise this last point.

2.3   The emphasis I will use to induce the players' participation is my main reason for completing this study. The hope is that, as previously seen in other sport research, this leadership measurement tool may give some insight into preferred coaching at different levels of football. I will explain to the players that if there is a way to better align our coaching behaviours with their preferences this may enhance their satisfaction level in the sport. My description of the benefits

of such a study will emphasise that the results may not be conclusive but should enhance football leadership research.

2.4 Each of the players will be informed explicitly at the beginning of my introduction of the research topic, and once the questionnaire is being handed out, that they may withdraw at any moment should they no longer wish to participate. They will be notified that withdrawal from a study is not uncommon, especially if they do not feel comfortable completing the specifics of the questionnaire. In particular with the high school athletes, the questionnaire will be filled out on their own time and thus if they wish not to complete it, they are not required to hand it in.

3   Subject Risk and Well-being:

If through the completion of this study I can improve the awareness of coaches at specific levels in football my hope is that this information will transfer to a more rewarding coaching environment for players. By gaining more insight to the demands of a particular age group, it may be possible to align the coaching behaviour to the preferences of the group. With an alignment of coaching preferences, an end result may be more satisfied football players at different playing levels.

4   Deception of Subjects:

The research design will not necessitate any deception to the subjects. I will attempt to clearly explain the purpose of the study to the football players and how completing the LSS questionnaire will help in making conclusions in the research. I will be open with the participants and answer any questions they may have with respect to the research.

5   Privacy of Subjects:

In this study a player information sheet will be filled out prior to beginning the questionnaire. This information will allow for proper coding of the athletes' responses to the questionnaires by listing the name of player, the level of play, the position played, and the participation level. In addition to this information, participants will provide preference for, and perception of football coaching styles. This is the only information that I will attempt to gather from the individual questionnaires. Should an athlete find a particular question to be invasive then I hope they will feel free to discontinue by withdrawing.

6   Confidentiality/Anonymity

6.1   I intend to code each of the questionnaires for anonymity of the football players participating in this study. Thus, only I will know the true identity of the participant if someone were to see one of the completed questionnaires. The data analysis techniques I propose to use involve grouped data, therefore this procedure of coding the questionnaires will ensure even further confidentiality of the subjects.

6.2   The data will be aggregated by leadership style to complete my data analysis. Individual question responses will be unknown to anyone other than me because a coding procedure will be used to ensure anonymity. There will be no specific reference to individual responses in the results or conclusions. The responses to each of the questions will be separated by leadership style and then grouped by level of play. The hope is to determine a general trend by level rather than specific individual preferences or perceptions.

Signature of Researcher: _____

Appendix B:

Leadership Scale for Sports Questionnaire

Leadership Scale for Sports – (LSS)

Each of the following statements describe a specific behaviour that a coach may exhibit and a specific behaviour a coach does exhibit. For each statement, there are five alternatives:

Always; Often (75% of the time); Occasionally (50% of the time); Seldom (25% of the time); Never.

Please indicate your preference by circling the letter to the right of the question. Answer all items even if you are unsure of any. There are no right or wrong answers. Your spontaneous and honest response is important for the success of the study. **_Please note that all questions relate to the 1998-football season and questions for my coach refer to the unit co-ordinator coach with whom you have the most contact._**

Example: I prefer my coach to: **always** _tell athletes they used the correct technique._   (A) O Oc S N
        My coach: **often** _tells athletes they used the correct technique._   A (O) Oc S N

	I prefer my coach to:						My coach:					
	Always	Often	Occasionally	Seldom	Never		Always	Often	Occasionally	Seldom	Never	
1. See(s) to it that athletes work to capacity.	A	O	Oc	S	N	1	A	O	Oc	S	N	1a
2. Ask(s) for the opinion of the athletes on strategies for specific competitions.	A	O	Oc	S	N	2	A	O	Oc	S	N	2a
3. Help(s) athletes with their personal problems.	A	O	Oc	S	N	3	A	O	Oc	S	N	3a
4. Compliment(s) an athlete for good performance in front of others.	A	O	Oc	S	N	4	A	O	Oc	S	N	4a
5. Explain(s) to each athlete the techniques and tactics of the sport.	A	O	Oc	S	N	5	A	O	Oc	S	N	5a
6. Plan(s) relatively independent of the athletes.	A	O	Oc	S	N	6	A	O	Oc	S	N	6a
7. Help(s) members of the group settle their conflicts.	A	O	Oc	S	N	7	A	O	Oc	S	N	7a
8. Pay(s) special attention to correcting athletes' mistakes.	A	O	Oc	S	N	8	A	O	Oc	S	N	8a
9. Get(s) group approval on important matters before going ahead.	A	O	Oc	S	N	9	A	O	Oc	S	N	9a
10. Tell(s) an athlete when the athlete does a particularly good job.	A	O	Oc	S	N	10	A	O	Oc	S	N	10a
11. Make(s) sure that the coach's function in the team is understood by all athletes.	A	O	Oc	S	N	11	A	O	Oc	S	N	11a
12. (Does) Not explain his/her actions.	A	O	Oc	S	N	12	A	O	Oc	S	N	12a
13. Look(s) out for the personal welfare of the athletes.	A	O	Oc	S	N	13	A	O	Oc	S	N	13a
14. Instruct(s) every athlete individually in the skills of the sport.	A	O	Oc	S	N	14	A	O	Oc	S	N	14a

Please turn over to continue

	I prefer my coach to:							My coach:					
	Always	Often	Occasionally	Seldom	Never			Always	Often	Occasionally	Seldom	Never	
15. Let(s) the athletes share in decision making.	A	O	Oc	S	N	15		A	O	Oc	S	N	15a
16. See(s) that an athlete is rewarded for a good performance.	A	O	Oc	S	N	16		A	O	Oc	S	N	16a
17. Figure(s) ahead of what should be done.	A	O	Oc	S	N	17		A	O	Oc	S	N	17a
18. Encourage(s) athletes to make suggestions for ways to conduct practices.	A	O	Oc	S	N	18		A	O	Oc	S	N	18a
19. Do(es) personal favours for the athletes.	A	O	Oc	S	N	19		A	O	Oc	S	N	19a
20. Explain(s) to every athlete what should be done and what should not be done.	A	O	Oc	S	N	20		A	O	Oc	S	N	20a
21. Let(s) athletes set their own goals.	A	O	Oc	S	N	21		A	O	Oc	S	N	21a
22. Express(es) an affection felt for the athletes.	A	O	Oc	S	N	22		A	O	Oc	S	N	22a
23. Expect(s) every athlete to carry out one's assignment to the last detail.	A	O	Oc	S	N	23		A	O	Oc	S	N	23a
24. Let(s) the athletes try their own way even if they make mistakes.	A	O	Oc	S	N	24		A	O	Oc	S	N	24a
25. Encourage(s) the athlete to confide in the coach.	A	O	Oc	S	N	25		A	O	Oc	S	N	25a
26. Point(s) out each athlete's strengths and weaknesses.	A	O	Oc	S	N	26		A	O	Oc	S	N	26a
27. Refuse(s) to compromise on a point.	A	O	Oc	S	N	27		A	O	Oc	S	N	27a
28. Express(es) appreciation when an athlete performs well.	A	O	Oc	S	N	28		A	O	Oc	S	N	28a
29. Give(s) specific instructions to each athlete on what should be done in every situation.	A	O	Oc	S	N	29		A	O	Oc	S	N	29a
30. Ask(s) for the opinion of the athletes on important coaching matters.	A	O	Oc	S	N	30		A	O	Oc	S	N	30a
31. Encourage(s) close and informal relations with athletes.	A	O	Oc	S	N	31		A	O	Oc	S	N	31a
32. See(s to it that athletes' efforts are coordinated.	A	O	Oc	S	N	32		A	O	Oc	S	N	32a
33. Let(s) the athletes work at their own speed.	A	O	Oc	S	N	33		A	O	Oc	S	N	33a
34. Keep(s) aloof from the athletes.	A	O	Oc	S	N	34		A	O	Oc	S	N	34a
35. Explain(s) how each athlete's contribution fits into the total picture.	A	O	Oc	S	N	35		A	O	Oc	S	N	35a
36. Invite(s) the athletes home.	A	O	Oc	S	N	36		A	O	Oc	S	N	36a
37. Give(s) credit when it is due.	A	O	Oc	S	N	37		A	O	Oc	S	N	37a
38. Specify(fies) in detail what is expected of athletes.	A	O	Oc	S	N	38		A	O	Oc	S	N	38a
39. Let(s) the athletes decide on plays to be used in a game.	A	O	Oc	S	N	39		A	O	Oc	S	N	39a
40. Speaks in a manner in which discourages questions.	A	O	Oc	S	N	40		A	O	Oc	S	N	40a

Appendix C:

Covering Letter for Questionnaire – High School Players

McGill

Department of Athletics
Sir Arthur Currie Memorial Gymnasium
McGill University

Postal address
475 Pine Avenue West
Montreal, PQ, Canada H2W 1S4

(514) 398-7000
Fax: (514) 398-4901

To: All *(Name of School)* High School Football Players

From: Jason Barr, a Master of Arts student at McGill University, McGill University Assistant Football Coach, and Teacher at Loyola High School

Re: Master's research questionnaire study on "Preferrred and Perceived Coaching Leadership Effectiveness in Football Organisations"

Dear *(Name of School)* Football Player,

I would first like to thank you for considering taking part in my research study. The questionnaire I am requesting that you fill out will take you roughly ten minutes and will help me an enormous in completing my thesis in Psychology of Sport and Motor Behaviour at McGill University. I would ask that you sit down with your parents and read carefully the consent form on the following page. A signature by both you and one of your parents on the bottom of the consent form are required to allow me the usage of your questionnaire responses.

When completing the questionnaire, you will answer each question two ways. First, the (I prefer) section refers to the qualities that the best football coach you could ever have would possess. Second, the (My coach) section refers to the unit co-ordinator coach on offence or defence that you had the most contact with during the 1998 season on your high school team.

If you or your parents have any questions regarding my research or my questionnaire, please do not hesitate to contact me at (514) 486-1101, extension 601.

Thank you in advance for helping me to further research in leadership of football organisations.

Respectfully yours,

Jason Barr

Appendix D:

Parental / Legal Guardian Consent Form

Preferred and Perceived Coaching Leadership Effectiveness in Football Organisations: Consent Form for Minors

Jason Barr, a Master of Arts student at McGill University, has requested my son's participation in a research study at this institution. The title of the research is "Preferred and Perceived Coaching Leadership Effectiveness in Football Organisations".

1. "My son and I have been informed that the purpose of the study is to establish particular coaching behaviour styles defining an effective leader on a football team".

2. "My son's participation will involve the completion of a single questionnaire".

3. "My son and I understand that the possible benefit of my participation in this research is the development of a leadership framework for coaches of football teams".

4. "My son and I understand that the results of the research may be published but that neither his name nor his identity will be revealed. In order to maintain confidentiality of my records, Jason Barr will use a coding system to identify each subject; that only he will know my son's true identity".

5. "My son and I understand that he will not be compensated for his participation in this research study".

6. "We have been informed that questions we have concerning the research study or my son's participation in it, before and after our consent, will be answered by Jason Barr, of McGill University at 514-486-1101 (ext.601)".

7. "My son and I have read the above information. The nature, demands, risks, and benefits of the project have been explained to me. We understand that my son may withdraw our consent and discontinue participation at any time without penalty or loss of benefit to himself".

Parental Signature: _____   Date: _____

Subject's Signature: _____   Date: _____

"I certify that I have explained to the above individuals the nature and purpose, the potential benefits associated with participation in this research study, and have answered any questions that have been raised.

Signature of the Investigator: _____   Date: _____
(Adapted from Thomas, J. R. & J. K. Nelson, 1996.)

Appendix E:

Adult Consent Form

Preferred and Perceived Coaching Leadership in Football Organisations:
Consent Form for Adults

Jason Barr, a Master of Arts student at McGill University, has requested my participation in a research study at this institution. The title of the research is "Preferred and Perceived Coaching Leadership Effectiveness in Football Organisations".

1. "I have been informed that the purpose of the study is to establish particular coaching behaviour styles defining an effective leader on a football team".

2. "My participation will involve the completion of a single questionnaire".

3. "I understand that the possible benefit of my participation in this research is the development of a leadership framework for coaches of football teams".

4. "I understand that the results of the research may be published but that neither my name nor my identity will be revealed. In order to maintain confidentiality of my records, Jason Barr will use a coding system to identify each subject; that only he will know my son's true identity".

5. "I understand that I will not be compensated for my participation in this research study".

6. "I have been informed that questions I have concerning the research study or my participation in it, before and after our consent, will be answered by Jason Barr, of McGill University at 514-486-1101 (ext.601)".

7. "I have read the above information. The nature, demands, risks, and benefits of the project have been explained to me. I understand that I my may withdraw my consent and discontinue participation at any time without penalty or loss of benefit to myself".

Subject's Signature: _____   Date: _____

"I certify that I have explained to the above individuals the nature and purpose, the potential benefits associated with participation in this research study, and have answered any questions that have been raised.

Signature of the Investigator: _____   Date: _____

(Adapted from Thomas, J. R. & J. K. Nelson, 1996.)

Appendix F:

Player Identification Form

Comparison of Leadership Preferences and Perceptions Among Canadian High School, CÉGEP, University, and Professional Football Players

Player Information:

Last Name: _____

First Name: _____

Name of Football Team: _____

Level of Football: High School   CÉGEP
                            CIAU   CFL
(circle the level you play)

Position on Team: Offensive _____   Defensive _____
(i.e., offensive lineman)

Playing Time on Football Team: Regular   - played more than 50% of game time
(circle the response that correctly
reflects your playing time)   Substitute   - played less than 50% of game time

                                          Prospect   - played in exhibition games but not

---

Researcher's Section:

Subject #: _____

Date data collected: _____

Placement: R.   S.   P.

Comments:

_____

_____

_____