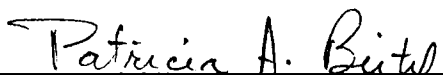
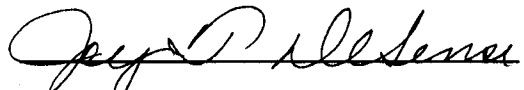


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A STUDY ON THE RELATIONSHIPS AMONG GROUP COHESION,
LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR AND ATHLETE SATISFACTION

A Thesis
Presented for the
Master of Science
Degree
The University of Tennessee, Knoxville

Christopher D. Willis

August 1994

DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my parents

Dr. H. Robert Willis

and

Mrs. Jane Willis

who gave me the love and support only they could ever give.

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationships between group cohesion, leader behavior, and athlete satisfaction with leadership for NCAA Division I female volleyball players. Questionnaires were sent to four Southeast Conference Universities who agreed to participate in the study. Yukl's (1971) discrepancy theory was used for examining the satisfaction of the athletes in reference to their preferences for coaching behavior and their perceptions of their coaches' actual behavior. House's (1971) path-goal theory and Chelladurai's (1990) contingency model were used as framework for investigating the relationships among all three factors. The following three problems were investigated in reference to the 29 female volleyball players: (a) determine if discrepancy scores between preferred and perceived coaching behavior factors were related to cohesion components, (b) determine if specific leadership satisfaction factors were related to the discrepancy scores between preferred and perceived coaching behaviors, and (c) determine if general and specific leadership satisfaction factors were related to the components of team cohesion. Cohesion was measured by using Carron, Widmeyer, and Brawley's (1985) Group Environmental Questionnaire. The constructs of cohesion measured were: (a) group integration-social, (b) group integration-task, (c) individual attraction to group-social, and (d) individual attraction to group-task. Leader behavior was measured with Chelladurai's (1980) Leadership Scale for Sports (LSS), and was administered in two forms: (a) preferred leadership behavior, and (b) perceived/actual leadership behavior. The five factors of leadership behavior measured by the LSS were: (a) training and instruction, (b) autocratic behavior, (c) democratic behavior, (d) rewarding behavior, and (e) social support. The difference between the two forms of leadership factors (preferred-

perceived) determined the discrepancies, which, according to Yukl's (1971) discrepancy model, is related to the subordinates' satisfaction, such that as the discrepancies become smaller, the satisfaction of the subordinate with the leader should increase. Finally, Schliesman's (1985) General and Specific Satisfaction Scales were used to measure the athletes' general satisfaction with the coaches' behavior and specific satisfaction with each of the five leadership behavior factors according to the LSS. The results demonstrated that the cohesion construct of attraction to group-social was significantly related to the discrepancy values of the leader behaviors of autocratic and rewarding behavior. Also, satisfaction with autocratic, democratic and rewarding behavior all related to their corresponding discrepancy scores. Finally, it was demonstrated that: (a) group integration-social was significantly related to general leadership satisfaction and the specific leadership satisfaction factors of autocratic behavior, democratic behavior, and rewarding behavior, (b) group integration-task was significantly related to general leadership satisfaction and the specific leadership satisfaction factors of training and instruction, autocratic behavior, democratic behavior, and rewarding behavior, (c) attraction to group-social was found to be significantly related to general leadership satisfaction and all the specific leadership satisfaction factors, and (d) attraction to group-task was found to be significantly related to all the specific leadership satisfaction factors but was not significantly related to general leadership satisfaction. These results demonstrated support for House's (1971) path-goal theory and Chelladurai's (1990) contingency model, however there was little support for Yukl's (1971) discrepancy model.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

With the level of athletics increasing, and the spread of talent becoming more robust, coaches and athletes are looking for the extra edge to put them over the top of their competition. Sport psychology has attempted to give aid to athletics in their search for improvement. Sport psychology addresses many facets of sport including mental imagery training, arousal regulation, and group dynamics. This last area of group dynamics, more specifically, cohesion of the group (team) and how cohesion is affected by the leader (coach), is an area of current interest.

It is a widely held notion that cohesion and performance are positively related in interactive sports (Brawley, Carron, & Widmeyer, 1988; Carron, Widmeyer, & Brawley, 1985; Kim & Sukiama, 1992; and Spink 1990). And it is also believed that the coach has an affect on the level of cohesion that is experienced on the team (Carron, 1988).

The behavior of the coach can be discussed in two ways, preferred and actual. First, the preferred actions of the coach can be defined as how the player would like the coach to behave in order to meet his/her needs (Chelladurai, 1984). In contrast, if these needs are not met, it can be assumed that it could possibly strain the interpersonal relationship of the player and coach. The actual behaviors of the coach are those actions that the player perceives the coach doing (Chelladurai, 1984). Yukl's (1971) discrepancy model, if applied to the sport setting, suggests that the smaller the discrepancy between the preference of the athlete and the actual behavior of the coach, the greater the satisfaction for the athlete.

The coach, or leader, is an integral part of the group, and his/her actions will affect the dynamics of the team, or group (Carron 1988; Chelladurai, 1990; House, 1971). Within the interdependent sport of volleyball, the path-goal theory of House (1971) made several implications regarding the relationship of leader behaviors with satisfaction and cohesiveness. First, House suggested a positive relationship between levels of structure and levels of satisfaction, i.e., more structure results in greater satisfaction and vice versa. Second, House (1971) suggested that more consideration from the leader produces greater cohesion of the groups. Finally, House theorized greater authoritarian leadership would tend to produce lower levels of satisfaction.

In general, Chelladurai's (1990) contingency model supports the idea of leader influence on the dynamics of the group. Many factors come into play when looking at the satisfaction and performance of the group, including leader behavior, member characteristics, member preferences, and situational factors. Chelladurai's multidimensional theory allows for many influences upon leadership and the group which allows for the gathering of many theories in order to best understand the athlete coach relationship.

Statement of the Problem

The purpose of this study was to determine if the actions of a leader (coach) were related to the athletes satisfaction and the cohesion of the group. More specifically, the purpose of this study was to determine the nature of relationships among: (a) the discrepancies, between preferred and perceived actual coaching behavior factors, of the female volleyball players, (b) task and/or social cohesion components of the team, and (c) athlete satisfaction with coaching behaviors.

The sub problems of this study were to:

1. Determine if discrepancy scores between preferred and perceived coaching behavior factors are related to cohesion components for female volleyball players (House, 1971).

2. Determine if general and specific satisfaction scores of female volleyball players are related to the discrepancy scores between preferred and perceived coaching behaviors (Yukl, 1971; Chelladurai, 1990).

3. Determine if general and specific satisfaction scores of female volleyball players are related to the components of team cohesion (House, 1971; Chelladurai, 1990).

Definition of Terms

The following terms are theoretically and operationally defined in relation to this study.

Group Cohesion

A multidimensional process that is reflected in the tendency for a group to stick together and remain united in the pursuit of its goals and objectives. This shall be measured using the Group Environmental Questionnaire (Carron, Widmeyer, & Brawley, 1985), which is divided into four categories: (a) group integration-social, GIS, (b) group integration-task, GIT, (c) individual attraction to group-social, ATGS, and (d) Individual attraction to group-task, ATGT .

Group integration-social. Each individual member's feelings about the group as an interacting social unit.

Group integration-task. Each individual member's feelings about the similarity, closeness, and bonding within the team as a whole as focused on the group's tasks and goals.

Individual attraction to group-social. Each individual member's personal desire to be a part of the group as it concerns social interactions (feelings about personal involvement, desire to be accepted, etc.).

Individual attraction to group-task. Each individual member's personal desire to be a part of the group as it concerns the activities, productivity, and goals at hand.

Leadership

The process of influencing organized team members toward achieving a common goal.

Leadership Behavior

The interaction of the coach with his/her athletes which is categorized into five dimensions of behavior according to the Leadership Scale for Sport (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1978). The dimensions are as follows: (a) training and instruction behavior, (b) autocratic behavior, (c) democratic behavior, (d) social support, and (e) rewarding behavior. The five dimensions can be grouped into three categories: (a) skill teaching ability, training and instruction; (b) decision style, autocratic and democratic; and (c) consideration, rewarding behavior and social support (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1978).

Training and instruction behavior. Providing information to facilitate improvement of skills and to encourage task accomplishment and goal achievement.

Autocratic behavior. A style of decision-making in which the coach makes all decisions for the athletes, remains aloof, and insists on complete obedience from his/her team.

Democratic behavior. A style of decision-making in which the coach allows athletes to actively participate in making decisions which affect the team.

Rewarding behavior. Performance dependent positive feedback provided by the coach, crucial to maintaining the motivational level of the athletes.

Social support. Behaviors exhibited by the coach which indicate concern for athletes and their welfare. Through supportive behaviors, the coach attempts to help individuals with personal problems, and to increase communication within the team, thereby increasing group cohesion.

The measurements of these behaviors can be categorized as: (a) actual, (b) preferred, and (c) the discrepancy between actual and preferred.

Actual leadership (coaching) behavior. An athlete's perception of his/her leader's actual behavior. This is represented by a score on the Perceived Behavior form of the Leadership Scale for Sports.

Preferred leadership (coaching) behavior. The leadership behavior that an athlete actually desires his/her coach to use. This is represented by a score on the Preferred Behavior form of the Leadership Scale for Sports.

Discrepancy. The difference between scores for the actual and preferred coaching behavior for each of the five dimensions (preferred-perceived).

Satisfaction with Leadership

The degree to which an athlete experiences positive feelings toward his/her coach's leadership (Schliesman, 1985). This is measured by studying the differences between preferred coaching behavior and perceptions of actual coaching behavior of the two forms of the Leadership Scale for Sports.

General satisfaction. Satisfaction with overall leadership as measured by a single response question (Chelladurai, 1984; Schliesman, 1985).

Specific satisfaction. Satisfaction with each of the five dimensions of leadership measured in each dimension by a single response question (Schliesman, 1985).

Assumptions of the Study

The following are considered assumptions of this study:

1. It is assumed that the questionnaires were administered according to the written instructions provided to the teams.
2. It is assumed that participants completed all the questions honestly.

Limitations of the Study

The following are considered limitations of this study:

1. Perceptions of coaches, by the athletes, may vary according to the relationship of the athlete with their coach, therefore perceptions could be skewed.
2. This study was limited to NCAA Division I women's volleyball athletes within one conference.

Significance of the Study

The purpose of this study was to determine the relationships among group cohesion, leader behavior, and satisfaction with that leader behavior. The results proved to be significant and should be applicable to both the research field and the playing field. Sport psychology can apply the findings of this study by comparing the results (discussed in Chapter 4) to the established theories of Chelladurai (1990), House (1971), and Yukl (1971). Chelladurai's (1990) multidimensional model of

leadership, and House's (1971) path-goal theory were supported by many of the findings.

Coaches can use the information produced by this study to better understand the influence that they have on the dynamics of their team. Satisfaction with leader behavior was found to be related to feelings of team cohesion, by the athletes, which would indicate a need for the coaches to provide an atmosphere in which the athletes are happy with the coaching they are receiving. Also, coaches of female volleyball players can look at the descriptive statistics and note the leader behavioral preferences of the subjects. If certain behaviors are highly preferred by the athletes, coaches should note this and take it into consideration on the playing court or field. This study should be able to add insight to complex study of group dynamics within the sport setting, while also giving coaches practical ways to look differently at how they approach dealing with their team.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The purpose of the review is to provide a theoretical background for, and research examples of, the study of group cohesion in sport. A second purpose is to introduce the area of leadership as it is perceived and preferred by athletes, which is related to the athletes' satisfaction with coaches and their behaviors (Schliesman, 1987). It is thought that a relationship between the discrepancy of perceived and preferred leadership behaviors might be related to the overall cohesion (and its components) of a team, therefore both of these subjects are investigated.

The following articles have been abstracted in order to explain the key points and how they relate to the present study. Articles describing the initial development of a group cohesion scale and leadership scale based on the respective theoretical frameworks are included along with related research applications of these theories in the sport setting.

Group Cohesion Theory in Sport

Carron, Widmeyer, and Brawley (1985) developed a model of group cohesion in sport. The purpose of their study was fourfold: (a) to demonstrate the need for developing an instrument to assess group cohesion, (b) to outline a conceptual model of group cohesion upon which a test could be developed, (c) to outline the four projects which would be used to obtain construct-related information and to develop a first draft of the Group Environmental Questionnaire, and (d) to outline the two reliability and validity studies. The first objective of this study was completed by a literature review which revealed a lack of proper framework from which others were attempting to measure group cohesion. The second objective, of creating the conceptual model from

which to work, was developed through what the researchers saw as important to others who had studied cohesion, and what they themselves brought to the subject. The resulting model was based on cohesion being dependent on *group integration* (GI) and the *individual's attraction to the group* (ATG). Further, each of these categories was divided into *task* (T) or *social* (S) aspects, thus creating four distinct constructs. GI is defined as the bonding of the group as a whole. ATG is defined as the interaction of motives working within the individual to remain in the group. Task, T, refers to the orientation toward achieving the group's goals. Finally, social, S, is defined as a general orientation to the bonding which holds the group together.

There were four steps in producing questions for the GEQ (Carron et al., 1985). The first three steps included administering questionnaires to undergraduates (457), all of whom had participated in a team sport, asking them (through open ended questions) factors which contribute to team cohesion. These factors were coded and placed into one of the four constructs. The fourth step involved a literature search of 29 articles, dating from 1948 to 1982, dealing with group dynamics in many different areas. This research produced an additional set of questions which were also coded and placed into the constructs. All of the items (354) were pooled together and repeated items were eliminated. Statements were then written from the items to form the initial form of the GEQ.

Content validation was demonstrated through the method of item development, already discussed, and by sending the set of items to five experts in the field of group dynamics for review. This process reduced the entire pool to 53 items, which were put into a 9 point Likert-scale form ranging from "strongly disagree," 1 to "strongly agree," 9 (Carron et al., 1985). The questionnaire was administered to 212 athletes

from 20 different teams in order to test for reliability. Internal consistency was shown by using Cronbach's alpha, which removed 29 items, but showed strong intrascale equivalence with the remaining 24.

Next, the 24 items were administered to 247 athletes from 26 different teams (14 female, 12 male), in order to determine if the internal consistency values found in the first study could be replicated using a different population. The results produced internal consistency for the second version of GEQ. Then, a factor analysis was performed by using two different methods. First, using an oblique rotation, the researchers were able to create a more theoretically meaningful factor structure.

Following that, Carron et al. (1978) interpreted the factor analytic results and produced a third version which contained 18 items broken down as follows: ATG-T, 4 items; ATGS, 5 items; GIT, 5 items; GIS, 4 items. This final instrument used to measure group cohesion in a sport setting is: (a) practical, (b) shows internal consistency, (c) integrates a wide variety of sport groups sharing a characteristic, (d) has content-validity, and (e) has demonstrated construct validity. With all these factors in place, sport psychology can measure group cohesion in a quantitative way while differentiating the four main constructs.

Cohesion Research in Sport

Davids and Nutter (1988) wished to examine the relationship between team cohesion and performance in top class volleyball clubs playing in the English National league. 114 male volleyball players (age 17 to 36 years) participated in answering the GEQ at mid season and at the end of the season. In dividing the teams into "winning" (win % > 50%) and "losing" (win % < 50%) teams, Davids and Nutter established the performance variable, and could then compare it to cohesion as the independent variable

using a correlation matrix formed by providing Pearson product moment correlations of the variables. A two way repeated measures ANOVA was performed on the cohesion sub scale scores in relation to winning and losing status. Both mid-way and end-of-season figures were produced.

The results showed that GIT and ATGT correlated significantly with winning teams ($p < .01$), which suggests, that at elite levels, task related cohesiveness is highly desirable for successful teams. No significant changes occurred at the end of the season, as the successful teams and the less successful showed no changes in levels of cohesion or in the win/loss-percentages. One of the problems of this study is determining whether cohesion causes success or vice versa. Significant changes in winning percentage could have given insight into this problem, but no significant changes occurred. Also, Davids and Nutter (1988) suggested the importance of further investigation regarding task oriented variables.

The purpose of a study by Brawley, Carron, and Widmeyer (1988), was to explore the relationship between cohesiveness and the perceptions of the individual team members concerning the strength of their group's resistance to potentially disruptive events (GRD). A second purpose was to determine if this relationship, if one existed, held up across group types (elite and recreational). The sample of the first study consisted of 89 intercollegiate athletes (4 male teams, 3 female teams). An extreme-groups design was used by separating the upper and lower 20% of the distribution of the cohesion subscales, as determined by the GEQ. Cohesion was the independent variable and the responses these subjects made about group resistance to disruption were the dependent variables. The researchers hypothesized that if

individuals perceived high team cohesion, then they should also perceive their team to be more resistant to disruption than athletes who perceived their teams as less cohesive.

The measurement for GRD was assessed by using two items. First, they were asked to respond to, "In your view as a team member, please provide examples of events/actions you believe would disrupt the team if they were to happen" (p. 202). Then, subjects were asked to rate the degree to which they perceived that each of the events/actions would be disruptive on a 9-point Likert scale. The second item presented was, "Whenever obstacles arise, you and your team may resist them. Using the scale below, circle the number reflecting the general degree of resistance your team believes it would put up if any of your disruptive example actually happened" (p. 202). Again the athletes responded on a 9-point Likert scale. The data revealed that most of the statements were about the individual and about task orientation rather than social orientation. Given the unidirectional hypotheses of the study, a series of priori t-tests were computed to compare each of the extreme cohesion groups. The results provided empirical support for the notion that athletes expressing high levels of perceived cohesion in three subscales (GIT $p < .001$, GIS $p < .001$, and ATGT $p < .02$) would also see their team as more resistant to salient disruptions than athletes expressing low team cohesion in each respective factor.

In the second study by Brawley et al. (1988), several types of physical activity groups were examined (elite, intramural, and recreational sport teams). The elite teams, intramural teams, and fitness class respectively contained 48, 60, and 34 males and 54, 47 and 86 females. The same study design, as performed in the first study, was applied to the data produced by the same questionnaires. The results revealed that for both elite and intramural sport athletes, a relationship between cohesion and GRD was

evident in the same three constructs of the GEQ. The results for the fitness class showed that the only significant relationship was between GRD and GIT, thus showing that change in group type makes a difference in the cohesion/GRD relationship. However, the GIT/GRD relationship remained significant, as the task orientation had previously been shown to be distinctly important to group cohesion.

In all, this study revealed a positive relationship between group cohesion and GRD in elite athletics, and that it varies between types of groups (elite, intramural, and fitness class). The implications are that group cohesion is an important indicator of GRD in elite athletics, and that it carries over to intramural type teams. Although the fitness class did not show significant levels of correlation overall, it did reveal the importance of group integration, with respect to task orientation, and group resistance to disruption.

Spink (1990) wished to apply the GEQ to the interactive sport of volleyball, for the purpose of examining the relationship between group cohesion and collective efficacy, and determine whether the cohesion/collective efficacy relationship would be moderated by the type of group selected (elite vs. recreational). The 92 subjects were participating in a volleyball tournament in either the open (N = 53) or senior division (N=39). The open division was identified as the elite levels, and the senior division as the recreational levels.

The GEQ questionnaires were distributed along with two additional questions to assess collective efficacy expectations: "What placing do you expect to attain in the tournament?" (p. 305) and "How confident are you that you team will attain this placing?" (p. 305). The first question (open ended) was designed to assess the groups

collective efficacy, while the second, answered on a 7-point Likert scale, assessed how confident the subjects were.

An extreme-groups design was used by breaking down the individuals into high and low efficacy groups. Using a stepwise discriminant analysis to determine which cohesion scores (of the GEQ) contributed to a function that would predict collective efficacy of the volleyball players. Spink (1990) found that ATGT and GIS predicted collective efficacy for the elite volleyball players ($p < .001$, and $p < .01$ respectively). For the recreational players none of the four scales significantly predicted group efficacy. This study demonstrated: (a) that group type is a variable in the cohesion/efficacy relationship, and (b) that group collective efficacy is possibly related to cohesion in an elite athletic setting. Further study is needed to explain the why's of this relationship, and other factors that relate to cohesion.

A study by Kim and Sugiyama (1992) also shows the connection between cohesiveness and performance. The purpose of their investigation was to confirm, quantitatively, the relation of teams' performance norms and their cohesiveness. The subjects were 114 Japanese athletic teams (1203 boys, 769 girls, mean age 16.7 yr., $SD = 2.6$) were administered. The GEQ was administered along with a performance norm questionnaire. Results confirmed the hypothesis that performance norms were positively related to cohesion, including all four measures of the GEQ. More specifically, GIT showed the strongest correlation at .65 (Pearson correlation, $p < .001$). Not only did Kim and Sugiyama's (1992) study help support the idea that cohesion and performance are related, but the study also pointed out that the factor which correlated strongest with success was the construct of group integration-task.

As will be seen later, a strong relationship with task is also evident with the style of the leader.

In terms of the overall framework of cohesion, Parington and Shangi (1992) reiterated that team effectiveness may require a multidimensional perspective which includes, among other things, interpersonal coach leadership, social cohesion, and task integration. Two interrelated studies were performed in order to determine the representativeness, authenticity, utility, and generality of different psychosocial elements of team psychology. The first study surveyed a group of 15 experienced athletes (8 female, 7 male, 21 to 25 yr.) with a questionnaire which represented six elements of team psychology, as devised from an extensive literature review done by the authors. The subjects were also asked for their further input on the matter with an open ended question. The questionnaire produced 53 items falling in the categories of: (a) player talent and attitude, (b) coach leadership, (c) task integration, (d) social cohesion, and (e) team identity. The purpose of the second study was to: (a) confirm the item pool created, (b) assess the authenticity of team psychology as a multidimensional set of psychosocial elements, (c) begin to determine the utility of the measures of these elements, and (d) begin to establish the generality of these measures.

Subjects for this study were 171 university and high school students (102 male, 69 female) who had participated in the equivalent of a high school interactive sport. They were asked to fill out the questionnaire in reference to either a winning or a losing experience. Results showed that authenticity, dimensionality, internal consistency, discriminant validity, and generality were all proven in t-test statistical analysis. What can be gained, most significantly for this study, is that the significant psychosocial elements identified by the current literature are valid, such as interpersonal coach

leadership, social cohesion, and task integration. However, Parington and Shangi (1992) suggested that more specific items need to be examined and tested to better understand the inner dynamics of sport teams.

It is obvious that from the research studies that cohesion is a multidimensional construct, which is yet to be fully understood. However, it can be seen that team cohesion seems to be related to success in athletic settings. Whether cohesion causes increased performance or vice versa, is yet to be determined, but it is fairly well accepted that the two constructs are related. Many factors affect cohesion, and it is the opinion of this author that team leadership (the coach) is one of those factors, which has not been extensively looked at. Therefore, the next section is devoted to leadership as a construct, and how it may pertain to cohesion.

Leadership Theory in Sport

House's (1971) path-goal theory of leader effectiveness has many applications to this present study. The main idea of this theory is that in order for a leader to be effective, and to get the maximum ability out the subordinates, he/she must produce the most positive valences with each subordinate according to the situation and the state of the individual subordinates. Many hypotheses were tested and supported surrounding this theory: (a) initiating structure reduces role ambiguity for the subordinate, (b) initiated structure and consideration have differentiated effects according to the task and subordinate, (c) increased structure and close coordination result in increased coordination, satisfaction, and performance, (d) where there is interdependence in task, consideration will result in increased cohesiveness and team effort, and (d) under conditions of authoritarian leadership, subordinate satisfaction will be decreased. The path-goal theory is important to the present study in that it begins to point to the

importance of the leader in how he/she affects the members of the group. Part of the effect that a leader can have is the degree to which the group can become cohesive as a unit. House has addressed this issue in theory, and this study desires to explore the leader-group relationship by applying his ideas directly to research.

Yukl's (1971) discrepancy model of subordinate satisfaction with the leader addresses the idea that satisfaction with a leader can be derived by observing whether or not the leader is meeting the desires of the subordinates. His theory states that satisfaction is a function of the difference between a person's preferences for and his actual experience with leader behavior. Also, the shape of the curve relating leader behavior to subordinate satisfaction will vary according to the subordinates preference level. In other words, for an individual preferring higher levels of a certain behavior, he/she would be much more dissatisfied with very low levels of that behavior, in comparison with an individual who had a medium preference level of that behavior. Finally, the amount of dissatisfaction with a given discrepancy also depends on the importance of the needs affecting the preference level, which means that satisfaction does not only depend on discrepancy within behavior, but also on the importance the individual places on that certain behavior. Along with this, the context in which the behavior is performed determines the importance of the action. For example, in dealing with unimportant issues, autocratic behavior may be more preferred so that the subordinates are not given the extra burden of that particular decision. Yukl's discrepancy model gives a theoretical background to deriving satisfaction from leader behavior and assists this present study in creating a model from which to measure athlete satisfaction of their coaches.

The main ideas behind Chelladuria's (1980) paper on leadership in sports organizations guides this present study by establishing a multidimensional model of leadership. One of the main ideas of this paper is that the leadership process is interpersonal in nature between the leader and the member. Aspects of actual and preferred leadership behavior were discussed. Antecedents of leadership were listed as: (a) situational characteristics, (b) leader characteristics, and (c) member characteristics. These in turn affected the leader behaviors listed as; (a) required behavior, (b) actual behavior, and (c) preferred behavior. Finally, all these had an effect on the consequences of, performance of, and satisfaction with the leader's performance. This framework led to the discussion of House's (1971) path-goal theory of leadership which stressed the need for the leader's behavior to match the preferences of the members of the group. Further, it was theorized that "leader behavior which deviates from the...preferences of the members will be detrimental to performance and satisfaction (p.228)." Other reasons were also given as to why close knit preference and actual behavior might not be needed for good performance: (a) the member is indifferent to the goals and rewards of the team, (b) the member already has the ability to perform and is intrinsically motivated, and (c) the member does need the guidance and support, it is being met by an alternative source. Chelladurai's theory is closely knit with this study in that it considers the relationship between the leader and the members of the group. He believes that the actions of the leader and the needs of the group affect one another, and thus could have an affect on performance and the state of the group.

Chelladurai and Saleh (1980) wanted to develop an instrument that measured leadership using the factors of training and instruction, democratic behavior, autocratic

behavior, social support, and positive feedback. These factors and resulting items came from an extensive literature review which included five previous leadership scales. The first set of items (99) produced by the researchers was administered to 160 undergraduates (80 male, 80 female), with each item preceded with the phrase, "The coach should..."; and five response categories were provided, i.e., always, often, occasionally, seldom, and never. The data were factor analyzed using principal factoring with iteration and varimax rotation, eventually producing 50 items representing the five dimensions of leader behavior, and called the Leadership Scale for Sports (LSS).

This version was then administered to a different sample of 102 physical education students (45 males, 57 females), and 223 male varsity athletes. The first group was asked to indicate their preference for leader behavior, while the second was asked to indicate their perceptions of the actual behavior of their current coaches along with their preference for specific leader behavior. The results showed internal consistency and reliability through the use of Cronbach's alpha and the test-retest method, respectively. Factorial validity was shown by the stability of the items across the different tests. Finally content validity was shown in all five factors using factor interpretation by the researchers.

The establishment of a leadership behavior scale with five subscales enables researchers to quantitatively assess the perceptions of athletes of their respective coaches, along with the preferred characteristics of their leaders. Possible application could be correlating the two forms in order: (a) to assess how content the athletes are with the leadership, or (b) to discuss factors affecting the different subscales of the instrument.

In Chelladurai's (1990) theory review, he gives us insight into his contingency theory of leadership in sport. The multidimensional model suggests a relationship between antecedents of the situation, leader behaviors and consequences. The antecedents of the situation are the situational characteristics, leader characteristics, and member characteristics. These, in turn, act on leader behavior defined by required behavior, actual behavior, and preferred behavior. Finally, the leader behavior determines the performance and satisfaction of the group (consequences). All of these factors influence one another, however, the leader only has control over his behaviors. The factors that are important for this present study are the preferred and actual behavior, and how this influences the satisfaction of the subordinates.

Research of Leadership in Sport

Chelladurai (1984) wished to examine the relationship between the discrepancy between preferred and perceived leadership and the athlete's satisfaction. The LSS was administered to 96 collegiate varsity athletes from 20 teams representing 3 sports (basketball, wrestling, and track and field). The athletes were selected from sports differentiated on the basis of task variability and/or task dependence (basketball- open interdependent, wrestling- open independent, track and field- closed independent). Finally, the satisfaction of the athletes with individual performance, team performance, leadership, and overall involvement were each measured by a single question in the form of a 7-point Likert scale anchored by "very dissatisfied" (1) and "very satisfied" (7).

The results showed that satisfaction with team performance was related to leadership in the interdependent open sport of basketball only in the leadership sub scale of positive feedback ($p < .001$). In wrestling, this satisfaction with team

performance was slightly related to discrepancies in the subscales of training and instruction, democratic behavior, and social support, however in a negative manner ($p < .01$). Satisfaction with overall involvement was shown to be negatively related to training and instruction for wrestling, while it was also negatively related to social support within the track and field athletes ($p < .05$). The satisfaction with leadership, for the basketball athletes, correlated with all the subscales of leadership (training and instruction, autocratic and democratic behavior, social support, and rewarding behavior). Training and instruction ($p < .001$), democratic behavior ($p < .01$), social support ($p < .01$), and positive feedback ($p < .001$) all had a positive relationship to the discrepancy of leadership preference to perception, while preferences in autocratic behavior ($p < .001$) possessed a negative relationship. Within wrestling, discrepancy in training and instruction ($p < .001$) and social support ($p < .05$) were significantly negatively related to the satisfaction of leadership. Lastly, for track and field, it was found that discrepancy to training and instruction ($p < .001$) was significantly negatively related to satisfaction of leadership (Chelladurai, 1984). In reference to this literature review, it is important to note that in the open-interdependent sport of basketball, the discrepancy between perceived and preferred leadership positively correlated with all five specific satisfaction factors of leadership.

A study done by Horne and Carron (1985), attempted to directly study the coach-athlete dyad. There were three main objectives within the study: (a) to study the variables discriminating between compatible and incompatible relationships, (b) to study the relationship between the coach-athlete compatibility and performance; and (c) to study the relationship between compatibility and athlete satisfaction.

In order to obtain these objectives, 74 male coach-athlete dyads were given the Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation (FIRO-B) and the Leadership Scale for Sports (LSS). The FIRO-B measured the subjects' needs to express and receive behaviors from inclusion, control, and affection. The LSS had three different versions with which the athletes could express their preferred leadership behaviors and their perceived behaviors of the coach, and the coach could express his actual leadership behavior. In knowing the preferred and perceived leadership behavior of the athletes, one can determine the discrepancies between preferred and perceived behaviors and therefore a possible link to the satisfaction of the athlete with the leader. Along with these two instruments, an assessment of performance, satisfaction, and compatibility was accomplished through a simple questionnaire with a 9-point scale relative to the constructs. The most significant result (for this review) showed that the sole variable predicting athletes' performance perceptions was the score reflecting discrepancy between the athletes' perceptions and preference on the LSS dimension of rewarding behavior. The smaller the discrepancy on rewarding behavior, the greater was the performance perception. Horne and Carron (1985) suggested this indicates that athletes' feel they are performing better in relation to how well their coach meets their needs for rewarding behavior.

Schliesman's (1985) investigated the relationship between the discrepancies, of preferred and actual leader behaviors, and subordinate satisfaction with leadership. In order to determine the relationship between leader behavior and subordinate satisfaction, he studied male university level track and field athletes. He found that discrepancies for the specific leader behavior factors of training and instruction, social support, and positive feedback were linearly related with their respective satisfaction

scores, thus supporting Yukl's (1971) discrepancy model. He also found general leadership satisfaction was most related to social support. Finally, the results also demonstrated that leader behavior associated with consideration (people and relationship oriented) were more influential on general leadership satisfaction than leader behavior associated with initiating leadership style (task oriented behavior).

Summary

The study of group cohesion and leadership in the area of sport may seem at first to be totally separate. However, in reviewing the literature, one can see strong possibilities for the relationship of the two important constructs along with satisfaction. Within a group sport setting, there will always be leaders and followers, but how the leadership affects the cohesion of the group and the satisfaction of the individuals has yet to be examined. According to Chelladurai (1984), within the path-goal theory, it was postulated that "the degree of ambiguity, interdependence, and variability in the task will determine the appropriateness of specific leader behaviors" (p. 29). In other words, the leader of a team has tremendous influence on the dynamics of the group (Chelladurai, 1990). Satisfaction with the leader by the group, according to Yukl (1971) can be determined by the discrepancy of actual leader behavior and the preference of this behavior by the athlete. Finally, House's (1971) path-goal theory and Chelladurai's (1990) contingency model gave structure to the idea that the satisfaction of the subordinates/athletes, influence the dynamics of the group. In general, there have been very few studies utilizing elite female athletes in the areas of cohesion, satisfaction and leader behavior. This present study hopes to add to their existing literature in this area.

CHAPTER III

PROCEDURES

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationships between the 3 constructs of: (a) group cohesion, (b) player satisfaction, and (c) the discrepancy between preferred and actual leader behavior. This chapter is devoted to how the study was carried out, and is categorized by: (a) selection of subjects, (b) instrumentation, and (c) methods of testing.

Selection of Subjects

The population consisted of 29 NCAA Division I, Southeast Conference, female volleyball participants. A letter (Appendix A) was sent to all Southeast Conference Division I women's volleyball programs (10) requesting their participation, and only four elected to assist in the study. If a return letter was received confirming their willingness to participate, a package was sent, containing the questionnaires required to complete the study. Along with these questionnaires, a consent form (Appendix B) was included which: (a) assured the subjects of confidentiality, (b) explained the purpose of the study and, (c) informed the subjects that they were free to withdraw from the study by not completing the questionnaire. The coaches were comprised of three females and one male, and only one team had advanced to the NCAA tournament

Instrumentation

Each athlete completed Chelladurai and Saleh's (1980) Leadership Scale for Sports (preferred- Appendix D, and perceived versions- Appendix E), Carron, Widmeyer, and Brawley's (1985) Group Environmental Questionnaire (Appendix F), and Schliesman's (1984) General and Specific Satisfaction Scales (Appendix G). The

order was: (a) LSS- preferred, (b) GEQ, (c) LSS- perceived, (d) the two satisfaction scales. Separating the two forms of the LSS was done in order to reduce the influence of one form on the other.

Each form of the LSS (Appendix D and E) contained 40 statements which assessed the following five dimensions of behavior; (a) training and instruction behavior (questions 1, 5, 8, 11, 14, 17, 20, 23, 26, 29, 32, 35, and 38), (b) autocratic behavior (questions 6, 12, 27, 34, and 40), (c) democratic behavior (questions 2, 9, 15, 18, 21, 24, 30, 33, and 39), (d) social support (questions 3, 7, 13, 19, 22, 25, 31, and 36), and (e) rewarding behavior (question 4, 10, 16, 28, and 37).

Athletes completed two forms of the LSS for this study. The Preferred Behavior form was used to measure specific behaviors in the five dimensions athlete desires her coach to use. The items in this form were phrased in such a manner as to prompt the athlete to express how she would prefer her coach to behave. The Perceived Behavior form of the LSS measured the athlete's perceptions of the specific leadership behaviors actually expressed by her coach. These questions were phrased in such a way as to ask the athlete how her coach actually behaves. Responses on both forms of these tests were made on a five-point Likert scale as follows: (a) always, (b) often, (c) occasionally, (d) seldom, and (e) never.

Athletes also completed the General Satisfaction form of the LSS (Schliesman, 1987), which measured the overall satisfaction of leadership by a single seven point response question, and the Specific Satisfaction form of the LSS (Schliesman, 1987), which measured the satisfaction with the five dimensions of leadership by a seven-point response question in each dimension.

Chelladurai (1980) tested the reliability of the LSS using the split-halves method to determine internal consistency. Internal consistency coefficients for the preferred and perceived forms for each factor are as follows: (a) training and instruction behavior, .83 and .93; (b) democratic behavior, .75 and .87; (c) autocratic behavior, .45 and .79; (d) social support, .70 and .86; and (c) rewarding behavior, .82 and .92.

Carron, Widmeyer, and Brawley's (1985) GEQ was also administered to all of the athletes in order to assess group (team) cohesion. The questionnaire consisted of 18 items measuring the following four dimensions of group cohesion: (a) group integration- task (questions 10, 12, 14, 16, and 18); (b) group integration- social (questions 11, 13, 15, and 17); (c) individual attraction to group- task (questions 2, 4, 6, and 8); and (d) individual attraction to group- social (questions 1, 3, 5, 7, and 9).

The questions were phrased in first person statements referring to the feelings of the player (ATG) or the atmosphere of the team (GI). Responses to the statements were based on a nine-point Likert scale ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree.

Carron, Widmeyer, and Brawley (1985) determined that the GEQ was internally consistent and reliable across studies, and had content validity. Concerning internal consistency, it was shown that each of the factors had strong correlations. Statistically, the Chronbach alphas of ATGT, ATGS, GIT, and GIS, were $r = .75$, $.64$, $.70$, and $.76$ respectively. The instrument was also shown to be reliable across studies as multiple tests revealed similar results. The authors developed their content validity based on: (a) a broad literature search, (b) subjects used as active agents in concept definition, (c) reliance on a conceptual model which provided the rationale for

the various scales, (d) assessment of item content made by unbiased experts and the research team, and (e) intercorrelations of each item with own and other scale scores.

Method of Testing

Letters requesting participation in the study were sent out as soon as approval of the proposal was complete (late January). Packets containing the questionnaires were not be sent out until at least 4 teams returned positive responses. The packets contained detailed instructions (Appendix H) for the team manager to administer the instruments to the players, and instructions to be read out loud to the subjects. No coaching staff was to be present at the time when the subjects are completing the questionnaires. Testing should have taken approximately 30 minutes.

The team manager then placed all of the sheets in a self-addressed stamped envelope provided by the experimenter. All coaches participating were sent a note of gratitude and a summary of the results of the study.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This study was conducted in order to examine the relationships among leadership, satisfaction of athletes, and group cohesion. In order to measure the multidimensional constructs, 29 female university level volleyball players responded to scales which measured: (a) their preferred coaching behavior, (b) the actual coaching behavior as perceived by the athletes, (c) their level of perceived group cohesion, (d) their general satisfaction with their coaches behavior, and (e) their satisfaction with specific coaching behaviors.

Descriptive Statistics:

Descriptive statistics were calculated for each measured construct as listed above (Table 1). On the whole, the female volleyball players in this study represented the normal distribution for most of the scale scores with their group mean being close to the midpoint and $M \pm 3$ standard deviations encompassing the range of the Likert responses for each construct (Table 1).

Preferred Leader Behaviors

Autocratic behavior, democratic behavior, social support, and rewarding behavior all produced means near 3 (on the scale from 1 to 5), which represented "occasionally," and meant the athletes preferred these behaviors about 50% of the time from their coaches. Training and instruction produced a mean value of 1.93, which represented "often," and suggested that the athletes preferred this behavior about 25% of the time from their coaches. The meaning of the data revealed that these athletes preferred democratic behavior, social support, and rewarding behavior occasionally,

training and instructional behavior often, and autocratic behavior somewhere between occasionally and seldom.

These findings were very close to Chelladurai's (1984) and Schliesman's (1985) studies, where they found athletes preferred training and instruction often. As well, House's (1971) path-goal theory suggested that interdependent team sport participants desire high levels of structure, i.e., training, and instruction. The data for autocratic behavior was also in line with these two previous studies, as they found this factor to be very close to seldom also. It is interesting to note that Chelladurai (1984) used males and females in basketball, wrestling, and track and field, and Schliesman (1985) used only males in track and field, yet the results for all three studies were quite similar.

Perceived Actual Leader Behaviors

Again the measurements of autocratic democratic, social support, and rewarding behavior were close to 3 (occasionally), while training and instruction was close to 2 (often). This implies that the athletes are receiving only slightly different behaviors from what they prefer (Table 1).

Discrepancy Scores

The discrepancy scores are the difference in the preferred leader behaviors and the perceived actual leader behaviors for each construct: training and instruction, $\underline{M} = -.36$; autocratic behavior, $\underline{M} = .46$; democratic behavior, $\underline{M} = -.41$; social support, $\underline{M} = .07$; and rewarding behavior $\underline{M} = .12$. The discrepancy scores for training and instruction and democratic behavior were both negative, indicating that the athletes were receiving *less* of these behaviors than they actually preferred. The other three were positive, which meant that the athletes were receiving *more* of that behavior than they

actually preferred. The discrepancy scores for social support and rewarding behavior were very close to 0, indicating that most of the athletes received close to the amount of these behaviors that they preferred, however the standard deviation for rewarding behavior discrepancy (1.17) was much bigger than the others indicating that the scores varied quite a bit.

Group Cohesion Scores

The cohesion scores were slightly higher than the mid-point (the scale being from 1 to 9): ATGS $\bar{M}$ = 6.28, ATGT $\bar{M}$ = 5.82, GIS $\bar{M}$ = 5.70, and GIT $\bar{M}$ = 5.61. These score reflected feeling of cohesion being slightly stronger than neutral (5).

Satisfaction Scores

General satisfaction with leadership. On this measurement (from 1 to 7), the mean was 4.48, with a standard deviation of 1.68 (Table 1), indicating that these athletes had a measurement of only slightly higher than the norm mean of 4. This revealed that the athletes were between "neutral" and "slightly satisfied" with their coaches. These statistics were slightly lower than those recorded by Chelladurai (1984) and Schliesman (1985), whose subjects produced scores of 5.91, and 5.65, respectively.

Specific satisfaction with leadership. In general the athletes were between "slightly satisfied," and "moderately satisfied" with the training and instruction ($\bar{M}$ = 5.59) they received from their coaches. Training and instruction was the construct which reflected the ability of the coach to teach the athletes the techniques and tactics of the sport. As for autocratic behavior ($\bar{M}$ = 5.17) and democratic behavior ($\bar{M}$ = 4.83), they were only slightly "satisfied." This reflected how the athletes felt about the decision making styles of their coaches. Finally, for social support ($\bar{M}$ = 4.59) and

rewarding behavior ($M=4.55$), the athletes were between "neutral" and "slightly satisfied." This reflected how the athletes felt about their coach's ability to show their considerations for them (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1978).

Problem 1:

Relationships Among Discrepancy Scores and Cohesion Components

In analyzing the collected data, a pairwise correlation analysis, and a stepwise regression analysis were used in order to determine whether or not the cohesion constructs and the discrepancy scores of the leadership factors correlated. Figures were used to represent the relationships between certain factors, but it should be noted that these figures were only representations, and not the actual plotted data.

Results

In using a pairwise correlation analysis it was found there were only two significant relationships to be reported from this problem set (Table 2). First, the discrepancy score for autocratic behavior showed a weak negative correlation with ATGS ($p = .05$, $r = -.37$), and the discrepancy score for rewarding behavior showed a little stronger relationship with the same cohesion construct ATGS ($p = .04$, $r = .39$) (Table 2). This data suggested that autocratic behavior and ATGS shared 13% common variability, and rewarding behavior and ATGS shared 15% common variability. All other p values were greater than .05, thus the relationships were insignificant (Table 2).

In performing the stepwise regression analysis data, it was observed that the discrepancy for rewarding behavior significantly correlated with ATGS ($p = .03$) (Table 3). This relationship indicated that the discrepancy in rewarding behavior

Table 2

Correlation Table for Cohesion Components and Discrepancy Scores

Cohesion Components	GIT		GIS		ATGT		ATGS	
	<u>p</u>	<u>r</u>	<u>p</u>	<u>r</u>	<u>p</u>	<u>r</u>	<u>p</u>	<u>r</u>
Leader Behavior Factors								
Training and instruction	.32	.19	.94	.01	.53	.12	.56	.11
Autocratic behavior	.43	-.15	.51	-.13	.21	-.24	.05	-.37
Democratic behavior	.93	-.02	.28	.21	.69	.08	.08	.33
Social support	.61	-.10	.71	.07	.49	-.13	.67	.08
Rewarding behavior	.38	.17	.28	.21	.18	.26	.04	.39

N=29

Table 3

Relationships of Leader Behavior Dimensions and Cohesion Factors

Cohesion factor	ATGS	
	<u>R²</u>	<u>p</u>
Leader behavior		
Rewarding behavior	.15	.03

all other p values > .05

accounted for most of the variance in the athletes' attraction to the group for social matters. No other variables were brought in at a significant level ($p \leq .05$)

Discussion

The strongest relationship among leader behavior factor discrepancies and ATGS was with rewarding behavior; which was supported by both the correlation (Table 2) and regression (Table 3) analysis. The fact that the discrepancy scores for rewarding behavior and ATGS were positively correlated, demonstrated that as the discrepancy, between what the athletes wanted and what they actually received, got larger, the cohesion construct of ATGS also got larger (Figure 1). In other words, if there was more discrepancy in rewarding behavior, then there was greater perception of the individuals' attraction to the group for social interaction. The positive discrepancy of this factor demonstrated that the athletes were receiving more rewarding behavior than they desired, and as the level of this behavior increased beyond athletes' preferred levels, the respective cohesion construct also increased. This finding is in opposition to Yukl's (1971) discrepancy model, but supports the importance of the flexibility of Chelladurai's (1990) contingency model of leadership.

Although no second variables were brought into the stepwise regression model, the pairwise correlation analysis produced a significant negative correlation between autocratic behavior and ATGS. In looking at the preference level of the athletes, it was demonstrated that the athletes desired autocratic behavior slightly less than the other four dimensions, and somewhere between "occasionally" and "seldom." This relatively low level of preference indicated that the athletes did not like it, and as that level increased above their preference, their attraction to the group in social matters dropped (Figure 2). This finding is in support of House's (1971) path-goal theory,

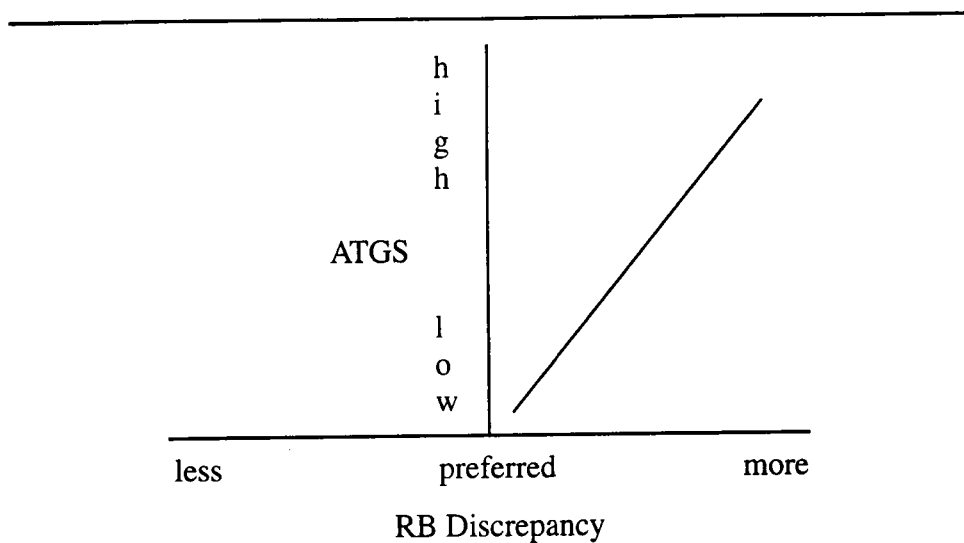


Figure 1

The Relationship Between Attraction to Group-Social and the Discrepancy in Rewarding Behavior

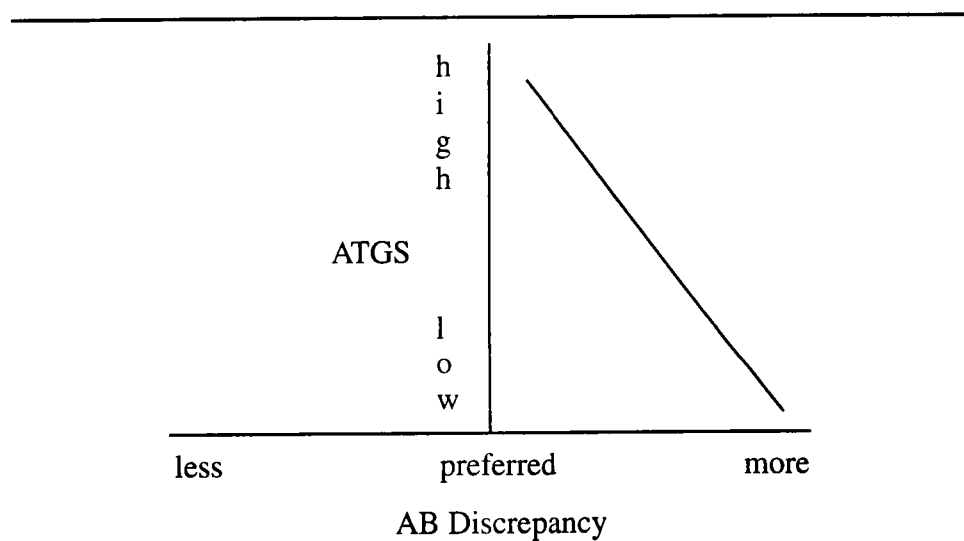


Figure 2

The Relationship Between Attraction to Group-Social and the Discrepancy in Autocratic Behavior

which indicated authoritarian leadership would produce negative consequences for the subordinates.

Problem 2:

Relationships Among Discrepancy Scores and Leadership Satisfaction

In analyzing the collected data, a pairwise correlation analysis, and a stepwise regression analysis were used in order to determine whether or not the leader discrepancy scores were related to their respective satisfaction factors. Figures were used to represent the relationships between certain factors, but it should be noted that these figures were only representations and not the actual plotted data.

Results

The pairwise correlation analysis demonstrated that none of the discrepancy scores significantly correlated with the general satisfaction score ($p > .05$). Also in using a stepwise regression analysis, general satisfaction was not found to be significantly related to any of the discrepancy scores ($p > .05$). This is in contrast to Schliesman's (1985) findings that democratic behavior and social support were related to general satisfaction of leadership.

By using the pairwise correlation analysis some significant correlations were found between discrepancy scores and their respective specific satisfaction factors (Table 4). The discrepancy scores for autocratic behavior negatively correlated with the specific satisfaction scores of autocratic behavior ($p = .01$). The discrepancy scores for democratic behavior positively correlated with its specific satisfaction ($p = .02$), and the discrepancy for rewarding behavior positively correlated with the respective specific satisfaction ($p = .02$). The other discrepancy scores and their corresponding

Table 4

Pearson Correlation Coefficients Among Leader Behavior Discrepancy Scores and Their Corresponding Satisfaction Scores

Leader Behavior Factors	<u>p</u>	<u>r</u>	<u>r</u> ²
Training and instruction	.08	.34	.11
Autocratic behavior	.01	-.49	.24
Democratic behavior	.02	.44	.19
Social support	.87	-.03	.008
Rewarding behavior	.02	.45	.24

N = 29

satisfaction scores did not produce significant relationships with p values of less than .05 (Table 4).

Discussion

The fact that the discrepancy scores for autocratic behavior negatively correlated with its specific satisfaction scores (Figure 3) indicated that as coaches were perceived to give more autocratic behavior than what the athletes desired, the less satisfied the athletes became with that aspect of the coach's behavior. In reverse, when the discrepancy was small, the satisfaction was high. This result supports Yukl's (1971) discrepancy model and Chelladurai's (1990) contingency model. However, the result of this study with female volleyball players was contrary to what Schliesman (1985) found with male track athletes, i.e., that autocratic behavior discrepancy had no significant relationship to the respective specific satisfaction of that behavior.

The overall preference for autocratic behavior was low in comparison to the volleyball players' preference of the other behaviors (Table 1), which indicated that these athletes wanted a low level of autocratic behavior, and did not want that level to be exceeded. This finding supports House's (1971) path-goal theory, which indicated that autocratic leadership leads to dissatisfaction among subordinates, and Chelladurai's (1990) contingency theory which discussed the need for congruence among athlete's needs and leadership behavior.

On the other hand, in examining the positive correlation between discrepancy scores for democratic behavior and the specific satisfaction for that construct, it was determined that as the discrepancy increased, so did the satisfaction (Figure 4). When the mean discrepancy score for this construct (Table 1) was examined, it was noted that the discrepancy was negative, thus the players were receiving less democratic behavior

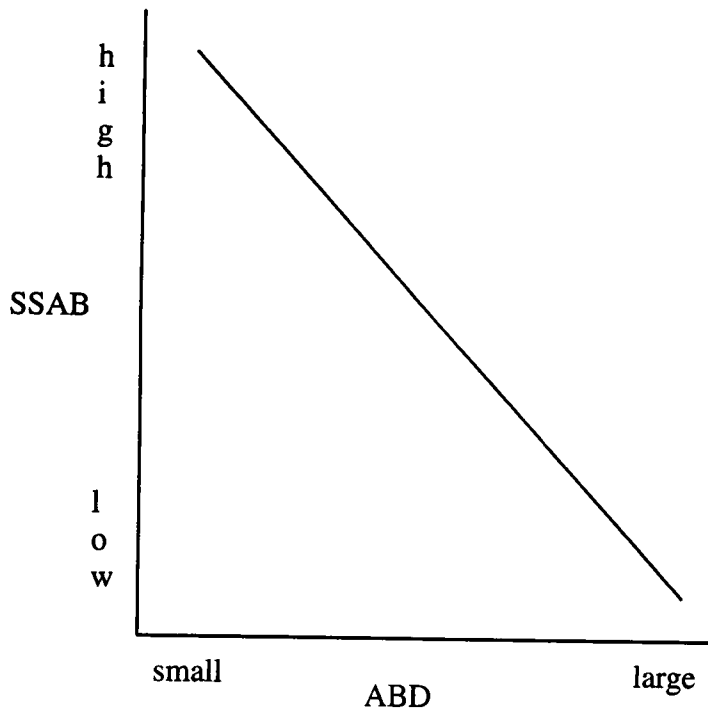


Figure 3

The Relationship Between Specific Satisfaction with Autocratic Behavior
and the Discrepancy in Autocratic Behavior

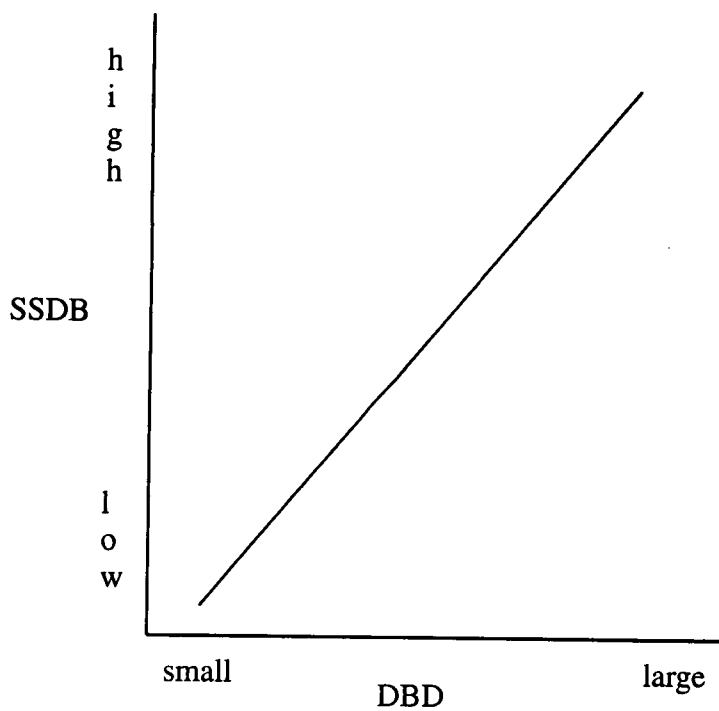


Figure 4

The Relationship Between Specific Satisfaction with Democratic
Behavior and the Discrepancy in Democratic Behavior

than they preferred in general. The analysis suggests that as the athletes received less democratic behavior than they desired, the more satisfied they became with that behavior in their coach. Conversely, these athletes became less satisfied as they received the amount of democratic behavior closer to what they actually preferred. This is in direct opposition to Yukl's (1971) discrepancy model, which suggests that as the leader behavior approaches the preferred amount, satisfaction level should increase for the athletes. Both of these factors provided support for Chelladurai's (1990) contingency model and the importance of considering the multidimensionality of the constructs of group dynamics in sport. Schliesman's (1985) study had different situational (sport) characteristics and different athlete (gender) characteristics than the present study, and Yukl's (1971) discrepancy model was designed to explain phenomena in all situations under any condition.

Finally, when the relationship between the discrepancy scores of rewarding behavior and specific satisfaction with rewarding behaviors of the coach were examined, it was noted that as the discrepancy increased, so did the satisfaction (Figure 5). In other words, as the actual behaviors of the coaches were further away from the preferences of the athlete, the more satisfied they were. Schliesman (1985) found no significant relationship between this leader behavior factor and its satisfaction. This finding was in opposition to Yukl's (1971) discrepancy model, and once again supported Chelladurai's (1990) considerations for multidimensional perspectives.

In looking closer at the data, it was noted that the mean discrepancy score was a positive one for this construct (Table 1), thus showing that as the coaches gave more rewarding behavior to the athletes, the more satisfied the athletes were. This analysis supported Chelladurai's (1980) ideas that: (a) high amounts of consideration behavior

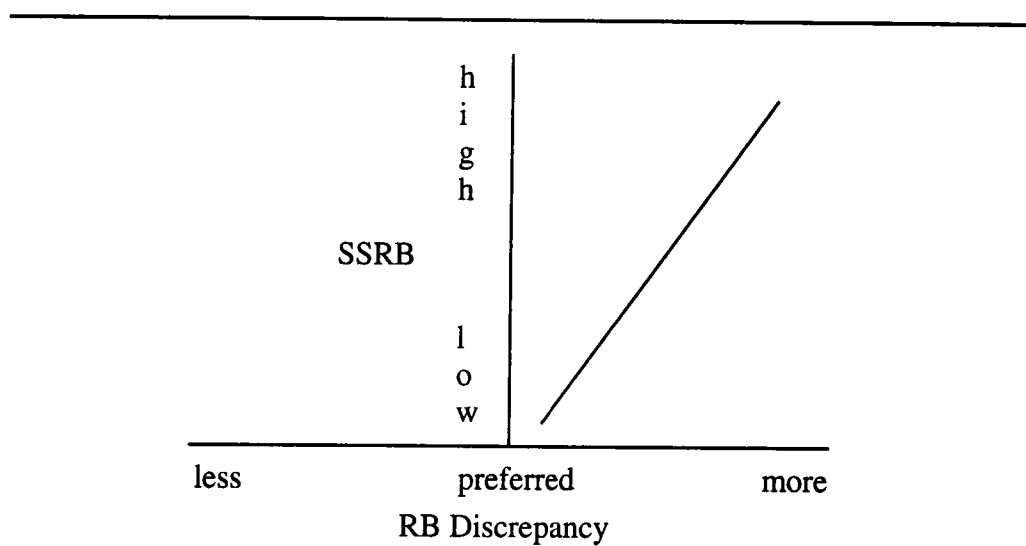


Figure 5
The Relationship Between Specific Satisfaction with Rewarding Behavior and
the Dicrepancy in Rewarding Behavior

by the coach are needed in university athletics, and (b) athletes don't always know what is ideal for them (Chelladurai, 1990).

Problem 3:

Relationships Among Satisfaction Scores and Cohesion Constructs

In analyzing the collected data, a pairwise correlation analysis, and a stepwise regression analysis were used in order to determine whether or not the constructs of cohesion had significant relationships with satisfaction with leader behavior factors.

Results

The evaluation of the pairwise correlation analysis demonstrated that nearly all of the satisfaction scores were significantly related to the cohesion constructs (Table 5). General satisfaction with leadership significantly correlated with GIT, GIS, and ATGS. It was not, however, significantly correlated with ATGT (Table 5). The stepwise regression analysis (Table 6) revealed that general satisfaction with leadership behavior related with GIT and ATGS to the extent that together they accounted for 48% of the variability in general satisfaction ($p = .02$).

The pairwise correlation revealed specific satisfaction with training and instruction related to GIT, ATGT, and ATGS, but not with GIS, and ATGT (Table 5). Specific satisfaction with autocratic behavior significantly correlated with GIT, GIS, ATGT, and ATGS (Table 5). Democratic behavior was also significantly correlated with GIT, GIS, ATGT, and ATGS (Table 5). Social support was significantly correlated with ATGT and ATGS, but not with GIT and GIS (Table 5). Finally, rewarding behavior was significantly correlated with GIT, GIS, ATGT, and ATGS (Table 5).

Table 5

Pearson Correlation Coefficients Among Satisfaction Factors and Cohesion Components

Satisfaction Categories	GIT		GIS		ATGT		ATGS	
	<u>p</u>	<u>r</u>	<u>p</u>	<u>r</u>	<u>p</u>	<u>r</u>	<u>p</u>	<u>r</u>
General leadership	.0007	.59	.05	.36	.07	.34	.0005	.61
Training and instruction	.02	.43	.08	.32	.0007	.59	.0005	.61
Autocratic behavior	.001	.58	.04	.38	.02	.43	.01	.46
Democratic behavior	.003	.52	.02	.44	.01	.45	.02	.42
Social Support	.15	.27	.08	.33	.0007	.49	.02	.43
Rewarding behavior	.02	.44	.03	.40	.0006	.49	.01	.47

N = 29

Table 6

Relationships of Team Cohesion and General Satisfaction

	<u>R²</u>	<u>p</u>
GIT	.48	.02
ATGS	.48	.018

all other p values > .05

The stepwise regression analyses revealed only one factor was significantly brought in to account for relationships among specific satisfaction factors and each construct of cohesion (Table 7). First, it was demonstrated for GIS that the most significantly related specific leadership satisfaction factor was democratic behavior. Next, the data revealed that for GIT, the most significantly related specific leadership satisfaction factor was autocratic behavior. Finally, for ATGS and ATGT, the most significantly related specific leadership satisfaction factor was training and instruction (Table 7). No second factors were significantly ($p \leq .05$) brought into the regression models for any of the four cohesion factors.

Discussion

The overall results suggested that, general and specific satisfaction with leader behavior and group cohesion are important to one another. General leadership satisfaction significantly correlated with all of the cohesion constructs except attraction to group-task. In looking at the stepwise regression analysis for satisfaction with general leadership behavior (Table 6), it can be observed that group integration-task and individual attraction to group-social were most closely related to general satisfaction with leadership. GIT was brought in first, and ATGS was brought in second. This suggests group integration related to task factors was more important to general satisfaction, than was the attraction to the group for social considerations. Group integration-task reflects on how the group, as a whole, deals with task and goals with the team, meaning that as the subjects of this study felt close as a unit in dealing with tasks, they also were satisfied with leadership in general. Attraction to group-social reflects on how the individual feels about the social aspects of the team. The data indicated that as this feeling was more positive so was the feelings for the general

Table 7

Correlation Among Cohesion Constructs and Specific Leadership Satisfaction Factors

Satisfaction Categories	Cohesion Constructs							
	GIS		GIT		ATGT		ATGS	
	<u>p</u>	<u>R²</u>	<u>p</u>	<u>R²</u>	<u>p</u>	<u>R²</u>	<u>p</u>	<u>R²</u>
Training and instruction					.0007	.35	.0005	.37
Autocratic behavior			.001	.33				
Democratic behavior	.01	.19						
Social support								
Rewarding behavior								
All other p values > .05								

leadership satisfaction. These findings support Chelladurai's (1990) contingency model, where situational characteristics influence the dynamics of the player/coach relationship.

There were a few specific satisfaction scores which did not correlate with some cohesion components (Table 5). In examining the specific satisfaction areas that did not correlate to certain constructs of cohesion, a few observations were made. First, satisfaction with social support was not important to these athletes when it came to the group integration aspects of cohesion. This suggests that their feelings about the similarity, closeness, and bonding within the team did not relate to whether they were satisfied with how well the coach indicated concern for the athletes and their personal welfare.

Specific satisfaction with training and instruction also did not correlate with the social aspect of group integration (Table 5), which indicated, that the satisfaction of the athletes with the coaches' ability to facilitate improvement of skills and encourage task and goal achievement did not relate to how the individuals felt about the group as an interacting social unit. This contradicted the path goal theory (1971), in that structure should be beneficial for the subordinates' social condition. Although there is general support for House throughout this study, this was an exception to his path goal theory (1971).

Finally, satisfaction with leadership in general did not correlate with the athletes' attraction to the group as it pertained to matters of task. This indicated that the degree to which the athletes were satisfied with their coaches, did not relate to how they desired to be a part of the group as it concerned the activities, productivity, and goals at hand. General satisfaction was the only satisfaction measurement which did not

correlate with both aspects of the athletes' attraction to the group (ATGS, ATGT), meaning that to these athletes, the overall satisfaction with the coaches' leadership behavior did not affect their attractions, as individuals, to the group for either task or socially related reasons.

It was observed that attraction to group-social and attraction to group-task, both significantly correlated with all the specific satisfaction factors (Table 6). Both of these constructs dealt with the individual's attraction to the group, rather than group integration. This demonstrated that the individuals' feelings of attraction to the group were possibly more important than their feelings for group integration, when it came to satisfaction with specific factors of leader behavior. This individual attraction to the group could have possibly been derived from the satisfaction, which the athletes received from the coach. In other words, satisfaction with the coaches' specific behaviors might have produced the feelings of attraction to the group for the athlete, which supports Chelladurai's (1991) contingency model and House's (1971) path-goal theory of the satisfaction of the leader producing an optimum setting for work.

According to the stepwise regression analysis concerning the relationship between GIS and democratic behavior, and GIT and autocratic behavior, it was noted that both of these group integration constructs were most related to decision making behaviors of the leader (Table 7). The social aspect of group integration (GIS) was most related to the athletes' satisfaction with the decision making behaviors of their coaches (Table 7), which dealt with sharing the responsibilities of leadership and choices. Whereas, the task aspect of group integration (GIT) was most related with the athletes' satisfaction with decision making behaviors of their coaches, which dealt with the coaches making independent decisions. This second finding demonstrated support

for House's (1971) path-goal theory which stated that leader initiated structure results in a positive social environment for settings where tasks need to be defined and ambiguities need to be removed. The two findings combined emphasize the importance of satisfaction with decision making styles as they relate to the group integration of the team for different purposes, once again supporting the importance of the multidimensional perspective of Chelladurai's (1990) contingency model.

In reference to the other two findings by the stepwise regression analysis, both aspects of the individuals' attraction to the group (social and task) were most significantly related to the specific leadership satisfaction factor of training and instruction (Table 7). These findings indicated that as the athletes were more satisfied with training and instruction, they in turn were more attracted to their respective teams. Training and instruction was the most preferred leader behavior factor for these athletes, between often and always, (Table 1), and according to the analysis, when they were satisfied with that specific leadership behavior, their feelings of group cohesion increased with respect to their personal attraction for both social (ATGS) and task (ATGT) purposes. Training and instruction is the ability of the coach to teach the skills and strategies of the game, and, according to the findings, this was the most important factor in the individuals' attraction to their teams, demonstrating the importance of the coaches' abilities to teach to cohesion. These two findings support Chelladurai's (1990) contingency model which explained the importance of the competence of the coach to convey the skills of the game to the athletes.

In looking at the rest of the relationships for this problem (Table 5), one can see a strong, overall relationship between athlete satisfaction in leadership and group cohesion. All but four of the relationship values were significant ($p \leq .05$). This

supports the ideas of Carron (1988), and Parington and Shangi (1992) that team cohesion is a multidimensional construct which has many influencing forces acting on it. It also supports House's (1971) path-goal theory which considers the leader-subordinate relationship an important factor in contributing to cohesion. This present study has shown that group cohesion is highly related to the satisfaction of the athletes with behaviors of the coach. As was stated before, no other known literature has studied this relationship between leadership satisfaction and group cohesion.

Summary

This present study revealed cohesion constructs to be highly related to the athletes' satisfaction with the coaches' general leadership and his/her behaviors of training and instruction, autocratic behavior, democratic behavior, social support, and rewarding behavior, which says that the coach probably does make a difference in how much the team bonds. In creating an atmosphere in which the athletes are happy with their leadership behavior, the coach may be able to facilitate a higher degree of team cohesion, which most research indicates is advantageous for success (Brawley, Carron, & Widmeyer, 1988, Carron, Widmeyer, & Brawley, 1985, Kim & Sugiyama, 1992, and Spink, 1990).

Yukl's (1971) discrepancy theory was only partially supported by the findings in problem 2. Autocratic behavior discrepancy was the only leader factor to follow the discrepancy model. The other two discrepancy factors that significantly correlated with their respective satisfaction measurements (democratic behaviors and rewarding behaviors) demonstrated a relationship which was in opposition to Yukl's (1971) theory.

In reviewing the findings of this study, some general ideas can be drawn. Cohesion appeared to be significantly related to the athletes' satisfaction with the coaches' leadership (problem 3), which supports House's (1971) theory on the influence of a leader on the dynamics of a group, and Chelladurai's (1990) application of that to sport. More specifically, it was demonstrated that general leadership satisfaction was most closely related to the groups' integration concerning task and the individuals' attraction to the group concerning social manners. In terms of specific leadership behavior satisfaction, it was demonstrated that satisfaction with the two decision making styles were the most closely related factors to group integration (democratic behavior with social, and autocratic behavior with task). The individuals' attraction to the group concerning social and task matters were most closely related to the satisfaction of training and instruction of the coaches. However, related to problem 2, discrepancy between preferred and actual leader behavior was not generally related to athlete satisfaction, as suggested by Yukl (1971). In fact, only one leadership behavior factor (autocratic behavior) significantly correlated in the theorized with its respective satisfaction factor. Finally, relating to problem 1, team cohesion was not related to the discrepancy between preferred and actual leadership behaviors. According to the stepwise regression analysis, only one discrepancy score (rewarding behavior) significantly correlated with a cohesion construct (attraction to group-social).

Finally, it was observed that the need to consider Chelladurai's (1990) multidimensional model for the player/coach relationship is essential. As was revealed, leader behavior, player preference, and satisfaction, along with situational factors and personal characteristics, all contribute the relationship between the coach and his/her

players. Without this multidimensional approach, factors may be overlooked, and significant contributing forces might not be examined.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY

The purpose of this study was to determine if leader behavior affected the cohesion of a group. In testing this, House's (1971) path-goal theory was used as a model, as it stated that a leader's behavior affected the dynamics of a group in cohesion and performance. Yukl's (1971) discrepancy model was the framework by which this study formed its basis for investigating satisfaction of leader behavior and its effect on the cohesion of the group. The three problems presented interrelated the three concepts of cohesion, leader behavior, and leader satisfaction. The three problems were: (a) is cohesion related to the discrepancies in preferred and actual leader behavior, (b) is satisfaction with leadership related to the discrepancies found in preferred and actual leader behavior, and (c) is satisfaction with leader behavior related to cohesion. The four constructs of cohesion that were measured were: (a) group integration-social, (b) group integration-task, (c) individual attraction to group-social, and (d) individual attraction to group-task. The two aspects of leader behavior that were studied were: (a) satisfaction with general leadership and (b) satisfaction with specific leader behaviors. The five specific leader behaviors which were measured were: (a) training and instruction, (b) autocratic behavior, (c) democratic behavior, (d) social support, and (c) rewarding behavior.

Twenty nine female university level volleyball players responded to: (a) preferred and perceived Leadership Scale for Sports (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1980), (b) General and Specific Leadership Satisfaction Scales (Schliesman, 1985), and (c) the Group Environmental Questionnaire (Carron, Widmeyer, & Brawley, 1985). Each of the constructs of cohesion were compiled, as well as were the factors of leadership

behavior. Discrepancy scores were derived by subtracting the perception score of the LSS from the corresponding preferred score. In performing statistical analysis on the different data it was shown that for problem 1 the cohesion construct of attraction to group social was significantly related to the discrepancy values of the leader behaviors of autocratic behavior and rewarding behavior. Concerning problem 2, it was shown that satisfaction with autocratic, democratic and rewarding behavior all related to their corresponding discrepancy scores. Finally, in problem 3, it was demonstrated that the only factors that did not significantly correlate were: (a) general leadership satisfaction with attraction to group-task, (b) training and instruction with group integration-social, and (c) social support with group integration-task and social. All other factors were significantly correlated.

Conclusions

On the basis of the data in this study, the following conclusions were drawn for the 29 female university level volleyball players.

1. The general concept of cohesion is not related to the discrepancy in preferred and perceived/actual leader behaviors, although a relationship was shown between the factors of attraction to group-social and autocratic and rewarding behavior.

2. Discrepancy between preferred and perceived/actual leader behaviors for the factors of autocratic, democratic, and rewarding behaviors demonstrated significant correlation with their respective satisfaction factors. Autocratic behavior demonstrated a relationship that reflected the idea that as the discrepancy decreases, the athlete's satisfaction will increase. Democratic and rewarding behavior demonstrated a relationship that reflected the idea that as discrepancy increases, so does satisfaction.

3. The general concepts of cohesion and leader satisfaction (general and specific) showed an overall positive relationship, although the following did not show significant relationships: (a) the factor of general leadership with the athletes' attraction to the group in matters of task, (b) the factor of training and instruction with the social aspect of the athletes' group integration, and (c) the factor of social support with the aspects of either task or social group integration.

Implications

The implications of the present study are both theoretical and practical. First, theoretically, Yukl's (1971) discrepancy model was, generally, not supported by the results of this study. It could have been that the instruments measuring discrepancy and satisfaction were not reliable, however they have been proven in the past. The fact that Yukl's (1971) discrepancy model is dated in the early 1970's suggests that it might not allow for the changes brought about by: (a) the women's movement, (b) the better understanding of gender differences in leadership preferences and satisfaction, and (c) the development of multidimensional models explaining leader/subordinate dynamics. Also, Chelladurai's (1990) idea that athletes don't always know what is best for them helps to explain the situation a little clearer. A sport related theory concerning discrepancy and satisfaction might need to be developed through a review of the literature and further studies.

House's (1971) path-goal theory and Chelladurai's (1990) contingency model were, generally supported by the present study. The idea that the satisfaction of the coaches' behavior, by the athletes, was only reinforced by the present findings.

Researchers should be able to use this information to better understand group cohesion, leader behavior, and satisfaction. It is apparent, by the findings of this

study, that satisfaction of the athletes is closely related to their feelings of cohesion, and further research into this matter should be performed. As well, satisfaction of the athlete, in reference to leadership behavior, should be incorporated into the multidimensional concept of team cohesion.

Coaches should be able to apply the findings of this study to their behavior on the court or field. By reviewing the descriptive statistics, a coach can see the degrees of leader behaviors these female volleyball players preferred. In understanding this data and how the different concepts are related, a coach may want to adjust his/her behavior accordingly. However, it should be noted that athletes do not always have the correct judgment when it comes to proper behavior for the coach (Chelladurai, 1990), thereby providing some caution to the immediate application of these findings. Finally, by reviewing this study, a coach can see the implications of his/her behavior on the satisfaction and cohesion of the athletes.

Recommendations

On the basis of the data in this study, the following recommendations were offered:

1. A survey of a greater number of athletes from many different sports should be done in order to gain a broader test sample.
2. Perform this analysis on a variety of athletes from different sports in order to gain a better understanding of how different types of sports influence how the player-coach relationship works.
3. Apply this study to male athletes for comparison of gender differences.
4. Study the effects of different gender coaches on athletes using the same method of testing.

5. Create a qualitative study in order to possibly gain new insight into the relationships of these constructs. A qualitative study would not limit the subjects to the range of answers, which could allow for a better understanding of the subject.

6. Create a new cohesion model, which incorporates the satisfaction of the athletes with the coach.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A
LETTER OF REQUEST TO PARTICIPATE

January 27, 1994

Dear Coach:

The purpose of this letter is to request the cooperation of NCAA Division I Women's volleyball coaches and their teams for a thesis study examining the relationship between the coaches behavior and the cohesion of the team.

Participation in this study would involve a time commitment of approximately 45 minutes for the athletes to fill out 3 questionnaires on team cohesion and behaviors of the coach. The team managers should administer all questionnaires. Individual human subject's approval will be requested at the time the questionnaires are to be completed. Each player will have the right to complete or to refuse. No specific team or individual results will be identified.

Research exploring cohesion and team leadership is needed in athletics in order to better understand the needs of the players, and how coaches can meet those needs, thus increasing team cohesion. Cohesion as most would believe adds to the overall performance of the team, and is greatly desired for a smooth running season. If you would be willing to participate, please detach and return the completed information sheet in the provided self-addressed envelope by February 10. A questionnaire packet will then be sent to you within 10 days.

Thank you very much. I am looking forward to working with you and your team.

Sincerely,

Christopher D. Willis
Dr. Patricia Beitel, Advisor

Date _____

Yes, I would be willing to participate in this leader/cohesion study.

Head Coach _____

Sex: M F

School _____

Number of team members _____

Return to: Chris Willis

HPSS

University of Tennessee

Knoxville, TN 37996

APPENDIX B
CONSENT FORM

ATHLETE'S INFORMED CONSENT

PURPOSE

I understand that the purpose of this study is to determine if there are relationships among coaching behaviors and team cohesion.

BENEFITS AND RISKS

I understand that I will complete three survey forms which will take approximately 30 minutes.

I confirm that my participation as a subject is entirely voluntary. No coercion of any kind has been used to obtain my cooperation. I understand that neither my team membership nor standing is dependent upon participation in this study.

I understand that I may withdraw my consent and terminate my participation at any time without penalty.

I understand that no athlete's names, team names, nor schools will be used and the code number on the answer sheets is only to identify and interrelate the several answer sheets for each person.

I understand that all my responses and scores will remain completely confidential, and that completion of the demographic questionnaire and the subsequent three forms indicate my consent.

APPENDIX C
DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRE

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

DATE: __/__/__

ID: _____

AGE: _____

NUMBER OF SEMESTERS AT PRESENT SCHOOL: _____

SEMESTERS OF INVOLVEMENT WITH PRESENT TEAM: _____

YEARS PLAYING VOLLEYBALL: _____

WAS YOUR TEAM INVOLVED IN THE POST SEASON TOURNAMENT IN 1993?

YES _____, NO _____ NCAA or NIT

HOW FAR DID YOUR TEAM PROGRESS? _____

APPENDIX D
LEADERSHIP SCALE FOR SPORTS
(PREFERRED VERSION)

LEADERSHIP SCALE FOR SPORTS (PREFERENCE VERSION)
(Chelladurai & Saleh, 1980)

Each of the following statements describes specific behavior that a coach may exhibit. For each statement there are five alternatives:

1. ALWAYS
2. OFTEN (about 75% of the time)
3. OCCASIONALLY (about 50% of the time)
4. SELDOM (about 25% of the time)
5. NEVER

Please indicate your preference by placing an "X" in the appropriate space. Answer all items even if you are unsure of any. Please note that this is not an evaluation of your present coach or any other coach. It is you own personal preference that is required. There are no right or wrong answers. Your spontaneous and honest response is important for the success of this study.

ID #: _____

1 2 3 4 5

I prefer my coach:

- | | | | | | | |
|--|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|----|
| 1. See to it that athletes work to capacity. | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | 1 |
| 2. Ask for the opinion of the athletes on the strategies or specific competitions. | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | 2 |
| 3. Help athletes with their personal problems. | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | 3 |
| 4. Compliment an athlete for good performance in front of others. | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | 4 |
| 5. Explain to each athlete the techniques and tactics of the sport. | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | 5 |
| 6. Plan relatively independent of the athletes | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | 6 |
| 7. Help members of the group settle their conflicts. | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | 7 |
| 8. Pay special attention to correcting athlete's mistake. | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | 8 |
| 9. Get group approval on important matters before going ahead. | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | 9 |
| 10. Tell an athlete when the athlete does a particularly good job. | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | 10 |

1. ALWAYS
2. OFTEN (about 75% of the time)
3. OCCASIONALLY (about 50% of the time)
4. SELDOM (about 25% of the time)
5. NEVER

	1	2	3	4	5	
11. Make sure that the coach's function in the team is understood by all the athletes.	—	—	—	—	—	11
12. Not explain his/her actions.	—	—	—	—	—	12
13. Look out for the personal welfare of the athletes.	—	—	—	—	—	13
14. Instruct every athlete individually in the skills of the sport.	—	—	—	—	—	14
15. Let the athletes share in the decision making.	—	—	—	—	—	15
16. See that an athlete is rewarded for good performance.	—	—	—	—	—	16
17. Figure ahead on what should be done.	—	—	—	—	—	17
18. Encourage athletes to make suggestions for ways to conduct practices.	—	—	—	—	—	18
19. Do personal favors for the athletes	—	—	—	—	—	19
20. Explain to every athlete what should be done and what should not be done.	—	—	—	—	—	20
21. Let the athletes set their own goals.	—	—	—	—	—	21
22. Express any affection felt for the athletes.	—	—	—	—	—	22
23. Expect every athlete to carry out one's assignment to the last detail.	—	—	—	—	—	23
24. Let the athletes try their own way even if they make mistakes.	—	—	—	—	—	24
25. Encourage the athlete to confide on the coach.	—	—	—	—	—	25
26. Point out each athlete's strengths and weaknesses.	—	—	—	—	—	26

1. ALWAYS
2. OFTEN (about 75% of the time)
3. OCCASIONALLY (about 50% of the time)
4. SELDOM (about 25% of the time)
5. NEVER

	1	2	3	4	5	
27. Refuse to compromise on a point.	—	—	—	—	—	27
28. Express appreciation when an athlete performs well.	—	—	—	—	—	28
29. Give specific instructions to each athlete on what should be done in every situation.	—	—	—	—	—	29
30. Ask for the opinion of the athletes on important coaching matters.	—	—	—	—	—	30
31. Encourage close and informal relations with athletes.	—	—	—	—	—	31
32. See to it that the athlete's efforts are coordinated.	—	—	—	—	—	32
33. Let the athletes work at their own speed.	—	—	—	—	—	33
34. Keep aloof from the athletes.	—	—	—	—	—	34
35. Explain how each athlete's contribution fits into the total picture.	—	—	—	—	—	35
36. Invite the athletes home.	—	—	—	—	—	36
37. Give credit when it is due.	—	—	—	—	—	37
38. Specify in detail what is expected of athletes.	—	—	—	—	—	38
39. Let the athletes decide on plays to be used in a game.	—	—	—	—	—	39
40. Speaks in a manner which discourages questions.	—	—	—	—	—	40

APPENDIX E
LEADERSHIP SCALE FOR SPORT
(ACTUAL PERCEIVED VERSION)

LEADERSHIP SCALE FOR SPORTS (PERCEIVED VERSION)
(Chelladurai & Saleh, 1980)

Each of the following statements describes specific behavior that a coach may exhibit. For each statement there are five alternatives:

1. ALWAYS
2. OFTEN (about 75% of the time)
3. OCCASIONALLY (about 50% of the time)
4. SELDOM (about 25% of the time)
5. NEVER

Please indicate your observations by placing an "X" in the appropriate space. Answer all items even if you are unsure of any. Please remember that your responses are meant to reflect your observations of your coach. There are no right or wrong answers.

ID #: _____

1 2 3 4 5

My coach:

- | | | | | | | |
|--|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|----|
| 1. Sees to it that athletes work to capacity. | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | 1 |
| 2. Asks for the opinion of the athletes on the strategies for specific competitions. | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | 2 |
| 3. Helps athletes with their personal problems. | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | 3 |
| 4. Compliments an athlete for good performance in front of others. | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | 4 |
| 5. Explains to each athlete the techniques and tactics of the sport. | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | 5 |
| 6. Plans relatively independent of the athletes. | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | 6 |
| 7. Helps members of the group settle their conflicts. | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | 7 |
| 8. Pays special attention to correcting athlete's mistakes. | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | 8 |
| 9. Gets group approval on important matters before going ahead. | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | 9 |
| 10. Tells an athlete when the athlete does a particularly good job. | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | ___ | 10 |

1. ALWAYS
2. OFTEN (about 75% of the time)
3. OCCASIONALLY (about 50% of the time)
4. SELDOM (about 25% of the time)
5. NEVER

	1	2	3	4	5	
11. Makes sure that the coach's function in the team is understood by all the athletes.	—	—	—	—	—	11
12. Does not explain his/her actions.	—	—	—	—	—	12
13. Looks out for the personal welfare of the athletes.	—	—	—	—	—	13
14. Instructs every athlete individually in the skills of the sport.	—	—	—	—	—	14
15. Lets the athletes share in the decision making.	—	—	—	—	—	15
16. Sees that an athlete is rewarded for good performance.	—	—	—	—	—	16
17. Figures ahead on what should be done.	—	—	—	—	—	17
18. Encourages athletes to make suggestions for ways to conduct practices.	—	—	—	—	—	18
19. Does personal favors for the athletes	—	—	—	—	—	19
20 Explains to every athlete what should be done and what should not be done.	—	—	—	—	—	20
21. Lets the athletes set their own goals.	—	—	—	—	—	21
22. Expresses any affection felt for the athletes.	—	—	—	—	—	22
23. Expects every athlete to carry out one's assignment to the last detail.	—	—	—	—	—	23
24. Lets the athletes try their own way even if they make mistakes.	—	—	—	—	—	24
25. Encourages the athlete to confide on the coach.	—	—	—	—	—	25

1. ALWAYS
2. OFTEN (about 75% of the time)
3. OCCASIONALLY (about 50% of the time)
4. SELDOM (about 25% of the time)
5. NEVER

	1	2	3	4	5	
26. Points out each athlete's strengths and weaknesses.	___	___	___	___	___	26
27. Refuses to compromise on a point.	___	___	___	___	___	27
28. Expresses appreciation when an athlete performs well.	___	___	___	___	___	28
29. Gives specific instructions to each athlete on what should be done in every situation.	___	___	___	___	___	29
30. Asks for the opinion of the athletes on important coaching matters.	___	___	___	___	___	30
31. Encourages close and informal relations with athletes.	___	___	___	___	___	31
32. Sees to it that the athlete's efforts are coordinated.	___	___	___	___	___	32
33. Lets the athletes work at their own speed.	___	___	___	___	___	33
34. Keeps aloof from the athletes.	___	___	___	___	___	34
35. Explains how each athlete's contribution fits into the total picture.	___	___	___	___	___	35
36. Invites the athletes home.	___	___	___	___	___	36
37. Gives credit when it is due.	___	___	___	___	___	37
38. Specifies in detail what is expected of athletes.	___	___	___	___	___	38
39. Lets the athletes decide on plays to be used in a game.	___	___	___	___	___	39
40. Speaks in a manner which discourages questions.	___	___	___	___	___	40

APPENDIX F
GROUP ENVIRONMENTAL QUESTIONNAIRE

GROUP ENVIRONMENTAL QUESTIONNAIRE

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

ID #: _____

1. I do not enjoy being a part of the social activities of this team.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
STRONGLY							STRONGLY	
DISAGREE							AGREE	

2. I'm not happy with the amount of playing time I get.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
STRONGLY							STRONGLY	
DISAGREE							AGREE	

3. I am not going to miss the members of this team when the season ends.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
STRONGLY							STRONGLY	
DISAGREE							AGREE	

4. I'm unhappy with my team's level of desire to win.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
STRONGLY							STRONGLY	
DISAGREE							AGREE	

5. Some of my best friends are on this team.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
STRONGLY							STRONGLY	
DISAGREE							AGREE	

6. This team does not give me enough opportunities to improve my personal performance.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
STRONGLY							STRONGLY	
DISAGREE							AGREE	

7. I enjoy other parties more than team parties.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
STRONGLY DISAGREE							STRONGLY AGREE	

8. I do not like the style of play on this team.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
STRONGLY DISAGREE							STRONGLY AGREE	

9. For me this team is one of the most important social groups to which I belong.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
STRONGLY DISAGREE							STRONGLY AGREE	

10. Our team is united in trying to reach its goals for performance.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
STRONGLY DISAGREE							STRONGLY AGREE	

11. Members of our team would rather go out on their own than get together as a team.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
STRONGLY DISAGREE							STRONGLY AGREE	

12. We all take responsibility for any loss or poor performance by our team.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
STRONGLY DISAGREE							STRONGLY AGREE	

13. Our team members rarely party together.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
STRONGLY DISAGREE							STRONGLY AGREE	

14. Our team members have conflicting aspirations for the team's performance.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
STRONGLY DISAGREE							STRONGLY AGREE	

15. Our team would like to spend time together in the off season.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
STRONGLY							STRONGLY	
DISAGREE							AGREE	

16. If members of our team have problems in practice, everyone wants to help them so we can get back together again.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
STRONGLY							STRONGLY	
DISAGREE							AGREE	

17. Members of our team do not stick together outside of practices and games.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
STRONGLY							STRONGLY	
DISAGREE							AGREE	

18. Our team members do not communicate freely about each athlete's responsibilities during competition or practice.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
STRONGLY							STRONGLY	
DISAGREE							AGREE	

APPENDIX G
GENERAL AND SPECIFIC SATISFACTION SCALES

GENERAL LEADERSHIP (COACHING) SATISFACTION

How satisfied are you with the leadership you received?

CHECK ONE

- ____ 1. VERY DISSATISFIED
- ____ 2. MODERATELY DISSATISFIED
- ____ 3. SLIGHTLY DISSATISFIED
- ____ 4. NEUTRAL
- ____ 5. SLIGHTLY SATISFIED
- ____ 6. MODERATELY SATISFIED
- ____ 7. VERY SATISFIED

SPECIFIC LEADERSHIP SATISFACTION

Each of the following questions asks about your satisfaction with the leadership of your coach. For each question there are seven alternatives:

1. Very dissatisfied
2. Moderately dissatisfied
3. Slightly dissatisfied
4. Neutral
5. Slightly satisfied
6. Moderately satisfied
7. Very satisfied

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

1. How satisfied are you with the training and instruction you received from your coach? _____
2. How satisfied are you with the social support you received from your coach? _____
3. How satisfied are you with the positive feedback you received from your coach? _____
4. How satisfied are you with your role in the team decision making process? _____
5. How satisfied are you with the degree of authority exercised by your coach? _____

APPENDIX F
INSTRUCTIONS

INSTRUCTIONS

TO THE TEST ADMINISTRATOR:

It is imperative to the accuracy of this study that you administer these questionnaires as instructed. The head coach is not allowed to be present at the time the players are completing the questionnaires. Do not allow talking while the players are working on their forms.

1. Distribute the questionnaire packets according to the names on the labels. If there are extra packets, return them with the completed forms. If there is a player who does not have a packet with her name on it, but is eligible to participate in the study (played Fall 1993), give her one of the extras.
PLEASE READ THE FOLLOWING INSTRUCTIONS TO YOUR TEAM MEMBERS:
2. "Please do not proceed to any of the questionnaires out of the order that they were given to you. Complete one questionnaire at a time, filling out both the front and the back. Now, read the consent form with me." Proceed to read the consent form with them. If there are no questions, continue.
3. Next, read the statement below:

"Please read carefully the instructions at the top of each questionnaire before you complete it. During this test, do not discuss the questions or your answers with your teammates. Please remember there are no right or wrong answers, and that your answers are meant to reflect your attitudes and feelings. Answer honestly, and do not forget to fill out the demographic information on the back of the consent form."
(Allow 25-35 minutes for completion).
4. After each player has completed her questionnaires, collect them, place the completed forms, along with this sheet, in the return envelope and put it in the mail as soon as possible.

Name of individual administering the test _____

Position with the team _____ Date _____

THANK YOU FOR YOUR HELP!

Christopher Willis was born in Van Nuys, California, in November, 1968. He is the second child of three, born to Dr. H. Robert and Jane Willis.

Chris is a graduate of Baylor University, where he received his Bachelor of Arts degree in psychology. He spent a year coaching volleyball in St. Louis, Missouri, and traveled to Central America with the volleyball team from Athletes in Action. In 1993, he began studying sport psychology at The University of Tennessee, Knoxville, where he received a Master of Science degree in Human Performance and Sport Studies. He also was honored by being selected as the outstanding Master's student in Sport Psychology for 1994. Chris' future plans are to coach volleyball at the collegiate level, and eventually earn his Doctorate in Sport Psychology.