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To the Graduate Council:

I am submitting herewith a thesis written by Lisa Lyn Mitchell entitled "Coaching Gender Differences on the Leader Behavior Satisfaction of Female Intercollegiate Basketball Players." I have examined the final copy of this thesis for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science, with a major in Physical Education.

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COACHING GENDER DIFFERENCES ON THE LEADER BEHAVIOR
SATISFACTION OF FEMALE INTERCOLLEGIATE
BASKETBALL PLAYERS

A Thesis

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Degree

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to determine if difference in satisfaction with coaching leadership existed between female-coached and male-coached female NCAA Division I intercollegiate basketball athletes. Both groups of coaches were similar in demographic traits and in leadership style components as evaluated based on the Least Preferred Co-work Scale (Fiedler, 1976). Ten athletes from each of five male-coached and five female-coached teams were the subjects ($N = 100$). Athlete satisfaction with coaching leadership was measured in three ways using the Leadership Scale for Sports (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1978): (a) quantified discrepancy between the leadership behaviors an athlete desires her coach to use, and the behaviors actually employed by her coach, (b) specific satisfaction with leadership behaviors, and (c) general satisfaction with overall coaching leadership. Chelladurai (1980) and Chelladurai and Saleh's (1978) five dimensions of leadership behavior were examined: (a) training and instruction, (b) democratic behavior, (c) autocratic behavior, (d) social support, and (e) rewarding behavior. The two multivariate analyses on discrepancy scores and specific satisfaction scores and the univariate analysis on general satisfaction produced significant coaching gender effects. The resulting univariate analyses revealed significant coaching gender effects on: (a) the rewarding behavior dimension for both the discrepancy and the specific satisfaction; and (b) specific satisfaction in the dimensions of training and instruction,

democratic behavior, autocratic behavior, and social support. All significant results indicated that female-coached female basketball players were more satisfied with the leadership behavior of their coaches than were male-coached female basketball players.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Since the 1960s, female participation in sport and athletics has made extensive advances. Events such as Kathy Switzer's 1967 Boston Marathon appearance, the passage of the Higher Education Act of 1972 which contained the controversial Title IX provision, and the recent inclusion of women like Elizabeth Balsley (New Jersey high school football player) and Lynette Woodard (Harlem Globetrotter basketball player) in traditionally male dominated sports have marked the movement of women into sport (Boutilier & San Giovanni, 1983). Female involvement in sport escalated at an astounding rate throughout the 1970s and 1980s. The number of girls in interscholastic sports programs increased 600% between 1970 and 1979 (Hammer, 1979). Since 1974, the average NCAA school has added between two and three women's sports to their intercollegiate athletic program, making an average of seven intercollegiate women's sports per school (Acosta & Carpenter, 1984).

Research concerning the psychology of the female athlete has increased with the increasing involvement of women in sport. Studies have been typically narrow in focus, limited primarily to the examination of differences in areas such as role development, socialization, conflicts between male and female athletes, and differences between female athletes at different levels of sport involvement. Researchers seem to agree that participation in competitive sports has traditionally

been a male prerogative (English, 1978; Weinberg, Reveles, & Jackson, 1984).

Historically, when women first began to receive recognition for participating in sports in the 1960s, men were the coaches of women's sports teams. Early male dominance was due to the fact that few women, because of their long seclusion from sport, possessed the expertise in sport needed to coach (Neal, 1969; Gerber, 1974). Women's expertise and training in sport increased, and more women began to step into the ranks of coaching women's sports. More than 90% of the coaches and administrators in women's sports were women in the early 1970s, just after the formation of the Association for Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (NCAA News, July, 1986). Since 1977, there has been a rapid decline in the number of women administrators and coaches in women's sports, despite the tremendous increase in the number of women participating in sport. Between 1977 and 1984, almost 5% of the sports teams offered to women have replaced a female coach with a male coach. Little more than 50% of the women's teams in 1984 were coached by a female head coach (Acosta & Carpenter, 1984). There have been few, if any, research studies which have attempted to pinpoint the reasons for this trend away from women coaching women. In fact, there have been few studies examining coaching in general, and even fewer focusing on the coaches of women's teams.

Within the context of an athletic team, because of his or her influence on team performance, the coach is considered the leader

(Tutko & Ogilvie, 1967) and can be compared, in some ways, to a business administrator. Like the head of a corporate conglomerate, the coach is expected to uphold such leadership roles as disciplinarian, salesperson, public relations liaison, counselor, teacher, and strategist (Tutko & Ogilvie, 1967; Fuoss & Troppmann, 1981). Likewise, an athletic team is quite similar to a business organization with both having: (a) their own identities, (b) an exact listing of members, (c) defined goal-directed activity, and (d) methods for replacing members and rearranging the division of labor within the organization (Ball, 1975). Ball claimed that, because of its similarities to business, sport investigative research is a good setting in which to study the interaction dynamics of small groups.

Theories of leadership in sport have their roots in the business world where leadership style and leadership effectiveness have been studied extensively. One of the most recent theories of leadership in athletics has been formulated by Chelladurai (1980; 1984) and Chelladurai and Saleh (1978), who claims that athlete satisfaction is a function of the congruence between actual coach (leader) behaviors and those behaviors preferred by athletes. The more closely a coach's behavior matches that preferred by the athlete, the more satisfied the athlete will be with the coach's leadership. Chelladurai developed his theory from previous business leadership theories, i.e., Fiedler's (1967) contingency theory of leadership, House's (1971) path-goal theory, and Yukl's (1971) discrepancy model. Uniquely, though Chelladurai's theory had incorporated the situational nature of leadership explained by Fiedler (1967) and House (1971), and addressed

effective leadership from the subordinate (athlete) point of view. Previous theories and instruments have only examined leader behavior from the leader's point of view.

In order to determine athlete satisfaction, Chelladurai's questionnaire, the Leadership Scale for Sports (LSS), uses the discrepancy between the score on a perceived version of the test (Appendix A), which gauges athlete perceptions of actual coaching behaviors; and the score on a preferred version of the test (Appendix B), which gauges the degree to which those behaviors are preferred by the athlete. Chelladurai and Saleh (1978) determined there were five dimensions of leader behavior in sport: (a) training behavior, (b) autocratic behavior, (c) democratic behavior, (d) supportive behavior, and (e) rewarding behavior.

The Leadership Scale for Sports has been used to examine the satisfaction of male track athletes with the leadership of a male coach (Schliesman, 1985) and the compatibility variables in coach-athlete dyads (Horne & Carron, 1985). It has also been used to determine the relationship of athlete gender, task dependence, and task variability with preferred leader behavior (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1978). However, the gender of the coach and the resultant relationship to athlete satisfaction has not been studied, although Chelladurai's theory-based Leadership Scale for Sports seems suited to this purpose because: (a) it addresses leadership from the athlete's point of view, (b) it is designed for use specifically in the sport setting, and (c) it

measures satisfaction in three ways (discrepancy, specific satisfaction, and general satisfaction).

Statement of the Problem

The purpose of this study was to determine if differences in leadership satisfaction exist between female-coached and male-coached female intercollegiate basketball athletes. Both groups of coaches were similar in demographic traits and leadership style components.

The following specific questions were addressed:

1. What is the relationship among: (a) discrepancy for the five leader behavior dimensions with general satisfaction, (b) discrepancy with specific satisfaction for the respective dimension, and (c) specific satisfaction for the five leader behavior dimensions with general satisfaction?
2. Is there a significant coaching gender difference for the five dimensions of satisfaction with leader behavior as measured by the discrepancy score for each factor?
3. Is there a significant coaching gender difference for the five dimensions of satisfaction with leader behavior as measured by the specific satisfaction score for each factor?
4. Is there a significant coaching gender difference for general satisfaction with leader behavior?

Definition of Terms

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

Leadership

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

Leadership Effectiveness

The degree to which the intrinsic needs and extrinsic goals of the team and its members are met.

Leadership Behavior

The interaction of the coach with his or her athletes which is categorized into five dimensions of behavior on the Leadership Scale for Sports (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1978). The five dimensions of behavior are: (a) training and instruction behavior, (b) autocratic behavior, (c) democratic behavior, (d) supportive behavior, and (e) rewarding behavior. Leadership behavior can be evaluated as: (a) actual, (b) preferred, and (c) discrepancy.

Actual coaching (leadership) behavior. An athlete's perception of the leadership behavior actually expressed by her coach. Actual coaching behavior is represented by a score on the five dimensions of the Perceived Behavior form of the Leadership Scale for Sports (Appendix A).

Preferred coaching (leadership) behavior. The leadership behavior an athlete desires her coach to use. Preferred coaching behavior is represented by a score on the five dimensions of the Preferred Behavior form of the Leadership Scale for Sports (Appendix B).

Discrepancy. The absolute value of the difference between the scores for the actual and the preferred coaching behavior for each of

the five dimensions. In this study, the discrepancy score was utilized to represent the level of satisfaction with leader behavior (Yukl, 1971).

Leadership Style

The manner in which a coach interacts with his/her team. Leadership style will be predicted by scores on Fiedler's (1976) Least Preferred Co-worker (LPC) Scale (Appendix C). According to Fiedler's theory, a leader's style may fall anywhere along a continuum between relationship-oriented and task-oriented leadership styles.

Relationship-oriented style. Indicated by a high score ($64 \leq x \leq 144$). This type of leader is generally more concerned with interpersonal relationships than with the successful completion of a task.

Task-oriented style. Indicated by a low score ($18 \leq x \leq 63$). This type of leader is generally more concerned with the successful completion of a task than with interpersonal relationships.

Satisfaction with Leadership

The degree to which an athlete experiences positive feelings toward her coach's leadership. It is a function of the difference between preferred coaching behavior and perceptions of actual coaching behavior on each of the five dimensions of the Leadership Scale for Sports (Appendices A and B).

General satisfaction. Satisfaction with overall leadership as measured by a single seven point response question (Appendix D).

Specific satisfaction. Satisfaction with the five specific dimensions of leadership measured in each dimension by a seven point response question (Appendix E).

Assumptions of the Study

The following are considered assumptions of this study:

1. It is assumed that questionnaires were administered and completed according to instructions provided to each team.
2. Because there is no way to know that questionnaires were answered honestly, it is assumed that coaches and athletes attempted to answer all questions honestly.

Limitations of the Study

The following are considered limitations of this study:

1. There is no way to guarantee that coaches and athletes answered questions honestly.
2. Individual perceptions of athletes toward a coach may vary, and may, therefore, not be indicative of team perceptions.
3. This study was limited to coaches of NCAA Division I women's basketball teams and their players.

Significance of the Study

Producing the most satisfying experience for the athlete is often a goal in athletic programs, rising out of the increasing recognition of the importance of the psychological aspects of the sport participation. There are many aspects of sport participation which could influence athlete satisfaction, and sport researchers need to examine them in order to help administrators and coaches produce the most satisfying

sport experience for the athlete. One influencing aspect of sport participation is coaching leadership. Gender differences have been infrequently examined in sport leadership, but with quality testing instruments like the Leadership Scale for Sports, it is time to investigate coaching gender differences, particularly as they relate to athlete satisfaction.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Leadership Theory

Chelladurai's (1980) contingency model of leadership in sport, the theoretical basis for the Leadership Scale for Sports used in the present study, had its origin in the leadership theories of business administration. The influence of these theories on explaining sport leadership is common, as business leadership models are frequently cited as the theoretical basis for leadership's models in sport. Three of these leadership models contributing to sport were reviewed: (a) Fiedler's (1967) contingency model, (b) House's (1971) path-goal theory, and (c) Yukl's (1971) discrepancy model. Chelladurai's (1980) contingency model of leadership in sport was also reviewed. Additionally reviewed were related research studies conducted to verify the contingency model of leadership in sport and to develop the Leadership Scale for Sports.

Contingency Model

Fiedler's (1967) contingency model of effective leadership was one of the earliest theories which considered that factors other than personality traits of a leader, i.e., the situational demands a particular situation places on a leader, might be responsible for determining leadership style. Fiedler postulated that the most effective leadership style is one which best meets the unique demands of a particular

leadership situation. A study in 1951 (Fiedler, 1967) was one of the first to examine leadership in the sport setting, and provided support for his contingency model. Fourteen Illinois high school boys' basketball teams were the subjects of the 1951 research study by Fiedler, Hartmann, and Rudin (Fiedler, 1967). Early in the basketball season, a brief Interpersonal Perception Scale was used for each boy to describe the one teammate with whom he could work best and the one teammate with whom he could work least well. From these scales, an informal leader for each team was identified. The interpersonal relationship between the leader and other team members relative to season team performance was examined. It was found that a negative correlation ($p < .05$) existed between the cohesiveness of the team and team performance. In other words, those teams whose members considered themselves close friends did not perform so well as those teams whose members were not so close. Results also indicated a negative correlation ($p < .05$) between players' positive feelings toward their leader and team performance. According to Fiedler (1967), the informal leaders of successful (winning) teams were more task-oriented, while less successful teams chose more relationship-oriented individuals for their informal leaders.

These findings support Fiedler's (1967) theory that effective leadership behavior is contingent upon the situational favorableness for those leadership behaviors. Fiedler contended that the task-oriented style was most effective when extremes for situational favorableness existed. For instance, task-oriented leadership was most

effective when: (a) there were very good or very bad leader-member relations, (b) the power structure was very strong or very weak, and/or (c) the task structure for players was very highly specialized or not structured at all. Results indicated in contrast, however, that under leadership conditions where situational favorableness was moderate, a relationship-oriented leadership style was most effective (Fiedler, 1967).

If the components of the leadership situations in the 1951 study (Fiedler, 1967) are examined, it is clear, under the contingency theory that the task-oriented leaders in the study were most effective (as indicated by a winning season) because: (a) leader-member relationships were very good because an individual's informal leadership was maintained only with the support and approval of other team members, (b) power position was low because the leadership position was informal and reliant on the approval of other team members, and (c) task structure was not very specialized as basketball players were expected to perform a broad range of tasks skillfully (Schliesman, 1985).

The Least Preferred Co-worker Scale (Fiedler & Chemers, 1976) used in the present study to determine and quantify leadership styles of participating women's intercollegiate basketball coaches, is an outgrowth of Fiedler's contingency model of leadership effectiveness and is a refinement of the testing instrument used to identify informal leaders and intermember relationships of the high school boys basketball teams by Fiedler et al., 1951.

Path-Goal Theory

The path-goal theory of leadership postulated by House (1971) is similar to Fiedler's contingency theory because it encompassed variables other than leader personality when establishing effective leadership traits. House's theory claimed that group performance and group satisfaction are influenced by the characteristics of the task and by the leader demonstrating behaviors appropriate to the task. House (1971) stated that to be effective, a group leader must (a) clarify the path group members must follow in order to obtain a particular goal, and (b) provide feedback to members as they strive to attain that goal (Chelladurai, 1978). This feedback is essential to motivating team members because most sport contests are zero-sum situations. That is, individuals or teams may perform well, yet still lose the contest (Ball, 1975).

House (1971) examined the level of effectiveness achieved by task oriented versus people oriented leaders in a series of three studies. Two subject sample groups were used: (a) office administrative personnel for a heavy construction firm ($N = 199$), and (b) employees of a chemical manufacturing plant, including managers ($N = 13$), technicians ($N = 8$), secretaries ($N = 2$), and hourly production workers ($N = 99$). Leader effectiveness was measured in situations of varying task ambiguity based on the degree of job objective clarity. Two of the three studies produced significant results ($p < .05$), and these results supported the path-goal theory. Task characteristics, such as job scope and job autonomy, did have a mediating effect on subordinate performance and satisfaction, and were apparently related to

leadership style. Task oriented leaders provided the most effective leadership to workers in jobs with ambiguous task objectives, i.e., unclear paths to goal attainment. People oriented leaders provided better leadership to workers in jobs with task characteristics which did not restrict the path-goal relationship (House, 1971).

Discrepancy Model

Yukl (1971) developed a discrepancy model of subordinate satisfaction, based on previous research. According to Yukl (1971), subordinate satisfaction is a function of the discrepancy between the behaviors actually shown by a leader and the leader behaviors preferred by subordinates. Subordinate preferences are formed according to the characteristics of the task and by the personality traits of the worker. Under Yukl's (1971) discrepancy model, a leader will be most effective when he/she selects leadership behaviors according to: (a) his/her personality, (b) the personalities of subordinates, and (c) the situational demands of the task. The more closely and the more comfortably the leader is able to match those behaviors preferred by the subordinates, the more satisfied the subordinates will be with leadership behavior (Yukl, 1971).

Contingency Model of Leadership In Athletics

Chelladurai (1980) combined features of each of the preceding theories, and adapted them from the industrial setting to the sport setting in the development of his contingency model of leadership in athletics. The contingency theory assumes that a leader's style of

interacting, combined with situational favorableness, determines leader effectiveness. The leader's interaction style is represented by task and interpersonal orientation; situational favorableness is composed of leader-member relations, the task structure, and the power position of the leader (Chelladurai, 1984).

Chelladurai's multidimensional model focuses on three aspects of leader behavior: (a) actual leader behavior, as perceived by subordinates, (b) leader behavior preferred by subordinates, and (c) required leader behavior, dictated by the nature of the organization (Chelladurai, 1984). Chelladurai assumed that the degree of congruence among the three aspects of leader behavior is directly related to member satisfaction.

Chelladurai and Saleh (1978) laid the foundation for Chelladurai's (1980) Leadership Scale for Sports, based on the contingency theory of leadership behavior in sport. The main focus of the study was to determine what effects sex, task dependence (individual/team), and task variability (closed/open) in sports had on preferred leader behavior. A second purpose of the study was to attempt to generalize leadership factors from the industrial setting to the little-researched sport setting. One hundred sixty Canadian university physical education students (80 males, 80 females) participated in the study. Subjects were knowledgeable in the sport of their choice, and were classified by the dependence and variability of their preferred sport. Subjects completed a questionnaire consisting of 99 items from existing scales of leader behavior, modified to represent an athletic situation. Each item began "The coach should. . . ." followed by five response categories

of "always", "often", "occasionally", "seldom", "never". Factor analysis revealed loading to .40 or higher on five dimensions of leader behavior: (a) training, (b) autocratic, (c) democratic, (d) supportive, and (e) rewarding behaviors. The lower the factor score, the greater the preference for such behavior. The results of Chelladurai and Saleh (1978) were: (a) athletes in interdependent sports and athletes in close sports preferred their coach to emphasize more training behavior than did athletes in independent sports and athletes in open sports ($p < .001$); (b) male athletes preferred more autocratic behavior and social support from the coach than did female athletes ($p < .001$); (c) male athletes in close sports expected more supportive behavior from the coach than male athletes in open sports and than all female athletes ($p < .02$); (d) female athletes preferred more democratic behavior of the coach than male athletes in all sports ($p < .005$).

Chelladurai (1984) later sought to verify discrepancies between preferred and perceived leadership of coaches as a measure of athlete satisfaction (Yukl, 1971). Subjects were Canadian university athletes ($N = 196$) selected from sports differentiated by task dependence and task variability. The Leadership Scale for Sports, developed as an outgrowth of earlier studies (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1978; Chelladurai, 1980), was the instrument used to assess leadership behavior of coaches. Leadership behavior was assessed from the athletes' point of view in five dimensions: (a) training and instruction, (b) social support, (c) positive feedback, (d) democratic behavior, and (e) autocratic behavior. Athletes completed two forms of the Leadership Scale

for Sports, a preference version ("I prefer my coach to. . . .") and a perceived version of actual behavior version ("My coach. . . ."). Athlete satisfaction was measured with four single Likert-scale questions gauging: (a) satisfaction with individual performance, (b) satisfaction with team performance, (c) satisfaction with leadership, and (d) satisfaction with overall involvement. Discrepancy in leadership was figured by subtracting scores for the preference for leader behavior from the scores for the perception of leader behavior in a specific dimension. Chelladurai's (1984) results indicated that score discrepancies in leadership for athletes in various sports were associated with: (a) satisfaction with team performance ($p < .05$), (b) satisfaction with leadership ($p < .05$), and (c) satisfaction with overall involvement ($p < .05$). The most common dimensions of leader behavior affecting athlete satisfaction were the training and instruction and positive feedback dimensions ($p < .05$).

Schliesman (1985) also tested the discrepancy theory (Yukl, 1971) within Chelladurai's (1980) contingency model. Subjects were 40 male university track and field athletes. Athletes responded to actual and preferred forms of Leadership Scale for Sports (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1978; Chelladurai, 1980, 1984) and to satisfaction scales measuring general satisfaction (satisfaction with overall involvement) and satisfaction within each of the five dimensions of leader (coach) behavior. Results indicated that discrepancy scores in the social support ($p = .05$) and democratic behavior ($p = .05$) dimensions were related to general satisfaction with leadership. Discrepancy scores in training and instruction ($p = .001$), social support ($p = .02$), and positive

feedback ($p = .05$) were related to satisfaction with specific leader behaviors in those dimensions (Schliesman, 1985).

Previous Research in Leadership

There have been a number of research studies dealing with female perceptions of leaders, subordinate perceptions of women in leadership positions, and the characteristics of women leaders. The following review of literature examined the more recent studies of women leaders: (a) in nonsport settings, and (b) in sport.

Leadership in Nonsport Settings

Wallston and O'Leary (1981) provided a comprehensive review of literature on the differential perceptions of female and male leaders. In addressing studies which explored perceptions of competence as a function of sex, evidence was presented which suggests that, although no real differences have been found in the competence displayed by women and men in specific positions, differences are perceived to exist. This bias in evaluation was explained by the fact that the male sex is socially more valued, maleness being seen as a status characteristic. Therefore, men's behaviors were frequently more valued, even when compared to equally effective behaviors of women.

According to Wallston and O'Leary (1981), competent persons were usually viewed more positively than incompetent persons, but men and women agreed that men were more competent than women. One particular study demonstrating this competency bias favoring men was conducted by Goldberg (1968). College women, asked to rate professional

articles, gave higher ratings to identical papers when the author of the article was said to be male rather than female. This study was replicated by Bem and Bem (1970) using male college students (Wallston & O'Leary, 1981).

Porter, Geis, and Jennings (1983) found that women were unlikely to be seen as leaders. Four hundred forty-eight college students (224 men, 224 women) were subjects in this study. Subjects were shown eight different photographic slides of five individuals seated at a rectangular table, one individual at the head of the table and two on each side of the table. Males and females were shown at the head of the table in same-sex groups and mixed-sex groups. Subjects rated each member of the group on leadership attributes and chose one of the five who appeared to be the major contributor to the group. Results showed that a man seated at the head of the table in mixed-sex groups was clearly seen as the leader of the group ($p < .001$), while a woman occupying the same position was ignored. Women were identified as leaders only in all-female groups ($p < .001$). "Becoming a leader depends on acting like a leader, but it depends even more on being seen as a leader" (Porter et al., p. 1035). Expectancies for the behavior of women, based on sex-role stereotypes, did not match expectancies for leadership. Male sex-role stereotypes, which included qualities such as dominance, intelligence, assertiveness, and competence, were more often associated with leadership (Porter et al., 1983).

Reed (1983), in a review of research literature, concurred with Porter (et al., 1983) and Wallston and O'Leary (1981) that the gender

of a group's leader had a clear effect on the group. She indicated that research showed that although male and female group leaders behaved in similar ways, female leaders were usually perceived and reacted to more negatively than male leaders.

In a contradictory study, Rice, Instone, and Adams (1984) found few gender effects on the leadership perceptions of two groups of freshmen ($N = 810$) and sophomore ($N = 842$) United States Military Academy Cadets. Subjects described their senior cadet leaders on a 64-item questionnaire which evaluated leader success (effectiveness and satisfaction) and the leadership process (communication and social power). Through analysis of variance, no replicable leader gender effects were found ($p < .05$). However, follower gender effects revealed that female subordinates were generally more positive in their description of training experiences and were stronger in their effective reactions than were male subordinates (Rice et al., 1984).

Stereotypes of effective leadership are typically founded on research involving male leaders. The applicability of these stereotypes to female leaders was addressed in a study by Powell and Butterfield (1984). Generally, effective leaders have been found to be both high in initiating structure for subordinates and high in consideration demonstrated toward them, labelled as "high-high" leadership. Subjects were 210 female and 327 male undergraduate management students. Subjects were presented with two one-page stories depicting a female manager with: (a) a high-high leadership style, and (b) a low-low leadership style. Each of the stories had two versions. One

version indicated high group performance in the final paragraph and one version indicated low group performance; the stories were otherwise identical. Subjects were randomly assigned to high performance or low performance groups. Subjects (a) rated the manager through eight seven-point Likert questions assessing manager effectiveness, productivity and satisfaction, and (b) described the manager's behavior on the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire which was developed by Stogdill of The Ohio State University in 1963. It was found that subject gender had only a slight effect on the evaluations of high-high and low-low female leaders ($p < .05$). Females ranked the low-low female leader less favorably and the high-high female more favorably than did males. However, performance effects and descriptive scores were not affected by subject gender (Powell & Butterfield, 1984).

Leadership in Sports

A dissertation study by Callaway (1982) compared the leadership styles of successful and unsuccessful collegiate women basketball coaches. Subjects were 62 collegiate women basketball coaches from two regions of the Association for Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (AIAW). The coaches completed a demographic questionnaire and ten research questions from: (a) the Leadership Ability Evaluation (LAE), and (b) the Coaches' Leadership Evaluation Questionnaire (CLEQ). The LAE assesses leadership in four styles, while the CLEQ assesses three dimensions of leadership. Coaches were divided into two groups for analysis, based on their collegiate winning percentages. Those

coaches reporting a percentage above .500 were grouped as successful coaches; those with a percentage of .500 and below were grouped as unsuccessful coaches. Data from the LAE were compared to national norms for the LAE. Pearson Product Moment correlation coefficients were computed between LAE scores and winning percentages, and an independent t-test was used for LAE and CLEQ mean scores. Frequencies and percentages were calculated on the demographic data.

Among Callaway's (1982) findings were the following: (a) the same leadership styles were used by successful and unsuccessful collegiate women basketball coaches, (b) when compared to national leadership norms, successful and unsuccessful coaches displayed neither high nor low degrees of leadership qualities, and (c) the demographic data for successful and unsuccessful coaches were inconclusive indicators of leadership style and of successful coaching (Callaway, 1982). However, Callaway's findings did not conflict with research previously reviewed which indicated female athletes did not view male and female coaches differently. It would be suggested from this study that leadership variables other than leader style need to be the focus of further empirical research.

A study by Weinberg, Reveles, and Jackson (1984) examined the attitudes and feelings of male and female varsity basketball players toward having a female or male coach. Forty-two male and 42 female basketball players from eight teams, aged 14-21, were the subjects. All athletes played on interscholastic or intercollegiate teams for a coach of their same sex during the 1981-82 season. The athletes were

randomly assigned to two test groups and each group was given identical background information regarding the qualifications of a hypothetical new coach. One group was told the coach was female; the other group was told the coach was male. The athletes then completed an 11-item Likert questionnaire exploring their attitudes toward the "new" coach.

A 2×2 (coach gender by athlete gender) between subject multiple analysis of variance indicated significant coach by athlete interaction ($p < .05$). Simple main effects calculations indicated that the interaction was due to the fact that males athletes tended to view female coaches more negatively than did female athletes ($p < .001$), but there were no athlete gender differences in the perceptions of male coaches. The authors stated these findings were generally consistent with previous research in this specific area.

Seventy-seven Canadian university athletes from nine teams in four sports (including basketball) and their coaches participated in a study of slightly different focus by Horne and Carron (1985). The study examined three questions: (a) What variables discriminate between compatible and incompatible coach-athlete dyads?, (b) What relationship exists between athletic performance and coach-athlete compatibility?, and (c) What is the relationship between compatibility and athlete satisfaction? (Horne & Carron, 1985). The total sample consisted of 75 coach-athlete dyads. Both athletes and coaches completed the sport adapted version of the Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation (FIRO-B) scale, measuring compatibility. Compatibility was also measured by athletes ranking their relationship with

their coach on a 9-point scale. Stepwise discriminant analysis determined that 33 of the dyads were compatible and 12 were classified incompatible. Satisfaction was measured through the Leadership Scale for Sports (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1978; Chelladurai, 1980, 1984). There were two phases of statistical analysis: (a) through multiple regression, the LSS and FIRO-B were examined separately, and (b) a final stepwise discriminant analysis was conducted for significant variables ($p < .05$). Results found significant differences between athletes' and coaches' perceptions of training, democratic behavior, social support and reward dimensions of the LSS ($p < .05$). Positive feedback was found to be the discriminating variable between incompatible and compatible coach-athlete relationships. Athlete satisfaction with coach leadership was to be best predicted with the discrepancy between athlete preferences for and athlete perceptions of actual training and instruction behavior on the LSS ($p < .05$).

A recent study by Parkhouse and Williams (1986) investigated whether the abilities of male coaches were evaluated more favorably than those of equal-ability female coaches across various levels of professional status. Eighty male and 80 female high school basketball athletes were given written coaching philosophy statements from a hypothetical male and female coach. Coaches were described as having either high or low professional status, based upon coaching honors and win/loss record. Athletes used a 6-point semantic differential scale to assess: (a) knowledge of coaching, (b) motivation effectiveness, (c) personal desire to play for that coach, and (d) predicted future

success of the coach. Athletes were asked to select which of the two coaches under whose leadership they would prefer to play. Through multiple analysis of variance, a gender of athlete by gender of coach interaction effect on the four rating areas indicated a strong gender-bias, with all athletes favoring male coaches. Generally, male and female subjects rated the male coach the same or higher than the female coach ($p < .05$). In addition, male subjects rated the female coach even lower than did female subjects ($p < .01$). Through a log-linear analysis, it was indicated that 89% of the male athletes and 71% of the female athletes preferred a male coach ($p < .01$) (Parkhouse & Williams, 1986).

CHAPTER III

PROCEDURES

The purpose of this study was to determine if differences in leadership satisfaction existed between female-coached and male-coached female intercollegiate basketball athletes. Both groups of coaches were similar in demographic traits and leadership style components. This chapter is organized into the following categories: (a) selection of subjects, (b) instrumentation, and (c) methods of testing.

Selection of Subjects

The population of subjects in this study were male and female NCAA Division I women's basketball head coaches and their team athletes. Coaches names were provided by the Women's Basketball Coaches Association and a preliminary letter of inquiry (Appendix F) was sent to each head coach (N = 201). Coaches indicating an interest and willingness to participate (7 males, 26 females) in the study were sent a questionnaire packet containing a questionnaire for the coach, a demographic data form for the coach (Appendix G), and questionnaires for each athlete on the team. An informed consent statement was included with each questionnaire. Confidentiality of information was maintained by coding all response sheets so individual names and responses, and university names, were not associated. All subjects were informed in writing: (a) what the purpose of the study was, (b) that completion of the questionnaire(s) indicated their consent to

be in the study, and (c) that they were free to withdraw from the study by not completing the questionnaire(s) (Appendix H).

Five of the seven male coaches and their teams returned completed questionnaire packets, creating a 71.4% response rate for male coaches; 17 of the 26 female coaches and their teams responded, creating a 65.4% response rate for female coaches. A follow-up letter (Appendix I) was sent to nonresponding coaches, hoping to increase the data pool, but no additional responses were obtained.

Each coach's LPC scale was scored (Appendix J), and coaches were grouped according to gender and leadership style. Five of the responding female coaches were matched with the male coaches for analysis of team data. Therefore, a total of ten teams was selected for the statistical analyses.

Coaches were matched according to leadership style and selected demographic variables. A nonparametric one-way analysis of variance indicated there were no significant differences between the male and female coaches according to the following variables: (a) leadership style quantified by a score on the LPC ($\chi^2 = .270$, $p = .602$); (b) age ($\chi^2 = .673$, $p = .075$); (c) number of years coaching at the NCAA Division I level ($\chi^2 = .550$, $p = .459$); (d) number of years at the present institution ($\chi^2 = .834$, $p = .916$); (e) percent of career games won ($\chi^2 = .834$, $p = .917$); (f) undergraduate enrollment at the present institution ($\chi^2 = .917$, $p = 1.000$); and (g) marital status ($\chi^2 = 3.60$, $p = .058$).

Instrumentation

Each coach completed a demographic data sheet (Appendix C) and Fiedler & Chemers's (1976) Least Preferred Co-worker Scale (Appendix C). The LPC measures leadership style along a continuum from task-oriented style (low LPC score) to relationship-oriented style (high LPC score), and is based on Fiedler's (1967) contingency model of leadership effectiveness. For this test, coaches were asked to think of the person with whom they could work least well. They were then asked to outline characteristics of this person through eighteen Likert-scale questions which each presented an eight-point response scale between opposite personality traits. For example, considerate --inconsiderate was scaled from 8, very considerate, to 1, very inconsiderate, as follows (Appendices C, J):

considerate	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	inconsiderate
8 - Very Considerate									4 - Slightly Inconsiderate
7 - Quite Considerate									3 - Somewhat Inconsiderate
6 - Somewhat Considerate									2 - Quite Inconsiderate
5 - Slightly Considerate									1 - Very Inconsiderate

The LPC is a valid and reliable measure (Fiedler, 1971). Using the split-halves technique, Fiedler (1971) indicated an internal consistency of $r > .90$. Test-retest stability was determined as $r = .76, .73$, and $.83$. Concurrent validity as evaluated with the Assumed Similarity between Opposites Score (the accepted test preceding the LPC) was found to be $r = .80$ to $.90$.

Student athletes completed Chelladurai and Saleh's (1978) Leadership Scale for Sports (Appendices A & B). Each form of the LSS contains 40 statements which assess the following five dimensions of coaching behavior.

1. Training and instruction behavior. Providing information to facilitate improvement of skills and to encourage task accomplishment and goal achievement (Questions 1, 5, 8, 11, 14, 17, 20, 23, 26, 29, 32, 35, 38).

2. 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 (Questions 6, 12, 27, 34, 40).

3. Democratic behavior. A style of decision-making in which the coach allows athletes to actively participate in making decisions which affect the team (Questions 2, 9, 15, 18, 21, 24, 30, 33, 39).

4. 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 (Questions 3, 7, 13, 19, 22, 25, 31, 36).

5. Rewarding behavior. Performance dependent positive feedback provided by the coach. Rewarding behavior is crucial to maintaining the motivational level of the athletes (Questions 4, 10, 16, 28, 37). Athletes completed two forms of the Leadership Scale for Sports for this study. The Preferred Behavior form (Appendix B) was used to measure specific leadership behaviors in the five dimensions an

athlete desires her coach to use. An item on this form of the LSS read "I prefer my coach to help members of the group settle their conflicts." The Perceived Behavior form (Appendix A) of the LSS measured on athlete's perceptions of the specific leadership behaviors actually expressed by her coach. An item on this form of the LSS read "My coach helps members of the group settle their conflicts."

Responses to each test item on both forms were made on a five-point Likert scale. The five responses were: (a) always, (b) often, (c) occasionally, (d) seldom, and (e) never.

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

Chelladurai (1980) has tested the reliability of the LSS utilizing the split-halves method to determine internal consistency. The respective internal consistency coefficients for the preferred and the perceived (actual) forms for each factor are: (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 (e) rewarding behavior, .82 and .92 (Chelladurai, 1980).

Method of Testing

The coaches were requested to have all questionnaires administered after the completion of regular 1985-86 season play and prior to

1986 postseason conference or tournament play. However, some teams did not compete in postseason tournaments while some participated in conference tournaments but no other postseason play, and still others competed only in postseason national tournaments without participating in conference tournament play. The postseason playing status of each team was noted by the coach on the coaches' demographic data form.

Coaches and athletes were tested separately. Coaches were provided with written instructions for the completion of the LPC and demographic data form, and self-administered the test (Appendix K). Completion of the Least Preferred Co-work Scale and the demographic data form took approximately 30 minutes.

Written instructions for the administration of the athlete forms were included with the coach's letter (Appendix K), and detailed instructions to be read aloud to the athletes were also provided (Appendix L). All questionnaires were administered to each team of athletes by a student manager, with no members of the coaching staff present. The student manager read the instructions for the questionnaires (Appendix L) aloud for the group. Completion of all forms of the Leadership Scale for Sports took approximately 45 minutes.

Athletes first responded to the General Leadership Satisfaction item (Appendix D), and then completed the Perceived Version of the LSS (Appendix A). These two forms were then collected in order to reduce the possibility of response bias. Next, athletes were given the Preferred Version of the LSS (Appendix B) and the five question Specific Leadership Satisfaction form (Appendix E). When all forms were

completed, they were: (a) collected by the student manager, (b) placed with the completed coach's forms in the return self-addressed and stamped envelope, and (c) sealed and returned to the experimenter.

When the completed questionnaires were received by the experimenter, a letter of gratitude was mailed to the responding coach (Appendix M). All responding coaches were sent an abstract of the results at the completion of the study.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The present study was conducted to determine if differences in satisfaction existed between female-coached and male-coached female intercollegiate basketball athletes. Both groups of coaches were similar in demographic traits and leadership style components (Chapter III, p. 27). Athletes from five male-coached and five female-coached NCAA Division I women's basketball teams were the subjects in the present study. One team had only ten athletes, therefore ten athletes were randomly selected from each of the other nine teams for the statistical analysis of data.

Athlete satisfaction with coaching leadership was measured in three ways using the Leadership Scale for Sports (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1978): (a) quantified discrepancy between the leadership behaviors an athlete prefers her coach to use in the five dimensions of leader behavior and the behaviors actually employed by her coach, (b) satisfaction with leadership in the five leader behavior dimensions, and (c) general satisfaction with overall coaching leadership.

Athletes indicated preferences for coaching leadership behavior in five dimensions on the Preference Version of the Leadership Scale for Sports (Appendix B) and perceptions of actual coaching leadership behavior in five dimensions on the Perceived Version of the LSS (Appendix A). A discrepancy score, the absolute difference between actual and perceived scores in each leadership dimension, was calculated for each athlete.

Athletes also indicated satisfaction with the five dimensions of coaching leadership by an evaluation of each factor on the Specific Satisfaction form of the LSS (Appendix E). Athletes indicated satisfaction with general coaching leadership by a score on the General Satisfaction form of the LSS (Appendix D).

Statistical analyses were utilized to determine the relationships among the dependent variables and if significant coaching gender differences existed in the following three areas: (a) the discrepancy scores in each dimension, (b) the athletes' specific satisfaction levels in each dimension, and (c) the athletes' general satisfaction levels. The present results chapter is divided into five sections: (a) interrelationships among the dependent variables, (b) discrepancy scores for the five dimensions, (c) specific satisfaction scores, (d) general satisfaction scores, and (e) summary.

Interrelationships Among the Dependent Variables

In order to determine the viability of this research with other studies, the following interrelationships among the categories of dependent variables were calculated: (a) discrepancy scores for the five dimensions with general satisfaction, (b) discrepancy scores with the respective specific satisfaction score for the five dimensions, and (c) specific satisfaction score for the five dimensions with general satisfaction.

Discrepancy Scores with General Satisfaction

The discrepancy scores between the athlete's perceptions of actual coaching behaviors and the athlete's preferences for coaching behaviors in all five dimensions were significantly correlated with the general satisfaction scores on the Leadership Scale for Sports (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1978). The significant correlations of general satisfaction with the discrepancy score for the five dimensions were: (a) training and instruction ($r = -.49$, $p = .001$), (b) democratic behavior ($r = -.33$, $p = .0009$), (c) autocratic behavior ($r = -.41$, $p = .0001$), (d) social support ($r = -.63$, $p = .0001$), and (e) rewarding behavior ($r = -.69$, $p = .0001$). The amount of common variability for general satisfaction with the discrepancy score for: (a) training and instruction was 24%, (b) democratic behavior was 11%, (c) autocratic behavior was 17%, (d) social support was 40%, and (e) rewarding behavior was 48%.

Discrepancy Scores with Specific Satisfaction Scores

The discrepancy scores between the athlete's perception of actual coaching behavior and the athlete's preference for coaching behaviors were significantly correlated with the respective specific satisfaction scores in all five dimensions. The significant correlations of the specific satisfaction scores with the discrepancy scores were: (a) for training and instruction, $r = -.41$, $p = .0001$; (b) for democratic behavior, $r = -.25$, $p = .011$; (c) for autocratic behavior, $r = -.22$, $p = .026$; (d) for social support, $r = -.27$, $p = .008$; and (e) for

rewarding behavior, $r = -.65$, $p = .0001$. The amount of common variability for specific satisfaction with the discrepancy scores of: (a) training and instruction was 17%, (b) democratic behavior was 6%, (c) autocratic behavior was 5%, (d) social support was 7%, and (e) rewarding behavior was 42%.

Specific Satisfaction with General Satisfaction

The specific satisfaction scores in each of the five dimensions were significantly related to general satisfaction. The significant correlations of general satisfaction with the specific satisfaction dimension scores were: (a) for training and instruction, $r^2 = .80$, $p = .001$; (b) for democratic behavior, $r^2 = .41$, $p = .0001$; (c) for autocratic behavior, $r^2 = .70$, $p = .0001$; (d) for social support, $r^2 = .63$, $p = .0001$; and (e) for rewarding behavior, $r^2 = .69$, $p = .0001$. The amount of common variability for general satisfaction with the specific satisfaction scores of: (a) training and instruction was 64%, (b) democratic behavior was 17%, (c) autocratic behavior was 49%, (d) social support was 40%, and (e) rewarding behavior was 48%.

Discrepancy for the Five Dimensions

A one-way multiple analysis of variance, using Roy's Maximum Root Criterion (Harris, 1975) was calculated (Ray, 1982) for gender of coach on the discrepancy scores for the five dimensions of satisfaction: (a) training and instruction, (b) democratic behavior, (c) autocratic behavior, (d) social support, and (e) rewarding behavior (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1978). There was a significant multivariate effect ($F(1,98) =$

7.17, $p < .01$) for the independent variable, gender of coach. This indicated that evaluation of the univariate ANOVAs was appropriate in order to determine the location of the multivariate difference among the discrepancy scores for the five dimensions.

Training and Instruction

The ANOVA on the discrepancy scores for training and instruction by gender of coach was not significant ($F(1,98) = 1.86$, $p = .176$), and accounted for 2% of the variability in the model. The athletes with female coaches ($M = .35$, $s = .36$) were not significantly different from the athletes with male coaches ($M = .46$, $s = .40$) for the discrepancy score in training and instruction.

Democratic Behavior

The ANOVA on the discrepancy scores for democratic behavior by gender of coach was not significant ($F(1,98) = .12$, $p = .728$), and accounted for .1% of the variability in the model. The athletes with female coaches ($M = .51$, $s = .49$) were not significantly different from the athletes with male coaches ($M = .55$, $s = .48$) for the discrepancy score in democratic behavior.

Autocratic Behavior

The ANOVA on the discrepancy scores for autocratic behavior by gender of coach was not significant ($F(1,98) = .04$, $p = .847$), and accounted for .04% of the variability in the model. The athletes with female coaches ($M = .75$, $s = .61$) were not significantly different from

the athletes with male coaches ($M = .78$, $s = .71$) for the discrepancy scores in autocratic behavior.

Social Support

The ANOVA on the discrepancy scores for social support by gender of coach was not significant ($F(1,98) = .79$, $p = .375$), and accounted for .8% of the variability in the model. Athletes with female coaches ($M = .38$, $s = .32$) were not significantly different from the athletes with male coaches ($M = .45$, $s = .48$) for the discrepancy scores in social support.

Rewarding Behavior

The ANOVA on the discrepancy scores for rewarding behavior produced a significant effect for gender of coach ($F(1,98) = 4.84$, $p = .030$), and accounted for 5% of the variability in model. The athletes with female coaches ($M = .55$, $s = .60$) were significantly better than the athletes with male coaches ($M = .89$, $s = .49$) on their discrepancy scores for rewarding behavior (Figure 1).

Specific Satisfaction for the Five Dimensions

A one-way multiple analysis of variance, using Roy's Maximum Root Criterion (Harris, 1975) was calculated (Ray, 1982) for gender of coach on the specific satisfaction scores for the five dimensions: (a) training and instruction, (b) democratic behavior, (c) autocratic behavior, (d) social support, and (e) rewarding behavior (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1978). There was a significant multivariate effect ($F(1,96) =$

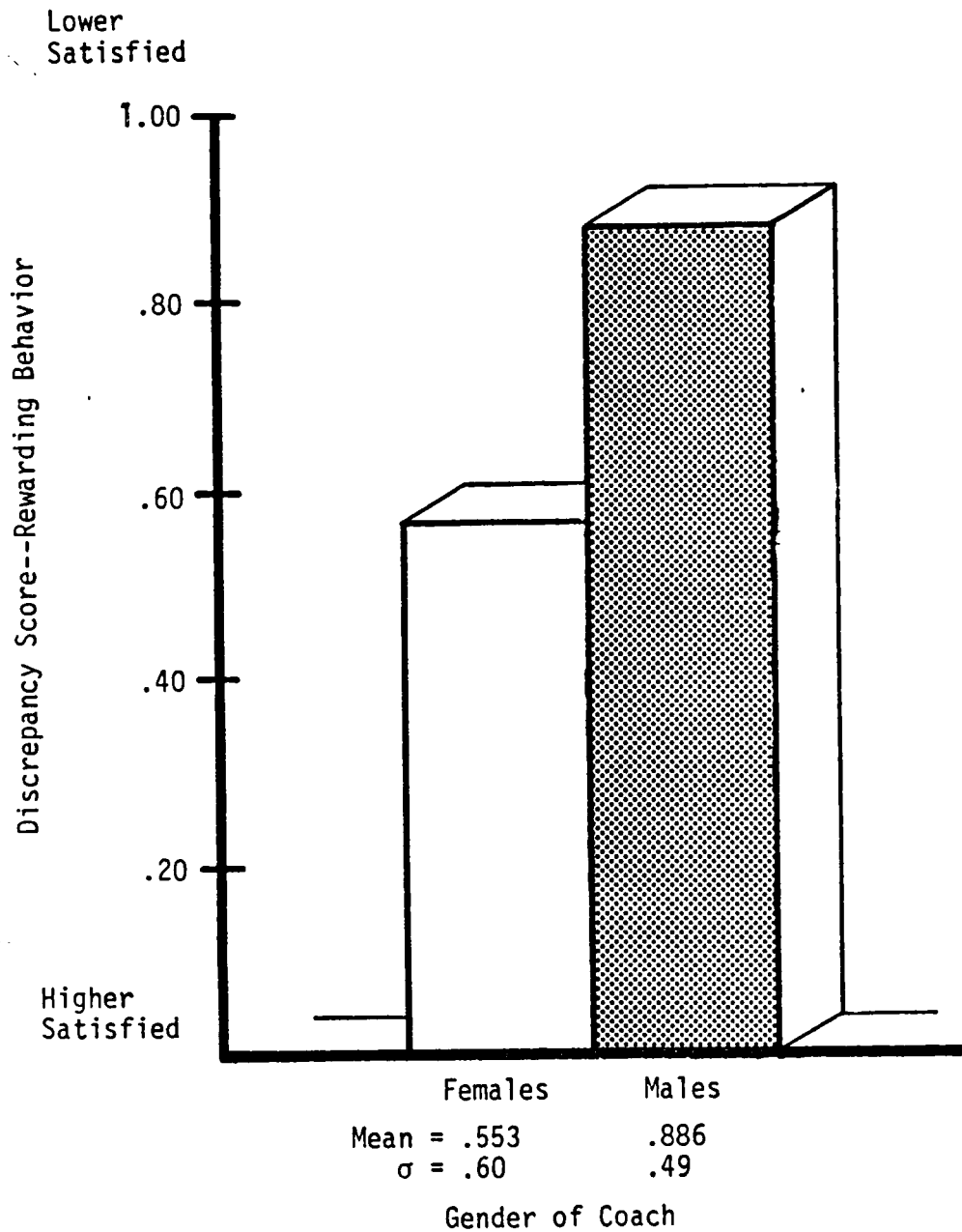


Figure 1. Results of the ANOVA, discrepancy scores for rewarding behavior by gender of coach. Significant difference ($F(1,98) = 4.84, p = .030$).

26.52, $p < .001$) for gender of coach. This indicated that evaluation of the univariate ANOVAs was appropriate in order to determine the location of the multivariate differences among the specific satisfaction scores for the five factors.

Training and Instruction

The ANOVA on the specific satisfaction scores for training and instruction by gender of coach was significant ($F(1,98) = 15.27$, $p = .0002$), and accounted for 14% of the variability in the model. Athletes with female coaches had significantly higher specific satisfaction with training and instruction than did athletes with male coaches (Figure 2).

Democratic Behavior

The ANOVA on the specific satisfaction scores for democratic behavior by gender of coach was significant ($F(1,96) = 5.96$, $p = .017$), and accounted for 6% of the variability in the model. The athletes with female coaches had significantly higher satisfaction with democratic behavior than did athletes with male coaches (Figure 2).

Autocratic Behavior

The ANOVA on the specific satisfaction scores for autocratic behavior by gender of coach was significant ($F(1,96) = 20.34$, $p = .0001$), and accounted for 17% of the variability in the model. Athletes with female coaches had significantly higher specific satisfaction with autocratic behavior than did athletes with male coaches (Figure 2).

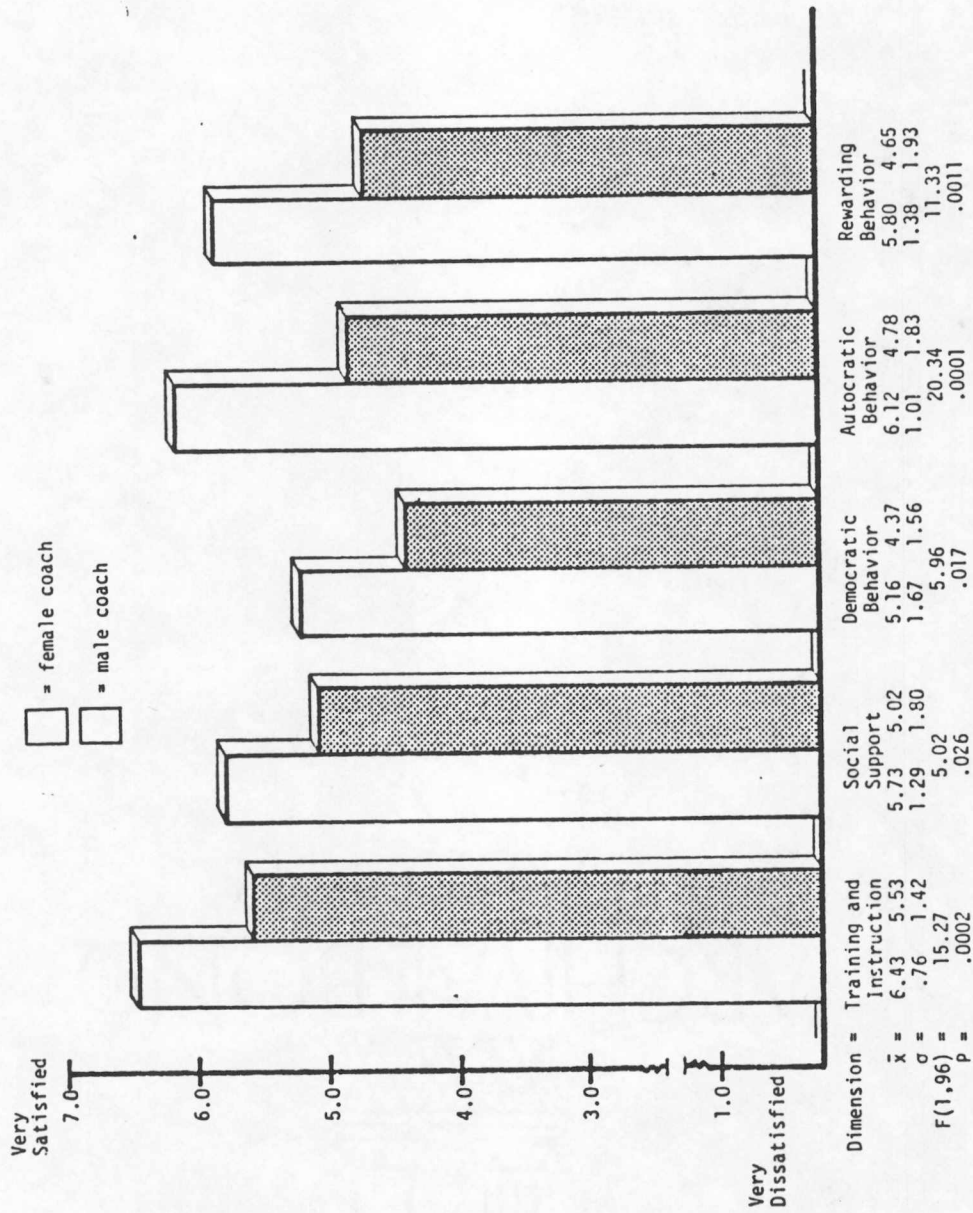


Figure 2. Results of the ANOVA, specific satisfaction scores in each dimension by gender of coach.

Social Support

The ANOVA on the specific satisfaction scores for social support by gender of coach was significant ($F(1,96) = 5.12, p = .026$), and accounted for 5% of the variability in the model. The athletes with female coaches had significantly higher satisfaction with social support than did athletes with male coaches (Figure 2).

Rewarding Behavior

The ANOVA on the specific satisfaction of rewarding behavior by gender of coach was significant ($F(1,96) = 11.33, p = .0011$), and accounted for 11% of the variability in the model. Athletes with female coaches had significantly higher specific satisfaction with rewarding behavior than did athletes with male coaches (Figure 2).

General Satisfaction

A univariate analysis of variance on the general satisfaction scores (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1978), was calculated (Ray, 1982) for gender of coach. There was a significant effect ($F(1,98) = 7.08, p = .0091$) for gender of coach which accounted for 7% of the total variability in the model. Athletes of female coaches had significantly higher general satisfaction with overall coaching leadership than athletes with male coaches (Figure 3).

Summary of Results

The purpose of this study was to determine if differences in leadership satisfaction existed between female-coached and male-coached

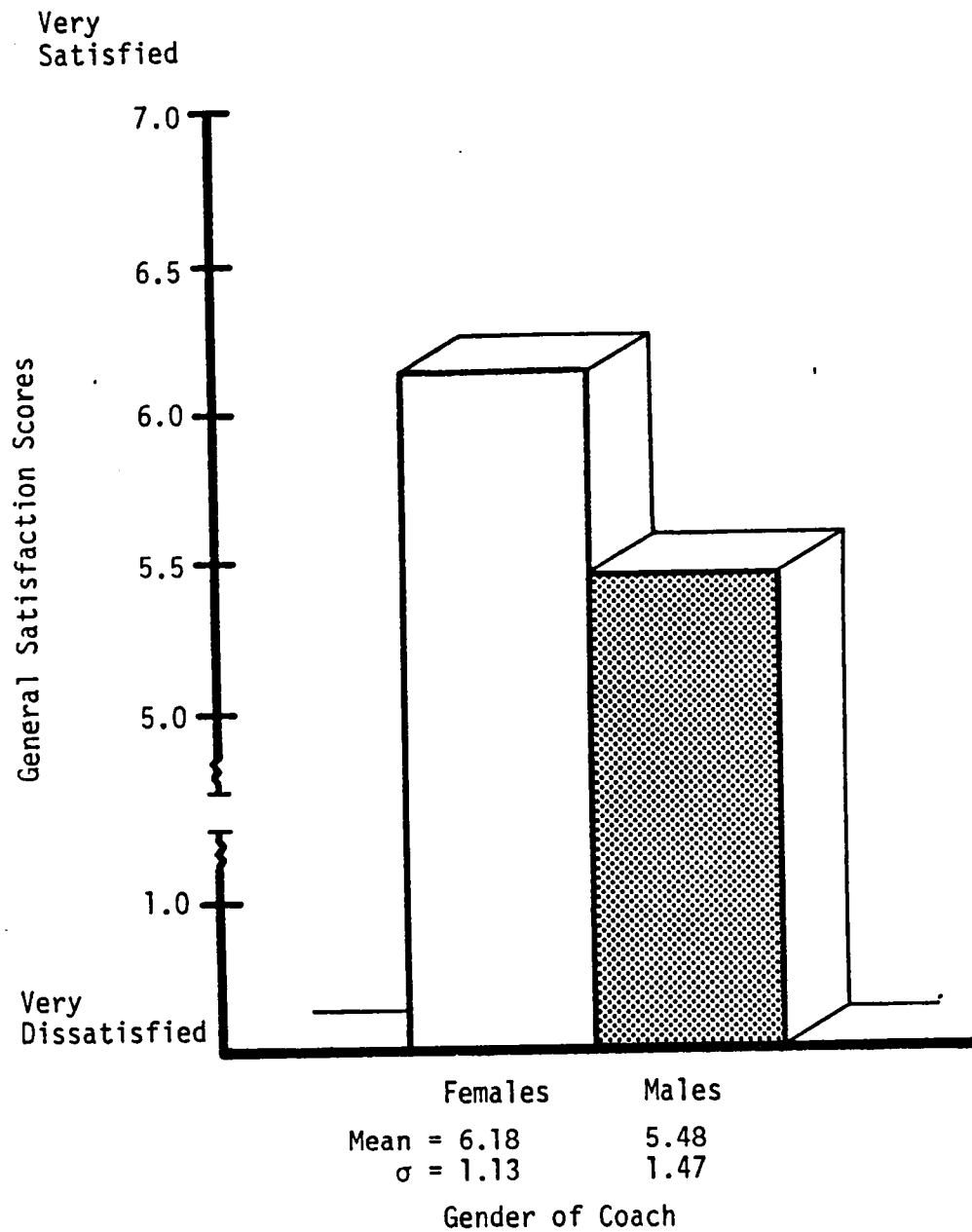


Figure 3. Results of the ANOVA, general satisfaction scores by gender of coach. Significant difference $F(1,98) = 7.08$, $p = .0091$.

female intercollegiate basketball players whose coaches exhibited the same leadership style and demographic characteristics. Two multivariate ANOVAs and one univariate ANOVA on satisfaction scores produced significant affects based on gender of coach.

A significant multivariate effect and one univariate effect of gender of coach were found to exist in the discrepancy between actual and preferred coaching leadership behaviors only in the rewarding behavior dimension of the Leadership Scale for Sports ($r^2 = .05$, $p = .030$). Female-coached athletes had a lower discrepancy than male-coached athletes. Based on the analysis of discrepancy data, female-coached athletes were more satisfied with the rewarding behavior their coaches than were male-coached athletes. The significant multivariate effect resulted from the fact that only one of the five dimensions produced a significant effect for gender of coach, i.e., discrepancy in the rewarding behavior dimension.

A significant multivariate effect and five significant univariate effects of gender of coach were also found in favor of female coaches in each of the five specific leadership dimensions of the LSS. The multivariate differences resulted from the five dimensions having different strengths of effect, r^2 , as indicated below. Compared with athletes coached by men, athletes coached by women expressed significantly greater satisfaction with their coaches': (a) training and instruction ($r^2 = .14$, $p = .0002$), (b) democratic behavior ($r^2 = .06$, $p = .017$), (c) autocratic behavior ($r^2 = .17$, $p = .0001$), (d) social support ($r^2 = .05$, $p = .026$), and (e) rewarding behavior ($r^2 = .11$, $p = .0011$).

A significant univariate effect of gender of coach was also found on athlete satisfaction with general coaching leadership ($r^2 = .07$, $p = .0091$). Female-coached athletes indicated higher satisfaction with general coaching leadership than did male-coached athletes.

Of the eleven univariate ANOVAs conducted on athlete leadership satisfaction variables by gender of coach, seven produced significant results and four produced nonsignificant results. Significant coaching gender effects on the rewarding behavior dimension were found for both the discrepancy scores and the specific satisfaction scores. The other four significant coaching gender effects on dimensions of leader behavior were only on the specific satisfaction scores for: (a) training and instruction, (b) democratic behavior, (c) autocratic behavior, and (d) social support. All significant results indicated female-coached female basketball players were more satisfied with the leadership behavior of their coach than were male-coached female basketball players.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

The present study was conducted to determine if differences in leadership satisfaction existed between female-coached and male-coached female intercollegiate basketball athletes. Both groups of coaches were similar in demographic traits and leadership style components (Chapter III, p. 27). Statistical analyses were utilized to determine the interrelationships among the dependent variables and if significant coaching gender differences existed for: (a) discrepancy in the five leader behavior dimensions, (b) specific satisfaction in the five leader behavior dimensions, and (c) general satisfaction. This chapter was organized to coincide with the four specific questions (Chapter I, p. 5) to be addressed by this study, and were categorized as: (a) the interrelationships among the dependent variables, (b) discrepancy for the five leader behavior dimensions, (c) specific satisfaction for the five leader behavior dimensions, and (d) general satisfaction.

Interrelationships Among the Dependent Variables

Results of the analyses of the interrelationships of the dependent variables support the results of Chelladurai (1984) and Schliesman (1985). Using 40 male track and field athletes, Schliesman tested Yukl's (1971) discrepancy theory of leadership within Chelladurai's (1980) contingency model of leadership in athletics. According to Yukl (1971), subordinate satisfaction is a function of the discrepancy

between the behaviors actually shown by a leader and the leader behaviors preferred by subordinates (Chapter II, p. 14). Schliesman (1985) used Chelladurai and Saleh's (1978) Leadership Scale for Sports and determined that general satisfaction with leadership was related to discrepancy in the dimensions of social support ($r^2 = .10$, $p = .05$) and democratic behavior ($r^2 = .10$, $p = .05$). Results of the strength of relationship of the same two correlations in the present study (Chapter IV, p. 34) were similar, yet even stronger than those of Schliesman (1985). In addition, the results of the correlations of general satisfaction with discrepancy for all five dimensions were significant (Chapter IV, p. 35). Thus, the present study also supported the results of Chelladurai (1984).

When considering the relationships among the discrepancy and the respective specific satisfaction for each dimension, Schliesman (1985) found significant relationships for training and instruction ($r^2 = .26$, $p = .001$), social support ($r^2 = .15$, $p = .02$), and rewarding behavior ($r^2 = .10$, $p = .05$). The results of the strength of relationship of these same dimensions in the present study (Chapter IV, p. 35) were similar to, yet even stronger than those determined by Schliesman (1985). In addition, in the present study, significant correlations for the other two dimensions, i.e., autocratic behavior and democratic behavior, were found to exist between discrepancy and specific satisfaction for leader behavior.

No consideration of the relationship of general satisfaction to the specific satisfaction for each of the five dimensions of leader behavior

had been made prior to the present study. The high value of the r^2 for most of the dimensions suggests that those variables tended to be interpreted in a similar way. Thus, this is an area in which further investigation is needed to determine why the specific satisfaction scores and the general satisfaction scores functioned in a similar way.

Discrepancy for the Five Leader Behavior Dimensions

The multivariate and univariate ANOVAs revealed significant coaching gender effects for the discrepancy scores for the five dimensions of leader behavior. Significant gender effects were found in favor of the female-coached athletes for the discrepancy between athlete preference for and athlete perception of, actual coaching behaviors only for the rewarding behavior dimension. That is, athletes coached by women showed more congruence than athletes coached by men between their preference for and their perception of the positive significant coaching gender effects on the discrepancy scores for any of the other leader behavior dimensions.

Specific Satisfaction for the Five Leader Behavior Dimensions

Significant univariate gender differences, in favor of female-coached athletes, were found for specific satisfaction in all five dimensions of leader behavior. The multivariate effect of coaching gender was attributed to the fact that, although the gender of the coach was related to specific satisfaction in each dimension, there was a wide range of the strength of the relationship (r^2) across the five

dimensions of leader behavior (Chapter IV, p. 38). A total of approximately 42% of the variability in the model for specific satisfaction with leader behavior was indicated by the dimensions of: (a) autocratic behavior, $r^2 = .17$; (b) training and instruction, $r^2 = .14$, and (c) rewarding behavior, $r^2 = .11$. That is, according to the definitions of the dimensions of leader behavior set forth by Chelladurai and Saleh (1978), female-coached athletes rated their coaches higher than did male-coached athletes on their satisfaction with: (a) the degree of absolute authority exercised by the coach, characterized by the coach making all decisions for the athletes, remaining aloof, and insisting on complete obedience from the team; (b) the amount of information provided by the coach to improve skills and encourage task accomplishment; and (c) the positive performance-dependent feedback received from the coach. This result can be interpreted as an indication of the primary distinguishing areas of satisfaction with leader behavior between male-coached and female-coached women intercollegiate basketball players.

In addition, coaching gender differences were also acknowledged in specific satisfaction with democratic behavior ($r^2 = .06$) and social support ($r^2 = .05$). However, these areas together only accounted for approximately 11% of the total variability in the model for specific satisfaction with leader behavior. Based on Chelladurai and Saleh's (1978) definitions of the five dimensions of leader behavior, this means that female athletes rated female coaches higher than male coaches on their satisfaction with: (a) the degree to which athletes were allowed

to participate in making decisions affecting the team; and (b) the amount of concern the coach had for the welfare of the athletes as characterized by the coach's attempting to help individuals with personal problems, and increasing communication within the team, thereby increasing group cohesion. These results support Callaway's (1982) contentions that leadership variables other than leadership style should be investigated, i.e., gender of coach and athlete satisfaction with leader behavior.

General Satisfaction

In the model concerning general satisfaction with coaching leadership, female-coached athletes indicated significantly higher satisfaction with the overall coaching leadership they received than did male-coached athletes. However, coaching gender only accounted for approximately 7% of the variability of general satisfaction. This suggests that, although coaching gender is a statistically significant contributor to the explanation of the satisfaction of female athletes with their coaching leadership, other related and/or interactive factors should be investigated.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of this study was to determine if differences in leadership satisfaction existed between female-coached and male-coached female intercollegiate basketball athletes. Both groups of coaches were similar in demographic traits and leadership style components. Ten athletes from each of five male-coached and five female-coached NCAA Division I basketball teams were the subjects ($N = 100$) for this study.

Athlete satisfaction with coaching leadership was measured in three ways using the Leadership Scale for Sports (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1978): (a) quantified discrepancy between the leadership behaviors an athlete desires her coach to use, and the behaviors actually employed by her coach, (b) specific satisfaction with leadership behaviors, and (c) general satisfaction with overall coaching leadership.

Athletes indicated preferences for coaching leadership behavior in five dimensions on Chelladurai and Saleh's (1978) Preference Version of the Leadership Scale for Sports (LSS) and perceptions of actual coaching leadership behavior in five dimensions on the Perceived Version of the LSS. A discrepancy score, the absolute difference between the preferred and perceived scores in each leadership dimension, was calculated for each athlete.

In addition, athletes indicated satisfaction with the five dimensions of coaching leadership by an evaluation of each factor on the Specific Satisfaction Form of the LSS. Athletes indicated satisfaction

with general coaching leadership by a score on the General Satisfaction Form of the LSS.

There were significant correlations among the categories of variables (i.e., discrepancy, specific, and general satisfaction). The relationships among the discrepancy in the five dimensions with general satisfaction provided support for Yukl's (1971) discrepancy theory and Chelladurai's (1980, 1984) contingency model of leadership in athletics. The relationships between the discrepancy and specific satisfaction for the five dimensions both provided support for Schliesman's (1985) results and added new information.

Multivariate and/or univariate analyses were utilized to determine if significant coaching gender differences existed for: (a) the discrepancy scores for each dimension of leader behavior, (b) the specific satisfaction for each dimension of leader behavior, and (c) general satisfaction with overall coaching behavior. A significant multivariate effect, but only one significant univariate effect, was found to exist in the discrepancy between actual and preferred coaching leadership behaviors. Female-coached athletes had lower discrepancy only in the rewarding behavior dimension than did male-coached athletes.

A significant multivariate effect and five significant univariate effects of gender of coach were found for the dimensions of leader behavior. The multivariate difference resulted from the five dimensions having different strengths of effect (r^2). When compared with athletes coached by men, athletes coached by women expressed significantly greater satisfaction with their coach's training and instruction,

democratic behavior, autocratic behavior, social support, and rewarding behavior.

A significant univariate effect of gender of coach was also found on athlete satisfaction with overall coaching leadership behavior. Female-coached athletes indicated higher satisfaction with overall coaching behavior than did male-coached athletes.

Of the eleven univariate analyses conducted on athlete leadership satisfaction variables by gender of coach, seven produced significant results and four produced nonsignificant results. Significant coaching gender effects on the rewarding behavior dimension were found for both the discrepancy scores and the specific satisfaction scores. The other four significant coaching gender effects on dimensions of leader behavior were only on the specific satisfaction scores for training and instruction, democratic behavior, autocratic behavior, and social support. All significant results indicated that female-coached female basketball players were more satisfied with the leadership behavior of their coaches than were male-coached female basketball players.

Conclusions

On the basis of the results of this study, the following conclusions were made.

1. Yukl's (1971) discrepancy theory and that portion of Chelladurai's (1980) contingency model of leadership in athletics, that subordinate satisfaction is a function of the discrepancy between the behaviors actually shown by a leader and the leader behaviors

preferred by the subordinate, was supported by the significant relationships between general satisfaction and the discrepancy scores for each of the five dimensions of leader behavior.

2. Female intercollegiate basketball athletes coached by women had less discrepancy between their preferred and perceived actual coaching behavior for the rewarding behavior dimension than did female intercollegiate basketball athletes coached by men.

3. Female-coached female basketball athletes indicated higher specific satisfaction than male-coached female athletes in the leader behavior dimensions of training and instructions, democratic behavior, autocratic behavior, social support, and rewarding behavior.

4. Female-coached female basketball athletes were more satisfied with overall coaching leadership than were male-coached female basketball athletes.

Recommendations

On the basis of the results of this study and the existent literature, the following recommendations for future research were made.

1. In addition to gender of coach, other related and/or interactive factors should be investigated.

2. Athlete preferences for coaching behaviors should be examined.

3. The interrelationship of coaching leadership style and gender of coach with athlete satisfaction should be evaluated.

4. In order to determine true generalizability, the effects of coaching gender on the satisfaction of athletes in sports other than women's basketball should be evaluated.

5. Individual differences and their effect on the relationship between coach and athlete should be explored.

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SELECTED REFERENCE LIST

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

LEADERSHIP SCALE FOR SPORTS

(PERCEIVED VERSION)

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

Each of the following statements describes a 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 (50% of the time)
4. SELDOM (about 25% of the time)
5. NEVER.

Please indicate your observation 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.

My coach:	ALWAYS	OFTEN	OCCASIONALLY	SELDOM	NEVER	
1. Sees to it that athletes work to capacity.	—	—	—	—	—	1
2. Asks for the opinion of the athletes on 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 athletes' 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
11. Makes sure that the coach's function in the team is understood by all 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 decision making.	—	—	—	—	—	15
16. Sees that an athlete is rewarded for a good performance.	—	—	—	—	—	16
17. Figures ahead on what should be done.	—	—	—	—	—	17
18. Encourages athletes to make suggestions for ways to conduct practices.	—	—	—	—	—	18

	ALWAYS	OFTEN	OCCASIONALLY	SELDOM	NEVER	
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 in the coach.	—	—	—	—	—	25
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 athletes' 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 B

LEADERSHIP SCALE FOR SPORTS
(PREFERRED VERSION)

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

Each of the following statements describes a 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 (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 your own personal preference that is required. There are no right or wrong answers. Your spontaneous and honest response is important for the success of the study.

I prefer my coach to:	ALWAYS	OFTEN	OCCASIONALLY	SELDOM	NEVER	
1. See to it that athletes work to capacity.	—	—	—	—	—	1
2. Ask for the opinion of the athletes on strategies for 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 athletes' mistakes.	—	—	—	—	—	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
11. Make sure that the coach's function in the team is understood by all 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 decision making.	—	—	—	—	—	15
16. See that an athlete is rewarded for a good performance.	—	—	—	—	—	16
17. Figure ahead on what should be done.	—	—	—	—	—	17

	ALWAYS	OFTEN	OCCASIONALLY	SELDOM	NEVER	
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 in the coach.	—	—	—	—	—	25
26. Point out each athlete's strengths and weaknesses.	—	—	—	—	—	26
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 athletes' 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 athlete 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. Speak in a manner which discourages questions.	—	—	—	—	—	40

APPENDIX C

LEAST PREFERRED CO-WORKER SCALE

LEAST PREFERRED CO-WORKER (LPC) SCALE
Fiedler (1976)

INSTRUCTIONS: Think of all the people with whom you have ever worked, and then think of the person with whom you could work least well. He or she may be someone with whom you work now or with whom you have worked in the past. This does not have to be the person you liked least well, but should be the person with whom you had the most difficulty getting a job done, the one individual with whom you could work least well.

Describe this person on the scale which follows by placing an "X" in the appropriate space. The scale consists of pairs of words which are opposite in meaning, such as Very Neat and Very Untidy. Between each pair of words are eight spaces to form a scale like this:

Very Neat Very Untidy
 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1

Thus, if you ordinarily think of the person with whom you work least well as being quite neat, you would mark an "X" in the space marked 7, like this:

Very Neat X Very Untidy
 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1

8 - Very Neat	4 - Slightly Untidy
7 - Quite Neat	3 - Somewhat Untidy
6 - Somewhat Neat	2 - Quite Untidy
5 - Slightly Neat	1 - Very Untidy

If you ordinarily think of this person as being only slightly neat, you would put your "X" in space 5. If you would think of this person as being very untidy (not neat), you would put your "X" in space 1.

Look at the words at both ends of the line before you mark your "X". There are no right or wrong answers. Work rapidly; your first answer is likely to be the best. Do not omit any items, and mark each item only once.

Pleasant	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	Unpleasant	<u> </u>
	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1		
Friendly	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	Unfriendly	<u> </u>
	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1		
Rejecting	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	Accepting	<u> </u>
	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1		
Tense	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	Relaxed	<u> </u>
	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1		
Distant	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	Close	<u> </u>
	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1		
Cold	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	Warm	<u> </u>
	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1		
Supportive	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	Hostile	<u> </u>
	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1		
Boring	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	Interesting	<u> </u>
	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1		
Quarrelsome	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	Harmonious	<u> </u>
	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1		
Gloomy	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	Cheerful	<u> </u>
	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1		
Open	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	Guarded	<u> </u>
	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1		
Backbiting	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	Loyal	<u> </u>
	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1		
Untrustworthy	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	Trustworthy	<u> </u>
	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1		
Considerate	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	Inconsiderate	<u> </u>
	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1		
Nasty	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	Nice	<u> </u>
	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1		
Agreeable	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	Disagreeable	<u> </u>
	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1		
Insincere	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	Sincere	<u> </u>
	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1		
Kind	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	Unkind	<u> </u>
	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1		
									TOTAL	<u> </u>

APPENDIX D

**LEADERSHIP SCALE FOR SPORTS (GENERAL
SATISFACTION FORM)**

GENERAL LEADERSHIP (COACHING) SATISFACTION

How satisfied are you with the leadership you received?

CHECK ONE

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

APPENDIX E

LEADERSHIP SCALE FOR SPORTS (SPECIFIC
SATISFACTION FORM)

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

Please indicate your degree of satisfaction by placing an "X" in the appropriate space. Answer all items even if you are unsure of any. There are no right or wrong answers. Your spontaneous and honest response is important for the success of the study.

	VERY DISSATISFIED	MODERATELY DISSATISFIED	SLIGHTLY DISSATISFIED	NEUTRAL	SLIGHTLY SATISFIED	MODERATELY SATISFIED	VERY SATISFIED
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

LETTER OF INQUIRY

The University of Tennessee
 School of Health, Physical Education and Recreation
 Knoxville 37996-2700



Division of Physical Education

February 7, 1986

Telephone (615) 974-5111

Dear Coach:

The purpose of this letter is to request the cooperation of NCAA Division I Women's basketball coaches and their teams for a thesis study examining athlete satisfaction in conjunction with coaching style and gender.

Participation in this study would involve a time commitment of approximately 45 minutes for (a) the coach to complete a leadership style questionnaire and for (b) the athletes to complete two questionnaires measuring attitudes toward the team and 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 and/or coach will have the right to complete or to refuse to complete the survey at that time. Confidentiality will be maintained since only total group results will be reported. No specific team nor individual results will be identified.

Research exploring coaching effectiveness and the attitudes of athletes is needed in women's athletics today, and your cooperation would be a valuable asset to the success of this study. If you would be willing to participate, please detach and return the completed information sheet in the provided self-addressed envelope by February 14. A questionnaire packet will then be sent to you by February 21.

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

Sincerely,

L. Lyn Mitchell Dr. Patricia Beitel,
 Advisor

Date: _____ PLEASE DETACH AND RETURN BY FEBRUARY 14, 1986

Yes! I would be willing to participate in this leader satisfaction study.

Head Coach _____

Sex: M F

School _____

Number of Team Members _____

Address _____

Phone _____

Return to: Lyn Mitchell
 Division of Physical
 Education
 University of Tennessee
 Knoxville, TN 37996-27C

APPENDIX G

COACHES' DEMOGRAPHIC DATA FORM

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

SEX: 1. Female 2. Male

AGE: _____

MARITAL STATUS: 1. Single 2. Married 3. Divorced

YEARS COACHING: Secondary level _____
College level _____
Division I _____

YEARS AT PRESENT INSTITUTION: _____

APPROXIMATE UNDERGRADUATE ENROLLMENT AT PRESENT INSTITUTION: _____

WIN/LOSS RECORD, OVERALL COLLEGE CAREER: _____

NUMBER OF ASSISTANT COACHES: FEMALES _____ MALES _____

WIN/LOSS RECORD, THIS SEASON _____ DATE: _____

WHAT IS/WAS THE DATE OF YOUR FINAL GAME IN REGULAR SEASON PLAY FOR 1986?

CONFERENCE (NCAA DIVISION I): _____

DOES YOUR CONFERENCE HAVE A CONFERENCE CHAMPIONSHIP TOURNAMENT?

YES _____ NO _____

IF SO, WILL YOUR TEAM BE COMPETING IN IT IN 1986? YES _____ NO _____

IF SO, WHEN DOES THE TOURNAMENT BEGIN? DATE: _____

IS YOUR TEAM INVOLVED IN ANY OTHER POST SEASON PLAY IN 1986?

YES _____ NO _____

IF SO, PLEASE DESCRIBE: _____

_____DATES: _____

DATE COACH COMPLETED FORMS: _____

DATE ATHLETES COMPLETED FORMS: _____

APPENDIX H

INFORMED CONSENT FORM: COACH, ATHLETE

COACH'S INFORMED CONSENT

I understand that the purpose of this study is to determine if there are relationships among coaching style, gender, and satisfaction with coaching leadership.

I understand that I will complete two survey forms which will take a maximum total time of 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 I may withdraw my consent and terminate my participation at any time without penalty.

I understand that all of my responses and my athletes' responses and scores will remain completely confidential, and that only group data will be used in reporting the results of the study. I understand that my completion of the surveys and the distribution of questionnaires to my athletes indicate my consent in lieu of a signature.

ATHLETE'S INFORMED CONSENT

I understand that the purpose of this study is to determine if there are relationships among coaching style, gender, and satisfaction with coaching leadership.

I understand that I will complete four survey forms which will take a maximum total time of 45 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 all my responses and scores will remain completely confidential, and that completion of the following item and the subsequent three forms indicate my consent in lieu of a signature.

APPENDIX I

FOLLOW-UP LETTER TO NONRESPONDING COACHES

The University of Tennessee
School of Health, Physical Education and Recreation
Knoxville 37996-2700



Division of Physical Education

Telephone (615) 974-5111

Dear Coach:

In February, you agreed to participate in a thesis study examining the effects of coaching gender on athlete satisfaction. We have begun analyzing the data that have been returned, but notice that data from you and your team are absent. We feel that the information generated by you will be a valuable asset to our study. Please complete the questionnaires you received in February by May 1, 1986 and return them so that we may include your data in our analysis. Disregard the previously stipulated time constraints involving tournament and post-season play. If you did not receive a questionnaire packet, please notify us immediately; or if you have any questions, please feel free to contact us.

Thank you very much for your cooperation. We are looking forward to receiving your completed questionnaire packets soon.

Sincerely,

L. Lyn Mitchell Patricia A. Beitel
 Advisor

An Academic Unit of the College of Education

APPENDIX J

SCORING THE LEAST PREFERRED CO-WORKER SCALE

SCORING FOR LEAST PREFERRED CO-WORKER SCALE:

									Scoring	
Pleasant	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Unpleasant	_____
Friendly	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Unfriendly	_____
Rejecting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Accepting	_____
Tense	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Relax	_____
Distant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Close	_____
Cold	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Warm	_____
Supportive	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Hostile	_____
Boring	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Interesting	_____
Quarrelsome	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Harmonious	_____
Gloomy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Cheerful	_____
Open	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Guarded	_____
Backbiting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Loyal	_____
Untrustworthy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Trustworthy	_____
Considerate	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Inconsiderate	_____
Nasty	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Nice	_____
Agreeable	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Disagreeable	_____
Insincere	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	Sincere	_____
Kind	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	Unkind	_____
TOTAL									_____	

APPENDIX K

COACH'S LETTER OF INSTRUCTION

February, 1986

Dear Coach

We would like to thank you for your agreement to participate in this thesis study examining athlete satisfaction in conjunction with coaching style and gender. Please have all forms completed between the end of your regular season games, and the beginning of your conference tournament or other post season play. Your cooperation is greatly appreciated.

Enclosed please find for the athletes:

- (a) An instruction sheet regarding how the tests are to be administered. These instructions must be read to the team members as they begin to complete their questionnaires. Tests are designed to measure athlete perceptions of coaching leadership, thus, the tests should be administered by a team manager in the absence of the coaching staff.
- (b) A questionnaire packet for each athlete containing: (1) a General Satisfaction with Leadership Question (pink), and (2) a Perceived Form of the Leadership Scale for Sports (green).
- (c) A second questionnaire packet for each athlete containing: (1) a Preferred Form of the Leadership Scale for Sports (gold) and (2) a Specific Leadership Satisfaction Survey (blue).
- (d) A stamped envelope to return the coach's surveys and the athlete questionnaires.

Stapled to this letter please find for your own completion:

- (a) A demographic data form (white).
- (b) A Least Preferred Co-worker Questionnaire (yellow).

While you complete your portion of this study, please isolate yourself from team members and from your coaching staff. Please answer all questions as honestly as possible. You will first fill out the Coach's Demographic Information form (white sheet). After you have completed this form, turn to the next page, the Least Preferred Co-worker Scale (yellow sheet). Read the directions carefully and then proceed with the test.

When you have finished both tests, please remove the letter and give the completed surveys to the team manager to include with the completed athlete questionnaires for mailing. Please call 615-974-5111 or 615-974-1277 if you have any questions.

Thank you again for your cooperation. We are looking forward to receiving you completed questionnaires in the near future.

Sincerely,

L. Lyn Mitchell Patricia A. Beitel
Advisor

/akh

Enclosures

APPENDIX L

INSTRUCTIONS FOR ADMINISTRATION
OF ATHLETE QUESTIONNAIRES

TEST INSTRUCTIONS

TO THE TEST ADMINISTRATOR:

1. Distribute a pink test packet to each team member.
PLEASE READ THE FOLLOWING INSTRUCTIONS TO YOUR TEAM MEMBERS.
2. "Read the consent statement." (If there are no questions continue.)
3. "Turn to the General Leadership Satisfaction form (pink). Complete this form as it relates to your present head coach."

"During this test, please do not discuss the questions or your answers with your teammates. Please remember there are no right or wrong answers and that your responses are meant to reflect your attitudes and feelings. Please answer honestly." (allow time for this)
4. "Turn to the Perceived Version of the Leadership Scale for Sports (green test). Read the instructions carefully and complete this test as it relates to your present head coach. After you have completed this test, bring your test packet to the test administrator who will give you another test packet to complete. This packet contains two questionnaires similar to the ones in the first packet, the Preferred Version of the Leadership Scale for Sports (gold test) and a Specific Satisfaction Survey (blue test). Be sure to read the instructions carefully before completing them. When you have finished, return your packet to the test administrator who will collect all test packets."

AS ATHLETES RETURN THE PINK TEST PACKET TO YOU:

1. Notice the number in the upper right hand corner of the pink test packet.
2. You must give each athlete a gold (second) test packet with the same number in the upper right hand corner. Double-check! This is very important!
3. Do not give an athlete a gold test packet until the first pink packet is returned to you.

Place all completed athlete test packets in the provided return envelope, together with the coach's demographic information form and Least Preferred Co-Worker Scale, seal the envelope and mail it.

THANK YOU!

APPENDIX M

LETTER OF GRATITUDE

The University of Tennessee
School of Health, Physical Education and Recreation
Knoxville 37996-2700



Division of Physical Education

Telephone (615) 974-5111

March , 1986

Dear Coach

Thank you very much for your cooperation in the completion of the questionnaires for the thesis study examining athlete satisfaction in conjunction with coaching style and gender. The data collected from you and your team will certainly be a valuable contribution to our study.

When the data have been analyzed with that of the thirty-one other participating teams, in late Spring, we will be very happy to provide you with a summary of our findings.

Again, thank you very much for your cooperation!

Sincerely,

L. Lyn Mitchell *Patricia A. Beitel*
L. Lyn Mitchell Patricia A. Beitel
Advisor

/akh

VITA

Lisa Lyn Mitchell was born in Lubboch, Texas, in June 1962. She is the only child of Harry and Charlene Mitchell.

Lyn was a 1985 honor graduate from the University of Wisconsin, LaCrosse, with a Bachelor of Science degree in physical education. She attended the graduate school at The University of Tennessee, Knoxville, where she was a teaching assistant in the undergraduate physical education activities program. She graduated in August 1986 with a Master of Science degree in physical education. Lyn is currently employed at The University of the South in Sewahee, Tennessee, as the head field hockey coach, the assistant women's basketball coach, and the director of the women's intramural activity program.