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I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by Earl Steven Schliesman entitled "Situational and Member Characteristics, Leader Behaviors, and Follower Satisfaction: A Leadership Study in the Sports Setting." I have examined the final copy of this dissertation for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, with a major in Education.

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We have read this dissertation
and recommend its acceptance:

Accepted for the Council:

Vice Provost and
Dean of The Graduate School

SITUATIONAL AND MEMBER CHARACTERISTICS, LEADER BEHAVIORS, AND FOLLOWER SATISFACTION: A LEADERSHIP STUDY IN THE SPORTS SETTING

A Dissertation

Presented for the

Doctor of Philosophy

Degree

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Earl Steven Schliesman

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to test Chelladurai's model (1979) which suggested that situation characteristics and member characteristics influence the relationship between leader behavior and subordinate satisfaction and to evaluate the interaction of the following theoretical or hypothetical frames of reference: (a) path goal theory (House, 1971), (b) discrepancy theory (Yukl, 1971), (c) the sex role congruency hypothesis (Nieva & Gutek, 1981), and (d) situational leadership theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988). Central to the investigation was the relationship between satisfaction with leadership and (a) actual perceived leader behavior and (b) the discrepancy score for leader behavior.

Subjects for this study were 73 female athletes and 141 male athletes from one National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) Division I institution. Women's and men's sports represented in this study were: (a) tennis, (b) basketball, (c) volleyball, (d) swimming and (e) track and field. Men's baseball was also included.

General and specific satisfaction with leadership were measured by using forms of one and five questions respectively. Preferred and actual perceived leader behaviors, were measured using the Preferred and Perceived Forms of the Leadership Scale for Sports (Chelladurai &

Saleh, 1980) in the following dimensions: (a) training and instruction, (b) social support, (c) positive feedback, (d) democratic behavior, and (e) autocratic behavior.

Pairwise correlation (Safer, 1985) and stepwise regression (Joyner, 1985) procedures were employed. The results of the data suggested: (a) the contingency model (Chelladurai, 1979) was supported as member and situation characteristics were found to influence the leader/follower relationship, (b) path goal theory (House, 1971) was generally supported as ambiguity was found to influence the leader/follower relationship, (c) discrepancy theory (Yukl, 1971) was generally supported as lower discrepancy scores tended to be related with higher levels of satisfaction with leadership for all dimensions except autocratic behavior, (d) the sex role congruency hypothesis (Nieva & Gutek, 1981) was supported as the sex of the follower was found to influence the leader/follower relationship, and (e) situational leadership theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988) was partially supported as readiness levels were found to influence the leader/follower relationship.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

While it is generally accepted that the influence of a team coach on team performance is a major one (Tutko & Ogilvie, 1967), empirical evidence pointing out which leadership behaviors will produce the strongest influence on individual satisfaction is lacking. If indeed the coach's leadership impact is significant, then it would seem beneficial to both novice and experienced mentors to have hard data indicating not only which leadership behaviors are most effective in raising levels of follower satisfaction, but also under what circumstances they are likely to work (Chelladurai, 1979, 1984). The contingency model of leadership in athletics (Chelladurai, 1979) represents an effort to apply situational leadership theory directly to the sport setting. This theory is, in a way, a synthesis of House's (1971) path-goal theory, Yukl's (1971) discrepancy model of subordinate satisfaction, and the adaptive-reactive theory of Osborn and Hunt (1975). Concurring with House, Chelladurai's theory stresses the need for the coach to know the preference of the players in order to provide satisfactory experiences (Figure 1). Chelladurai (1979) suggests that satisfaction is the result of the discrepancy between subordinate preferences for

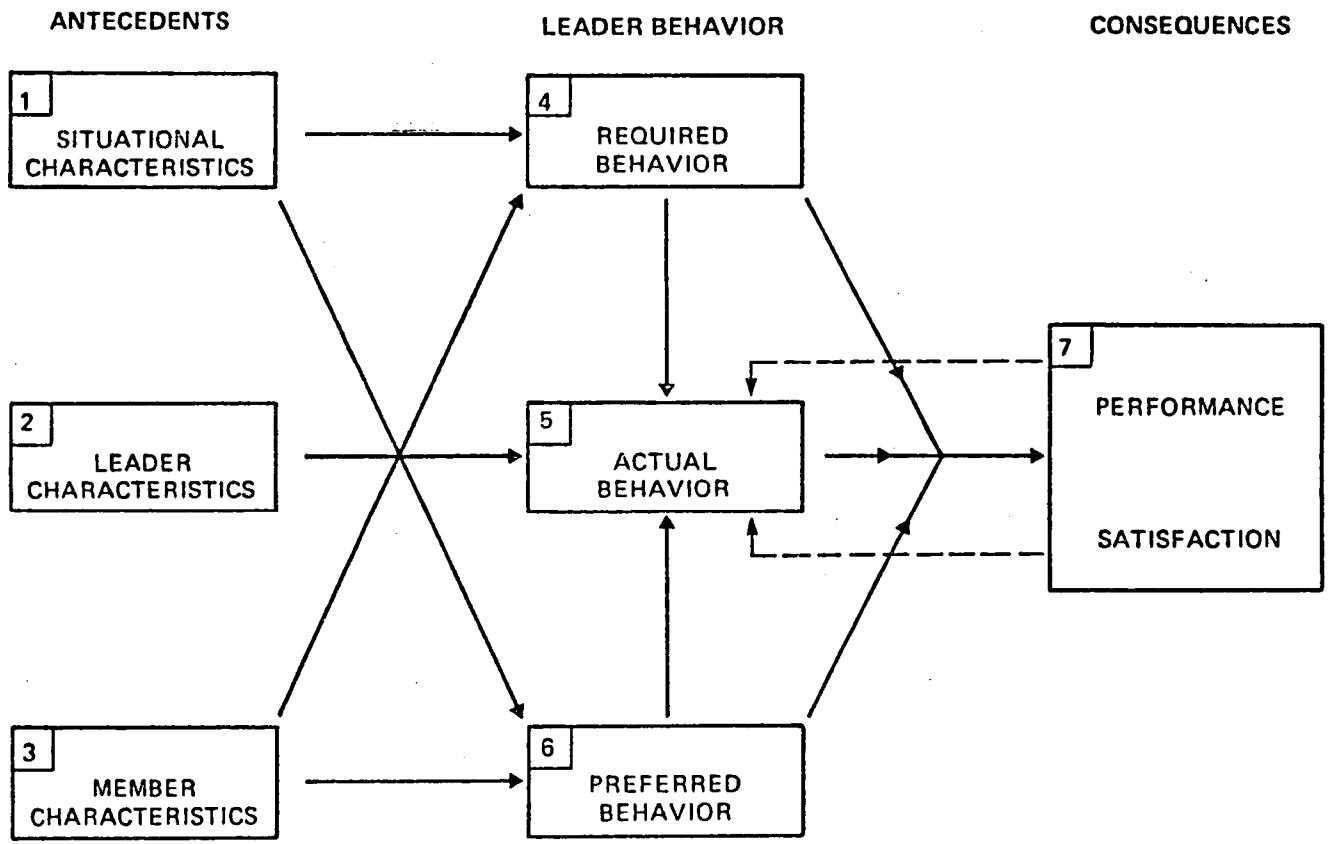


Figure 1. Contingency model of leadership for sports.

P. Chelladurai (in press). Leadership in sports: A review. International Journal of Sport Psychology.

particular leader behaviors and the actual leader behaviors perceived by athletes. This theoretical proposition is parallel to Yukl's (1971) position on congruence and satisfaction. Finally, Chelladurai (1979) indicates a need for the leader to adapt to situational factors dictated by the larger organization, as well as the need for the leader to react to the players' preferences for certain leader behaviors, a point made by Osborn and Hunt (1975).

Chelladurai's (1979) contingency model of leadership in athletics suggests a relationship between satisfaction and organizational structure, subordinate preference, and actual leader behavior (Chelladurai, 1979, 1984; Chelladurai & Carron, 1982, 1983; Chelladurai & Saleh, 1980; Horne & Carron, 1985; Mitchel, 1986; Schliesman, 1985, 1987). Chelladurai theorizes that subordinate performance and subordinate satisfaction interact with each other and are directly related to the congruence of: (a) leadership behavior prescribed by organizational and/or situational characteristics, (b) member characteristics, (c) the leadership behavior preferred by the participants, and (d) the actual behavior displayed by the leader. Of these four aspects of leadership behavior, only the actual behavior displayed by the coach can be controlled by the coach. In addition Chelladurai's (1979) contingency model of leadership has an apparent relationship to and/or

interaction with four theories/hypotheses which are related to leadership in the sport setting. Those theories/ hypotheses include: (a) path-goal theory (House, 1971), (b) discrepancy theory (Yukl, 1971), (c) sex role congruency hypothesis, (Nieva & Gutek, 1981), and (d) situational theory, (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988).

Path goal theory (House, 1971) is related to the contingency model of leadership in athletics by the inclusion of ambiguity as a factor which leaders must address in order to clear the path towards group goal achievement. In sport, the degree of task dependence in any sport is associated with ambiguity and as such, is considered with respect to situational characteristics dealing with independent and interdependent sports. Since the nature of interdependent sports is such that the successful completion of tasks is more difficult to ascertain than for independent sports, the coach's role in clarifying the path to goal is inherently different for interdependent sports. In terms of interdependent sports it is predicted that task behaviors, are more effective in producing satisfaction with leadership than are people oriented behaviors (House, 1971). It is the influence of the degree of ambiguity, then, within the context of path goal theory (House, 1971) and the contingency model of

leadership in sports (Chelladurai, 1979), which is a key issue.

Yukl's (1971) discrepancy theory interacts with Chelladurai's (1979) contingency model of leadership by integrating the follower's preferences for particular leader behaviors. Discrepancy theory predicts that satisfaction with leadership increases as the actual perceived leader behaviors become more congruent with the leader behaviors which followers prefer. Thus, in the present study, the relationship between satisfaction with leadership and the discrepancy between actual perceived leader behaviors and preferences for specific leader behaviors is considered across all situational and member characteristics in order to determine whether satisfaction with leadership increases when leaders provide the type of behaviors which the followers prefer.

The sex role congruency hypothesis (Nieva & Gutek, 1981) suggests that gender role expectancies may impact on the relationships between satisfaction with leadership and:
(a) actual perceived leader behaviors, and/or
(b) discrepancy scores representing the difference between preferred leader behaviors and actual perceived leader behaviors. The terms, "sex" and "gender" have both been used in leadership research which is germane to this study. In as much as the phenomena under investigation are gender

role behavior issues, the term "gender is used in instances which pertain to this study. The term "sex" is used when confusion may result from substituting "gender", (i.e., "the sex role congruency hypothesis," and/or studies in the review of literature which specifically refer to sex differences). The sex role congruency hypothesis suggests that subordinates are most satisfied with leaders, male or female, whose actions (i.e., leader behaviors) are consistent (congruent) with traditional gender role stereotypes. Male leaders who are more independent and directive are predicted to have followers who are more satisfied than male leaders who are less task oriented. Conversely, female leaders who display leader behaviors which are more people oriented and democratic in nature are predicted to have followers who are more satisfied than female leaders who show higher levels of autocracy and initiating structure. The gender of the follower (a member characteristic in Chelladurai's model) and the gender of the follower relative to the gender of the leader (a situational characteristic in Chelladurai's model) are representative of the projections of the sex role congruency hypothesis with respect to the potential influence of specific leader behaviors upon the follower's satisfaction with leadership.

Hersey and Blanchard's (1988) situational theory focuses on the concept of readiness as a factor which may interact with the leader/follower relationship. Readiness, i.e., the ability and willingness to perform tasks necessary to achieve group goals (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988), can be operationalized in the context of the follower's length of experience (a member characteristic in Chelladurai's model) in his or her sport. Situational theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1969, 1988) suggests that effective leadership results from the selection of types of leader behaviors based, in part, on the amount of experience which the follower has acquired. Situational leadership suggests that leaders of followers who are low in readiness, i.e., unable and unwilling, would be most effective using leader behaviors which are highly task oriented and low in relationship. Followers who are moderate in readiness, i.e., who are either able or willing, but not both, respond best to leaders who use leader behaviors which are high in both task and relationship orientation. Finally, situational leadership suggests that followers who are high in readiness, i.e., able and willing to complete necessary tasks, are most effectively led by people using leader behaviors which are low in both task and relationship orientation. It is in this sense, and in the sense that leadership effectiveness

is closely allied with follower satisfaction, that Hersey and Blanchard's theory is considered.

If any one or more of the theories and/or the hypothesis are correct, then it becomes clear that effective coaches need to take into consideration factors other than their own personality when deciding on appropriate leadership behaviors. Those three factors include: (a) the situational characteristics, i.e., the gender of the coach relative to the gender of the athlete, the degree of interplayer dependence that is inherent in the activity, and the nature of the sport itself; (b) the member characteristics, i.e., degree of readiness for the sport and the gender of the athlete; and (c) the leadership behavior preferences of the individual participants. The main focus of this study was to examine the connection between player satisfaction with leadership and: (a) the perceived actual leader behaviors, and (b) the discrepancy between preferred leader behaviors and actual perceived leader behaviors, within the context of situational and member characteristics.

Statement of the Problem

The purposes of this study were: (a) to test portions of Chelladurai's model (1979) which suggest that leadership antecedent factors (i.e., situation characteristics and

member characteristics) influence the relationship between leader behavior and subordinate satisfaction, and (b) to test other related theories and the hypothesis in the context of Chelladurai's contingency model. The question is whether the nature of the relationship between leader behavior and satisfaction is modified by differences brought about by situation and/or member characteristics (Figure 1, p. 2). Chelladurai's model was evaluated in relation to the following theoretical or hypothetical frames of reference: (a) path-goal theory, (House, 1971), (b) discrepancy theory, (Yukl, 1971), (c) the sex role congruency hypothesis, (Nieva & Gutek, 1981), and (d) situational theory, (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988). Central to the investigation was the relationship between satisfaction with leadership and actual perceived leader behavior and the discrepancy score for leader behavior.

Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were based on Chelladurai's (1979) contingency model of leadership in athletics and subsequent literature in the area. Given the problem under investigation in this study, the following directional hypotheses were supported if the respective theories or hypotheses were true.

Subjects for this study are members of eleven teams including women's and men's basketball, tennis, track and field, swimming, and volleyball, as well as men's baseball. In order to balance the model and to keep the numbers of subjects as close to equal as possible throughout the investigation, hypotheses are tested initially using subjects from the ten teams which are paired by gender. Where appropriate (Hypotheses 1b, 2c, 4b, 5c, 6, 7b, 8c, 10b, 11c, and 12), male baseball players are included under a separate heading.

Relationship Between General Satisfaction and Actual Perceived Leader Behavior Dimensions

Situational Characteristics--Task Dependence

1a. Within independent sports (tennis, track and field, and swimming), there is a significant positive linear correlation between general satisfaction with leadership and the following actual perceived leader behaviors: (a) social support, and (b) democratic behavior. Path goal theory (House, 1971) suggests that since independent tasks require relatively little interaction with teammates in order to perform, people oriented leader behaviors such as social support and democratic behavior will have a stronger impact on subordinate satisfaction. Within the independent task context, individual participants have no other teammates to

whom they can attribute unsuccessful task performance. Therefore the coach becomes more significant in providing people oriented leadership behaviors.

1b. Within interdependent sports (volleyball and basketball, and baseball), there is a significant positive linear correlation between general satisfaction with leadership and the following actual perceived leader behaviors: (a) training and instruction, (b) positive feedback, and (c) autocratic behavior. Path goal theory (House, 1971) proposes that satisfaction with leadership in relatively ambiguous situations increases when task oriented behaviors are employed by the leader. Task oriented behaviors clarify the path to goal achievement and thus reduce ambiguity. Since interdependent sports such as volleyball, basketball, and baseball are relatively more ambiguous than independent sports such as tennis, track and field, and swimming, it is hypothesized that in the interdependent settings satisfaction with general leadership is related to task oriented behaviors such as training and instruction, positive feedback, and autocratic behavior.

Situational Characteristics--Relative Gender

2a. Among female athletes whose coach is female, there will be significant positive linear correlation between general satisfaction with leadership and the

following actual perceived leader behaviors: (a) social support, and (b) democratic behavior. The sex role congruency hypothesis (Nieva & Gutek, 1981) proposes that followers experience a greater degree of satisfaction when their leader exhibits behaviors which are consistent with traditional gender role expectancies. Since females are generally stereotyped by society as being more people oriented than males the hypothesis would predict more satisfaction for those female leaders who employ people oriented leader behaviors such as social support and democratic behavior.

2b. Among female athletes whose coach is male, there will be a significant positive linear correlation between general satisfaction with leadership and the following actual perceived leader behaviors: (a) training and instruction, (b) positive feedback, and (c) autocratic behavior. If the sex role congruency hypothesis is accurate then female athletes would be more satisfied with male coaches who exhibit behaviors which are associated with the task oriented stereotype for males. That is, male leaders would be expected to be less people oriented and more likely to emphasize training and instruction, positive feedback (positive feedback is performance dependent), and autocratic behavior.

2c. Among male athletes who have male coaches in the sports of: (basketball, tennis, track and field, swimming, and volleyball, and baseball) there is a significant positive linear correlation between general satisfaction with leadership and the following actual perceived leader behaviors: (a) training and instruction, (b) positive feedback, and (c) autocratic behavior. Male athletes were predicted to react more favorably to task oriented leader behaviors from male coaches. The impact of the sex role congruency hypothesis may be two fold in this case. Not only are male athletes predicted to expect structuring type behaviors from male leaders, but male followers, also subject to gender role stereotyping, are expected to prefer training and instruction, positive feedback, and autocratic behavior.

Situational Characteristics--Specific Sport

3. Within the sport of basketball there will be a significantly stronger positive linear correlation than within the sport of volleyball between general satisfaction with leadership and actual perceived leader behaviors in: (a) training and instruction, (b) positive reinforcement, and (c) autocratic behavior. Although both sports are interdependent and are ambiguous by nature, volleyball is assumed to be significantly less ambiguous than basketball. Restrictions prescribed by rules: (a) limit the number of

times and the manner in which a team or an individual may hit the ball at a given time, (b) physically separate the teams, and (c) mark the conclusion of a game by the number of points scored. Each of these characteristics reduce ambiguity in volleyball as opposed to basketball, thus, according to Path-Goal Theory, there is less need for structuring behaviors such as training and instruction, positive reinforcement, and autocratic behavior (House, 1971) in volleyball than in basketball.

Member Characteristics--Gender of the Athlete

Neither Path-Goal theory (House, 1971) nor Chelladurai's (1979) contingency theory provide specific guidelines for predicting the effects which athlete gender would have upon the relationship between satisfaction with leadership and leader behaviors. Thus, athlete gender is one application of the model which needs clarification.

4a. Among female athletes, there is a significant positive linear correlation between general satisfaction with leadership and the following actual perceived leader behaviors: (a) social support, and (b) democratic behavior. Across sports and disregarding the gender of the coach, this hypothesis predicts that female followers express greater satisfaction with leaders who show people oriented behaviors. When coupled with actual perceived leader behaviors, the gender of the follower is a

significant source of influence upon satisfaction, (Kushell & Newton, 1986; Stitt, Schmidt, Price, & Kipnis, 1983; Denmark, 1980). Since gender role stereotyping casts females in caring and people oriented roles it follows that, as a group, female athletes may respond favorably to social support and democratic behavior.

4b. Among male athletes in the sports of: (a) basketball, tennis, track and field, swimming, and volleyball, and (b) baseball, there is a significant positive relationship between general satisfaction with leadership and the following actual perceived leader behaviors: (a) training and instruction, (b) positive feedback, and (c) autocratic behavior. Across sports this hypothesis predicts that male followers would express greater satisfaction with leaders who show task initiating structure type behaviors. When coupled with actual perceived leader behaviors, the gender of the follower is a significant source of influence upon satisfaction, (Kushell & Newton, 1986; Stitt, Schmidt, Price, & Kipnis, 1983; Denmark, 1980). Since gender stereotypes cast males in directive and task oriented roles, it follows that, as a group, male athletes may respond favorably to training and instruction, positive feedback and autocratic behavior.

Member Characteristics--Readiness

5a. Among athletes whose readiness level falls in the low range, there is a significant positive linear correlation between general satisfaction with leadership and the following actual perceived leader behaviors: (a) training and instruction, (b) positive feedback, and (c) autocratic behavior. Among athletes with low levels of readiness, situational theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988) suggests that task oriented leader behaviors are more appropriate than relationship behaviors. It is predicted here that increased levels of actual perceived task oriented leader behaviors (i.e., training and instruction, positive feedback, and autocratic behavior) will be related to higher levels of general satisfaction with leadership.

5b. Among athletes whose readiness level falls in the moderate range, there is a significant positive linear correlation between general satisfaction with leadership and the following actual perceived leader behaviors: (a) training and instruction, (b) social support, (c) positive feedback, (d) democratic behavior, and (e) autocratic behavior. Situational theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988) suggests that followers who have moderate levels of experience require high levels of task oriented behaviors (i.e., training and instruction, positive feedback, and autocratic behavior), as well as relationship

oriented behaviors (i.e., social support, and democratic behavior). It is predicted in this study that increased levels of actual perceived task and relationship oriented leader behaviors (i.e., training and instruction, social support, positive feedback, democratic behavior, and autocratic behavior) will be related to higher levels of general satisfaction with leadership.

5c. Among athletes whose readiness falls in the high range, there are no significant linear correlations between general satisfaction with leadership and the actual perceived leader behavior dimensions. Situational theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988) suggests that followers who have high levels of readiness require relatively low levels of people and task oriented leader behaviors. It is predicted in this study that increased levels of actual perceived relationship oriented leader behaviors (i.e., social support, and democratic behavior) and/or task oriented leader behaviors (i.e., training and instruction, positive feedback, and autocratic behavior) will not be related to higher levels of general satisfaction with leadership.

Relationship Between General Satisfaction and Discrepancy Scores

All Situational and Member Characteristics

6. Among all: (a) female and male athletes in the sports of basketball, tennis, track and field, swimming,

and volleyball, and (b) male baseball players, there is a significant negative linear correlation between general satisfaction with leadership and the discrepancy scores for the following leader behaviors: (a) training and instruction, (b) social support, (c) positive feedback, (d) democratic behavior, and (e) autocratic behavior. The discrepancy theory (Yukl, 1971) portion of the contingency model of leadership for athletics (Chelladurai, 1979) suggests that satisfaction with leadership increases as the discrepancy between preferred and perceived actual leader behaviors decreases. Thus, as athletes' perceptions of actual leader behaviors increase in relation to the leader behaviors preferred by the athletes, the satisfaction with leadership increases.

Relationship Between Specific Satisfaction and the Corresponding Actual Perceived Leader Behaviors

Situational Characteristics--Task Dependence

7a. Within independent sports (tennis, track and field, and swimming), there is a significant positive linear correlation between satisfaction with specific leader behaviors and the corresponding actual perceived behaviors in the following areas: (a) social support, and (b) democratic behavior. Since independent tasks require relatively little interaction with teammates and are less ambiguous than interdependent tasks, people oriented

leadership behaviors such as social support and democratic behavior will have greater influence on satisfaction (House, 1971).

7b. Within interdependent sports (volleyball and basketball, and baseball), there is a significant positive correlation between satisfaction with specific leader behaviors and the corresponding actual perceived behaviors in the following areas: (a) training and instruction, (b) positive reinforcement, and (c) autocratic behavior. Path goal theory (House, 1971) proposes that satisfaction with leadership in relatively ambiguous situations increases when task oriented behaviors are employed by the leader. Task oriented behaviors clarify the path to goal achievement and thus reduce ambiguity. Since interdependent sports such as volleyball, basketball, and baseball are relatively more ambiguous than independent sports such as tennis, track and field, and swimming, it was hypothesized that satisfaction with leadership is related to task oriented behaviors such as training and instruction, positive feedback, and autocratic behavior.

Situational Characteristics--Relative Gender

8a. Among female athletes whose coach is female there is a significant positive linear correlation between satisfaction with specific leader behaviors and the corresponding actual perceived behaviors in the following

areas: (a) social support, and (b) democratic behavior. The sex role congruency hypothesis (Nieva & Gutek, 1981) proposes that followers experience a greater degree of satisfaction when their leader exhibits behaviors which are consistent with traditional gender role expectancies. Since females are stereotyped by society as being more people oriented than males the hypothesis would predict more satisfaction for those female leaders who employ people oriented leader behaviors such as social support and democratic behavior.

8b. Among female athletes whose coach is male there is a significant positive linear correlation between satisfaction with specific leader behaviors and the corresponding actual perceived behaviors in the following areas: (a) training and instruction, (b) positive feedback, and (c) autocratic behavior. If the sex role congruency hypothesis (Nieva & Gutek, 1981) is accurate, then female athletes would be more satisfied with male coaches who exhibit behaviors which are associated with the task oriented stereotype for males. That is, male leaders would be expected to be less people oriented and more likely to emphasize training and instruction, positive feedback (positive feedback is performance dependent), and autocratic behavior.

8c. Among male athletes who have male coaches (basketball, tennis, track and field, swimming, and volleyball, and baseball), there will be a significant positive linear correlation between satisfaction with specific leader behaviors and the corresponding actual perceived behaviors in the following areas: (a) training and instruction, (b) positive feedback, and (c) autocratic behavior. Male athletes were predicted to react more favorably to task oriented leader behaviors from male coaches. The sex role congruency hypothesis (Nieva & Gutek, 1981) may impact doubly in this case. Not only were male athletes predicted to expect structuring type behaviors from male leaders, but male followers, also subject to gender role stereotyping, were expected to prefer training and instruction, positive feedback and autocratic behavior.

Situational Characteristics--Specific Sport

9. Within the sport of basketball there will be a stronger positive linear correlation than within the sport of volleyball, between satisfaction with specific leader behaviors and the corresponding actual perceived behaviors in the following areas: (a) training and instruction, (b) positive reinforcement, and (c) autocratic behavior. Although both sports are interdependent and are relatively ambiguous by nature, volleyball is assumed to be somewhat

less ambiguous than basketball because of restrictions prescribed by rules which: (a) limit the number of times and the ways in which a team or individual may hit the ball at a given time, (b) physically separate the teams, and (c) mark the conclusion of a game by the number of points scored. Each of these characteristics of volleyball reduces the ambiguity, thereby, according to Path goal theory (House, 1971) reducing the need for structuring behaviors such as training and instruction, positive reinforcement, and autocratic behavior.

Member Characteristics--Gender of the Athlete

Neither Path goal theory (House, 1971) nor Chelladurai's (1979) contingency theory provide specific guidelines for predicting the effects which gender would have upon the relationship between specific satisfaction with leadership and perceived actual leader behaviors. Thus, athlete gender is one application of the model which needs clarification.

10a. Among female athletes there is a significant positive linear correlation between satisfaction with specific leader behaviors and the corresponding actual perceived behaviors in the following areas: (a) social support and (b) democratic behavior. Across sports and disregarding the gender of the coach this hypothesis predicted that female followers would express greater

satisfaction with leaders who show people oriented type behaviors. When coupled with leader behaviors, the gender of the follower is a significant source of influence upon satisfaction (Kushell & Newton, 1986; Stitt, Schmidt, Price, & Kipnis, 1983; Denmark, 1980). Since gender role stereotyping casts females in caring and people oriented roles, it follows that, as a group, female athletes may respond favorably to social support and democratic behavior.

10b. Among male athletes there is a significant positive linear correlation between satisfaction with specific leader behaviors and corresponding actual perceived behaviors in: (a) training and instruction, (b) positive feedback, and (c) autocratic behavior. Across sports this hypothesis predicts that male followers will express greater satisfaction with leaders who show task or initiating structure type behaviors. When coupled with leader behaviors, the gender of the follower is a significant source of influence upon satisfaction (Kushell & Newton, 1986; Stitt, Schmidt, Price, & Kipnis, 1983; Denmark, 1980). Since gender role stereotyping casts males in directive and task oriented roles it follows that, as a group, male athletes may respond favorably to training and instruction, positive feedback and autocratic behavior.

Member Characteristics--Readiness

11a. Among athletes whose readiness level falls in the low range there is a significant positive linear correlation between satisfaction with specific leader behaviors and the corresponding actual perceived behaviors in the following areas: (a) training and instruction, (b) positive feedback, and (c) autocratic behavior. Among athletes with low levels of readiness, situational theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988) suggests that task oriented leader behaviors are more appropriate than relationship behaviors. It is predicted here that increased levels of actual perceived task oriented leader behaviors (i.e., training and instruction, positive feedback, and autocratic behavior) will be related to higher levels of satisfaction with the same corresponding leader behavior.

11b. Among athletes whose readiness level falls in the moderate range there is a significant positive linear correlation between satisfaction with specific leadership behaviors and the corresponding actual perceived leader behaviors in the following areas: (a) training and instruction, (b) social support (c) positive feedback, (d) democratic behavior, and (e) autocratic behavior. Situational theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988) suggests that followers who have moderate levels of readiness require high levels of both task oriented behaviors (i.e.,

training and instruction, positive feedback, and autocratic behavior), and relationship oriented behaviors (i.e., social support and democratic behavior). It is predicted in this study that increased levels of actual perceived task and relationship oriented leader behavior (i.e., training and instruction, social support, positive feedback, democratic behavior, and autocratic behavior) will be related to higher levels of specific satisfaction.

11c. Among athletes whose readiness falls in the high range there are no significant linear correlations between satisfaction with specific leadership behaviors and the corresponding actual perceived leader behavior dimensions. Situational theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988) suggests that followers who have high levels of readiness require relatively low levels of people and task oriented leader behaviors. It is predicted in this study that increased levels of actual perceived relationship oriented behaviors (i.e., social support, and democratic behavior) and/or task oriented behaviors (i.e., training and instruction, positive feedback, and autocratic behavior) will not be related to higher levels of satisfaction with the same corresponding leader behavior.

Relationship Between Specific Satisfaction and the Discrepancy Score for the Corresponding Leader Behavior

All Situational and Member Characteristics

12. Among: (a) female and male athletes in the sports of basketball, tennis, track and field, swimming, and volleyball, and (b) male baseball players, there is a significant negative linear correlation between satisfaction with specific leader behaviors and the corresponding discrepancy scores for the following leader behaviors: (a) training and instruction, (b) social support, (c) positive feedback, (d) democratic behavior, and (e) autocratic behavior. Within the framework of Chelladurai's (1979) contingency model of leadership for athletics, Yukl's (1971) discrepancy theory posits an increase in satisfaction with specific leader behaviors as the discrepancy score for the same corresponding leader behavior decreases. Athletes' satisfaction with particular leader behaviors increase as the perceived actual behaviors increase in relation to preferences for the same leader behaviors.

Definition of Terms

The following terms are defined within the context of their usage in the present study. Theoretical and

operational definitions are included where they are appropriate to the study.

SPORT is "an institutionalized, competitive activity that involves vigorous physical exertion or the use of relatively complex physical skills by individuals whose participation is motivated by a combination of intrinsic and extrinsic factors" (Coakley, 1986, p. 71). In this study, the sports which are examined include men's and women's: (a) tennis, (b) basketball, (c) volleyball, (d) track and field, and (e) swimming. Also included is men's baseball.

LEADER is the person primarily responsible for mustering "willing group support, to achieve certain clearly specified group goals, with best advantage to the individuals comprising the group" (Hollander, 1964, p. 225). In this study the term leader referred to the head coach of the sport.

LEADERSHIP is "an influence process wherein the leader is able to muster willing group support, to achieve certain clearly specified group goals, with best advantage to the individuals comprising the group" (Hollander, 1964, p. 225). In sport the head coach of a team is primarily responsible for initiating the influence process for the team to accomplish common goals and individual athlete goals.

EFFECTIVENESS is the degree to which the requirements of the organization as well as the requirements of the group members are met. Burns (1978) has observed that leadership is inseparable from the follower's needs and goals. Follower satisfaction, therefore, is co-equal with performance in terms of leadership effectiveness (Burns, 1978; and Hollander 1964). Furthermore, Adams and Yoder (1985) described leadership as an attempt to influence, and the acceptance of that attempt. In this study satisfaction with leadership was the aspect of effectiveness which was considered.

LEADER (COACHING) BEHAVIOR is a specific focus of interaction which is related to and dependent upon leadership style. In this study, leader behavior is represented by a score on five dimensions on the Leadership Scale for Sports (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1980). The five dimensions of leader behavior which are measured are: (a) training and instruction, (b) social support, (c) positive feedback, (d) democratic behavior, and (e) autocratic behavior.

TRAINING AND INSTRUCTION is the "extent to which the coach emphasizes and facilitates hard and strenuous training. It includes the efforts of the coach to structure and coordinate the activities of the members" (Chelladurai, 1979, p. 69). Training and instruction is

measured by the LSS, items 1, 5, 8, 11, 14, 17, 20, 23, 26, 29, 32, 35, 38.

SOCIAL SUPPORT is the "coach's concern for individual athletes, their welfare, positive group atmosphere, and for warm interpersonal relations with members" (Chelladurai, 1979, p. 72). Social support is measured by the LSS, items 3, 7, 13, 19, 22, 25, 31, 36.

POSITIVE FEEDBACK is "the degree to which the coach provides reinforcement for an athlete by recognizing and rewarding good performance" (Chelladurai, 1979, p. 73). Positive feedback is measured by the LSS, items 4, 10, 16, 28, 37.

DEMOCRATIC BEHAVIOR is "the degree to which the coach allows participation by the athletes in deciding on group goals, practice methods, and game tactics and strategies" (Chelladurai, 1979, p. 71). Democratic behavior is measured by the LSS, items 2, 9, 15, 18, 21, 24, 30, 33, 39.

AUTOCRATIC BEHAVIOR is "the tendency of the coach to set himself/herself apart from the athletes,and to make all decisions by himself/herself" (Chelladurai, 1979, p. 72). Autocratic behavior is measured by the LSS, items 6, 12, 27, 34, 40.

LEADERSHIP STYLE is the pervading philosophical basis for the type of interaction (i.e., task oriented or people

oriented) which is carried out between a leader and group members (Stogdill, 1974).

PEOPLE ORIENTED LEADERSHIP STYLE emphasizes the satisfaction of followers in terms of their desires and achievement of personal goals over and above the achievement of group goals. In this study, people oriented leadership style is represented by social support and democratic behavior (Stogdill, 1974).

TASK ORIENTED LEADERSHIP STYLE emphasizes the achievement of group goals over and above consideration for the desires and achievement of personal goals of the followers. In this study, task oriented leadership style is represented by training and instruction, positive feedback, and autocratic behavior (Stogdill, 1974).

ACTUAL (PERCEIVED) LEADERSHIP (COACHING) BEHAVIOR is the degree to which followers believe they are recipients of particular leader behaviors. In this study, actual leadership behavior is represented by a score on five dimensions on the Perceived Behavior form of the Leadership Scale for Sports (Appendix A). The five dimensions of actual behavior which are measured are: (a) training and instruction, (b) social support, (c) positive feedback, (d) democratic behavior, and (e) autocratic behavior.

PREFERRED LEADERSHIP (COACHING) BEHAVIOR is the degree to which followers desire their leader to use particular

leader behaviors. In this study, preferred leadership behavior is represented by a score on five dimensions on the Preferred Behavior Form of the Leadership Scale for Sports (Appendix B). The five dimensions of preferred behavior which are measured are: (a) training and instruction, (b) social support, (c) positive feedback, (d) democratic behavior, and (e) autocratic behavior.

DISCREPANCY SCORE FOR LEADER BEHAVIOR is the signed value of the difference between the type of leadership behaviors which followers desire and the type of leadership behaviors which followers believe they actually receive. In this study, the discrepancy score is the signed value derived by subtracting the mean actual perceived leader behavior score (Perceived Behavior Form of the Leadership Scale for Sports) from the mean preferred leader behavior score (Preferred Behavior Form of the Leadership Scale for Sports) for each dimension.

SATISFACTION WITH LEADERSHIP is the degree to which an individual experiences positive feelings toward the leadership of the coach. In this study, the two aspects of satisfaction examined are: (a) general satisfaction, and (b) specific satisfaction.

GENERAL SATISFACTION is satisfaction with leadership in a broad sense and was measured by Chelladurai (1979). In this study, general satisfaction is measured by

Chelladurai's (1979) single question with a 7-point response scale (Appendix C).

SPECIFIC SATISFACTION is satisfaction with each of the five dimensions of leadership and is measured by the responses to five questions developed by Schliesman (1985, 1987). Each specific satisfaction scale item was developed in a format parallel to Chelladurai's (1979) general satisfaction measure, and each contains a 7-point response scale (Appendix D).

SITUATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS are factors associated with a given sport or team environment over which neither the leader nor follower have any control. In this study, the situational characteristics examined are: (a) task dependence, (b) relative gender, and (c) specific sport.

TASK DEPENDENCE refers to the nature of and relative amount of interaction between participants during competition. Task dependence lies on a continuum between independent and interdependent.

INDEPENDENT SPORTS are those in which the majority of the task requirements of an individual participant are not highly dependent upon other team members. In this study, the independent sports are: (a) tennis, (b) track and field, and (c) swimming.

INTERDEPENDENT SPORTS are those in which the majority of the task requirements of an individual participant rely

upon other team members. In this study, interdependent sports include: (a) basketball, (b) volleyball, and (c) baseball.

RELATIVE GENDER refers to the sex of the coach relative to the sex of the athlete. In this study, the groups which are examined are comprised of: (a) female athletes with female coaches, (b) female athletes with male coaches, and (c) male athletes with male coaches.

SPECIFIC SPORT refers to the particular rules and characteristics which differentiate one sport from another. In this study two interdependent sport teams are examined, basketball and volleyball.

MEMBER CHARACTERISTICS are the qualities unique to each follower which comprise individual differences. In this study the member characteristics examined are: (a) gender, and (b) readiness.

GENDER refers to female and male role behavior expectancies in American society. In this study, female and male athletes are surveyed with the assumption that gender is consistent with biological sex.

READINESS is "the extent to which a follower has the ability and willingness to accomplish a specific task" (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988, p. 174). In this study readiness is based on the data collected and divisions are established by considering the mean of the years of

experience for each group. Readiness is divided into three levels: (a) low, (b) moderate, and (c) high.

LOW READINESS is the stage at which the follower is both unable and unwilling to complete tasks necessary for group achievement (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988). In this study, men's volleyball, (mean experience = 3.79 years, mean age = 21.07 years) is deemed to be low in readiness.

MODERATE READINESS is the stage at which the follower is either able or willing, to complete tasks necessary for group achievement but not both (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988). The teams determined to be moderately ready in this study are: (a) women's track and field, (mean experience = 7.36 years, mean age = 18.86 years), (b) men's track and field, (mean experience = 7.96 years, mean age = 19.80 years), and (c) women's volleyball (mean experience = 7.64 years, mean age = 19.27 years.)

HIGH READINESS is the stage at which the follower is both able and willing to complete tasks necessary for group achievement (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988). In this study the teams determined to be high in readiness are: (a) men's baseball, (mean experience = 12.47 years, mean age = 19.62 years), (b) women's swimming (mean experience = 10.43 years, mean age = 18.96 years), (c) men's swimming, (mean experience = 11.79 years, mean age = 19.47 years), (d) women's basketball, (mean experience = 9.91 years, mean

age = 10.09 years), (e) men's basketball (mean experience = 9.90 years, mean age = 20.82 years), (f) women's tennis (mean experience = 9.43 years, mean age = 18.14 years), and (g) men's tennis (mean experience = 9.42 years, mean age = 19.58).

Limitations of Study

The study was limited to athletes in one National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) Division I university. The subjects were between 17 years and 23 years of age. During the course of the study, several circumstances were difficult to control and therefore, created the following limitations on the ability to generalize the findings.

1. Although subjects were asked to respond to all items in an honest manner, there was no way to ensure honesty. The social situation under which the data were collected may have influenced the manner in which the subjects responded to the various items (Orenstein & Phillips, 1978). The social desirability effect may result from the subjects perception of "correct responses" based on societal or subcultural norms or it may stem from perceptions of the type of responses the subjects believe the researcher is seeking (Phillips, 1971). In either case

there was no guarantee that the subjects were completely frank in their answers to the survey items.

2. It has been noted (Hendry, 1968) that athletes tend to rate the behaviors of their coaches in terms of preferences for coaching behavior rather than in terms of reality. This factor may have affected responses on the Actual Perceived Behavior Form of the Leadership Scale for Sports.

3. Subjects were limited to responding only to the survey forms used in the study. Other relevant factors may have been overlooked as a result.

Assumptions

The following assumptions were made in connection with this study.

1. The student athletes who participated in the study were naive to both the Actual and the Preferred form of the Leadership Scale for Sports.

2. The student athletes who participated in the study responded to all items honestly. Given the social desirability effect as one of the limitations indicated above, it was assumed that the following procedures (Phillips, 1971) were beneficial in eliciting honest responses: (a) respondents were guaranteed confidentiality, (b) both written and verbal instructions stressed that

there were no right or wrong answers, (c) both written and verbal instructions stressed that candid responses to the items were essential to the scientific process, and (d) verbal instructions stressed that peoples' responses to the items presented do vary. In light of these precautions it was assumed that the subjects in this study would respond in an honest manner to the items.

3. The Actual and the Preferred forms of the Leadership Scale for Sports as well as the satisfaction scales were valid and reliable measures of perceived actual leader behaviors, preferred leader behaviors, and levels of satisfaction with leader behavior respectively (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1980).

Significance of Study

If the coach is the primary leader (Chelladurai, 1981), and thus exerts a major influence on player satisfaction, then it would seem beneficial for the coach to know which leadership behaviors will facilitate higher levels of satisfaction. The coach, the team, and the individual participant can all profit by knowing if Chelladurai (1979) is correct in hypothesizing that there is a relationship between player satisfaction with leadership and: (a) actual perceived leader behavior, and/or (b) the discrepancy between actual and preferred

leader behavior. Further benefits may be derived by determining whether other theories and or hypotheses are interrelated with Chelladurai's contingency model.

Much of the previous literature pertinent to this study is of a hypothetical nature. Several business researchers asked university students to read short vignettes of leader/follower situations and make ratings on the basis of a small amount of information (Bartol & Butterfield, 1976; Izraeli & Izraeli, 1985). Other researchers have conducted role playing exercises as class room activities and have requested ratings from those activities (Jugo & Vroom, 1982; Stitt, Schmidt, Price, & Kipnis, 1983; Kushell & Newton, 1986; Watson, 1988). In sport related studies, subjects have read descriptions of hypothetical leaders and rated them (Weinberg, Reveles, & Jackson, 1984) and physical education students have been asked to "mentally select" a sport in which they would participate, then indicate the types of behaviors they would prefer their coach to use (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1978).

While these types of studies have value and have added to the body of knowledge regarding leadership, they are still hypothetical in nature. Therefore, the leader behavior phenomena need to be evaluated in relation to real sport settings using actual participating athletes in

interaction with actual participating coaches for additional clarification.

Further significance for this study is garnered from the fact that all subjects were student athletes at the same institution of higher learning. Thus, many environmental variables (the athletic department, the university structure, and standards) were consistent for all subjects. While the relationship between leader behaviors and subordinate satisfaction has been explored within and between gender, task dependence, and sport groupings, no study has been reported which has investigated all groupings within a single university setting. This study provides controls for factors related to setting which have not been reported previously.

Finally this study is significant because of the attempt to integrate four theories and/or hypotheses, path goal theory (House 1971), discrepancy theory (Yukl, 1971), the sex role congruency hypothesis (Nieva & Gutek, 1981), and situational leadership theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988), within the context of Chelladurai's (1979) contingency model of leadership for sport. This investigation is warranted by the potential influence upon the relationship between satisfaction and leader behaviors held by the constructs of: (a) ambiguity, (b) congruence of actual perceived and preferred leader behaviors,

(c) gender, and (d) readiness. This study examines the interrelationships of the theories and/or hypotheses above with the contingency model (Chelladurai, 1979) in the context of satisfaction with general leadership and satisfaction with specific leader dimensions.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The purposes of this study were: (a) to test portions of Chelladurai's model (1979) which suggest that leadership antecedent factors (i.e., situation characteristics and member characteristics) influence the relationship between leader behavior and subordinate satisfaction, and (b) to test other related theories and one hypothesis in the context of Chelladurai's contingency model. The question is whether the nature of the relationship between leader behavior and satisfaction is modified by differences brought about by situation and/or member characteristics (Figure 1, p. 2). Chelladurai's model was evaluated in relation to the following theoretical or hypothesized frames of reference: (a) path-goal theory, (House, 1971), (b) discrepancy theory, (Yukl, 1971), (c) the sex role congruency hypothesis, (Nieva & Gutek, 1981), and (d) situational theory, (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988). Central to the investigation was the relationship between satisfaction with leadership and: (a) actual perceived leader behavior, and (b) the discrepancy score for leader behavior.

The present review was divided into five sections. The first section traced the theoretical background of

Chelladurai's model. Next, studies related to the examination of leadership behaviors which were preferred by athletes and those behaviors which were perceived by athletes to be the actual behaviors of the coach were reviewed. Third, Chelladurai's (1979, 1984) work with discrepancy theory was discussed. Fourth, gender influences upon the leader-follower relationship were reviewed. Finally, Hersey and Blanchard's (1988) situational theory was reviewed along with related studies. The following subheadings were used: (a) theoretical background, (b) preferred and actual leader behavior, (c) discrepancy theory, (d) gender differences, and (e) situational theory.

Theoretical Background

Chelladurai's (1979) contingency model of leadership integrated elements of several leadership theories which were developed primarily for business management (Boucher, 1981). The following research review included: (a) contingency model, (b) path goal theory, (c) discrepancy model, (d) adaptive-reactive theory, and (e) a contingency model of leadership in athletics.

Contingency Model

Fiedler's (1967) contingency model of effective leadership represented an early recognition of factors other than personality traits which were responsible for determining leadership effectiveness. Situational theories such as Fiedler's contingency model emerged when no consistent pattern of personal traits was linked to effective leadership among various environmental conditions (Sherif & Sherif, 1956; Stogdill, 1974). Gibb (1954, 1968) observed that there was an apparent constellation of traits which were situationally relative. Effective leaders, therefore, are those who are able to modify their own behavior (Hollander, 1958). While many studies have been conducted to test the contingency model of effective leadership (Fiedler, 1971), one sport related study dealt with basketball players.

Fiedler, Hartmann, and Rudin (Fiedler, 1954) studied members of fourteen high school boys' basketball teams in central Illinois. Through the use of tests which were administered early in the season, the informal leader for each team was identified and the relationship between the leader and other team members was studied with respect to the level of performance of the team. Team performance was operationalized by examining the percentage of games won. Each boy listed three teammates with whom he could work

best and three boys with whom he could work least well. Further, each boy listed the three players he liked most and the three players he liked least as a personal friend. A short Interpersonal Perception Scale was used to describe one teammate who was considered to be the player's best co-worker and the one teammate who was considered to be the player's poorest co-worker. From these instruments, an informal leader was identified and his relationship with the other players determined. The researchers found a negative correlation between group cohesiveness and team performance. Those teams whose members chose their friends as co-workers did not perform as well as those teams whose members were not as close. Other results indicated a negative correspondence between the level of performance and the degree of positive feelings which the players held toward the leader. Fiedler (1967) indicated that the leader's accepting relationship with his teammates early in the season seemed to interfere with the level of team performance. Fiedler summarized by stating that the successful teams had chosen an informal leader who was more task-oriented, while the less successful teams had chosen an informal leader who was more relationship-oriented.

The findings of Fiedler et al. (1954) supported his theory that a task-oriented leadership style is more effective than a relationship-oriented leadership style

when the following conditions of situational favorableness exist: (a) very good or very bad leader-member relations, (b) very high or very low task structure, and (c) very strong or very weak power position. In other words, a task oriented leadership style was most effective when: (a) the players liked the leader a great deal or did not like the leader at all; (b) the job of the players was either very structured or not specialized at all; and/or (c) the leader had either a great deal of actual authority or had very little authority (Fiedler, 1967). In contrast, Fiedler (1967) maintained in his contingency model that a relationship-oriented style was preferable when a moderate degree of situational favorableness was existent.

In the basketball study by Fiedler et al. (1954), the leader-member relationship was believed to be very good since the leader was an informal one and maintained his position only with the approval of the other team members. Task structure was low because even though the players were assigned to a specific position, each was expected to dribble, shoot, pass, rebound, etc. In this respect, a low degree of specialization was present. Power position was also low since the leadership position was an informal one, and the player occupying that position did so only as long as the other players were content with his performance as a leader. The greater amount of success, as measured by the

percentage of games won, was achieved by those teams whose informed leader was more task-oriented. Fiedler (1967) has demonstrated in this and other studies: (a) that effective leadership style is dependent upon factors other than merely the personality of the leader, and (b) that the success of the group is dependent upon the leader's ability to select and carry out the most appropriate leadership style.

Path Goal Theory

Another theory which stated that appropriate leadership behavior is contingent upon situations outside of the leader's personality was path goal theory (House, 1971). House (1971) stated that the leader's responsibility is to: (a) clarify the path to be used by the subordinate toward a particular goal, and (b) to facilitate the subordinate's progress along that path. In a series of three studies, House (1971) examined the degree of effectiveness achieved by task oriented leaders as opposed to people oriented leaders, in situations with varying degrees of task ambiguity; i.e., clarity of job objectives. Two studies produced significant results. Both studies (House, 1971) operationalized effectiveness by measuring subordinate satisfaction and performance. Satisfaction was measured by a specific instrument

developed for the study. Statements which measured seven categories of satisfaction called for a 7-point response ranging from 1, very false, to 7, very true. Performance was measured by means of a multitrait-multirater system. Scales selected from the Ohio State Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire were used to determine the degree to which the leader was task oriented or people oriented. Two task characteristics that were measured were: (a) task or role autonomy, and (b) job scope. These characteristics were measured via two separate scales. Both studies (House, 1971) revealed support for the hypotheses that were derived from path goal theory. That is, task characteristics such as job scope and job autonomy apparently did have a moderating effect on the satisfaction and performance of the subordinate. This moderating effect seemed to be dependent upon the presence of task oriented or relationship oriented leadership style. Those subjects who were in jobs with task characteristics which indicated an "unclear path" were best served by a task oriented leader. Those subjects who were in jobs with task characteristics which were not impediments to the path-goal relationship were best served by a people oriented leader (House, 1971).

Discrepancy Model

Yukl (1971) explained the discrepancy model in terms of worker satisfaction and its relationship to the discrepancy between the leader behaviors which the subordinate preferred and the behaviors actually shown by the leader. Furthermore, the preferences of subordinates were determined by task characteristics as well as the personality traits of the worker. If Yukl's (1971) discrepancy model was accurate, then the leader would be most effective when he/she made the selection of leadership behaviors contingent upon: (a) task situational characteristics, (b) the personality of the subordinate, and (c) the personality of the leader. Subordinate satisfaction, according to Yukl (1971), was the result of the leader's ability to match his/her behaviors with those preferred by the workers.

Adaptive-Reactive Theory

Osborn and Hunt (1975) projected the adaptive-reactive theory which suggested that the effective leader would adapt his/her behavior in reaction to subordinate preferences and task characteristics. A higher level of satisfaction would then result as well as a higher level of performance. This theory is consistent with Hollander's (1958) notion that effective leaders must be able to modify

their behaviors. Back's (1977) list of factors which influence leader/follower situations include, the nature of the group, personalities, abilities, and environmental conditions. The ability to adapt and react, which Osborn and Hunt (1975) recommend, is affected not only by Back's factors but also by the continual definition and redefinition of the leader/follower relationship (Vander Zanden, 1984).

Osborn and Hunt (1975) studied members of 60 business fraternities to test their adaptive-reactive theory of leadership, utilizing the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire to measure the leadership style of the presidents of the business fraternities. Task characteristics were determined via an 18-item task environment complexity form, the chapter size, and chapter performance based on a point system maintained by the national office. Satisfaction was measured through the use of the Cornell Job Descriptive Index. Osborn and Hunt (1975) found that variables such as group size and the complexity of task characteristics did interact with the actual leader behavior and that this interaction influenced the degree of satisfaction and the level of performance which the worker enjoyed. In other words, increased satisfaction and performance were observed when leadership

behavior was adapted to suit a particular group of subordinates and a particular set of task characteristics.

A Contingency Model of Leadership in Athletics

Chelladurai's (1979) contingency model of leadership in athletics combined features of all the preceding theories and adapted them to the sport setting. One of the issues addressed by Chelladurai was the influence of the congruence between actual leader behaviors and leader behaviors which athletes prefer upon the athlete's satisfaction with leadership. Actual leader behaviors and preferred leader behaviors were measured by the Leadership Scale for Sports. A single item with a 7-point response option was used to measure satisfaction. A total of 216 athletes from Canadian Universities (87 basketball, 72 wrestling, 57 track and field) participated in the study. The Leadership Scale for Sports contained five dimensions, including training and instruction, social support, positive feedback, democratic behavior, and autocratic behavior. Each dimension was examined to determine the relationship between satisfaction: and the congruence of actual leader behaviors and preferences for particular leader behaviors. Chelladurai found that satisfaction increased when actual perceived behavior for the dimension,

training and instruction, increased in relation to the athlete's preference. Conversely, when the actual training and instruction behavior fell short of player preferences, then the satisfaction level was reduced. A curvilinear relationship was found to exist between the degree of satisfaction and the actual perceived behaviors in the dimensions of autocratic behavior and positive feedback. That is, as the level of actual perceived behavior approached the preferences for autocracy and positive feedback, the level of satisfaction increased. But as the actual perceived behavior exceeded player preferences, the level of satisfaction decreased. No relationship was found to exist between the level of satisfaction and leader behaviors which are included in the social support dimension (Chelladurai, 1979).

Theoretical support exists for Chelladurai's (1979) notion that effective leadership in sport is situational in nature (Fiedler, 1967; House, 1971). Contingency model (Fiedler, 1967) and path goal theory (House, 1971) suggest that a single leadership style is not likely to be effective in all situations. Further support for the contingency model of leadership in athletics (Chelladurai, 1979) is derived from the discrepancy model (Yukl, 1971) and the adaptive-reactive theory (Osborn & Hunt, 1975). Both suggest that leadership effectiveness is increased by

matching the leadership style employed by the leader with the leadership style which is desired or preferred by the follower.

Preferred and Actual Perceived Leader Behavior

Several studies have examined the leadership behaviors which athletes preferred their coaches to exhibit and those behaviors which athletes perceived from their coaches. The following research review included: (a) four studies which were conducted to determine the influence which different situational and personality considerations had upon the leadership preference of athletes, and (b) three studies which compared the leadership preferences and perceptions of athletes.

Influences Upon Leadership Preferences

Chelladurai and Saleh (1978) investigated the influence upon leader behavior preferences of gender (male/female), dependence (independent/interdependent), and variability (open/closed). The subjects, 80 male and 80 female Canadian university physical education major students, were asked in which sport they would choose to participate if they could select only one. Keeping that one sport selection in mind, the subjects completed a form

which consisted of 99 items selected from various leadership scales and modified for athletics. The results were analyzed in relation to the following five leader behavior dimensions: (a) training and instruction, (b) autocratic behavior, (c) democratic behavior, (d) social support, (e) positive feedback. Chelladurai and Saleh (1978) found that subjects who chose interdependent sports, i.e., basketball, football, baseball, soccer, had stronger preferences for training and instruction than did subjects who chose independent sports, i.e., track and field, golf, tennis, wrestling ($p \leq .001$). Subjects who chose closed sports, i.e., track and field, golf, rowing, synchronized swimming, had stronger preferences for training and instruction than did subjects who chose open sports, i.e., tennis, wrestling, soccer, baseball ($p \leq .01$). Males who chose closed sports preferred a greater degree of supportive behavior than females who chose closed sports ($p \leq .01$). Furthermore, males who chose closed sports indicated a higher preference for supportive behavior than did males who chose open sports ($p \leq .01$). The remaining significant differences were main effects between males and females. Males preferred more autocratic behavior than did females ($p \leq .001$) while females preferred more democratic behavior than males ($p \leq .01$). The authors suggested that since there were no other

significant differences between autocratic and democratic behaviors, the content of leadership behavior was perhaps more important than the decision making style. Contrary to the authors' expectations, males preferred more supportive behavior, i.e., social support, than did females ($p \leq .01$). The results of this study suggested that there might indeed be a difference in the desires of people who participate in various sporting activities. Chelladurai and Saleh (1978) projected that if a coach was interested in making his/her leadership behaviors adaptive and reactive to the preferences of the athletes, then he/she would need to know what those preferences were.

A subsequent study by Chelladurai and Carron (1982) again evaluated task dependence and variability as factors which influenced player preferences for specific leadership behaviors. However, two additional factors, personality and ability, were also examined. Subjects for the study were 87 basketball players (interdependent and open sport tasks), 52 wrestlers (independent and open sport tasks), and 57 track and field athletes (independent and closed sport tasks). Each subject completed the preferred form of the Leadership Scale for Sports and selected dimensions from Jackson's Personality Research Form which were pertinent to the study. The ability level was operationalized by considering the number of years the

athletes had been participating in their particular sport. The results of multiple regression indicated that task dependence and task variability were positively related to the athlete's preference for: (a) training and instruction, and (b) for democratic behavior. Multiple regression procedures revealed that task dependence and task variability were negatively related with autocratic behavior. Greater task variability was related with preferences for more positive feedback behavior (Chelladurai & Carron, 1982).

Personality factors were shown (Chelladurai & Carron, 1982) to be significantly correlated to preferences for leader behavior in two areas. Those athletes who were high in cognitive structure preferred more training and instruction and less autocratic behavior. There was a positive correlation between the degree of impulsivity and the preference for social support (Chelladurai & Carron, 1982).

Ability level as a factor which influenced athletes' preferences for particular leadership behaviors was shown to be significant for two behavior dimensions. The more experienced athletes preferred: (a) more training and instruction, and (b) more social support. The authors concluded that advanced participation in athletics seems to result in a preference for benevolent autocracy.

Chelladurai and Carron (1982) concluded that personality differences and level of experience appear to be two additional factors which influenced the preferences athletes had for specific leadership behaviors.

Chelladurai and Carron (1983) followed up their previous research (Chelladurai & Carron, 1982) with a study which investigated more closely the concept of experience or athletic maturity. In this study, the preferred form of the Leadership Scale for Sports (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1980) was administered; but the only leadership behavior dimensions analyzed were: (a) training and instruction and (b) social support. These dimensions were chosen because of their similarity to the traditional leadership style designations: (a) task oriented style, and (b) people oriented style. The subjects for this study were basketball players at different levels of experience. The youngest group (mean age 14.37 years) consisted of 67 high school ninth graders. The second group (mean age 15.38 years) consisted of 63 high school tenth and eleventh graders. The third group (mean age 17.09 years) consisted of 63 high school twelfth and thirteenth graders. The oldest group (mean age 20.50 years) consisted of university basketball players. Test results indicated that as the level of experience increased so did the level of preference for social support ($p \leq .01$), i.e.,

consideration from the coach. Chelladurai and Carron (1983) suggested that this trend was due to: (a) the increased involvement in a sport, and (b) the corresponding decreased involvement in other areas of social interaction. Thus, support from the coach became more critical as the amount of social support outside of athletics decreased. A curvilinear relationship ($p \leq .05$) was found to exist between training and instruction, and maturity. Preferences for training and instruction, i.e., initiating structure, gradually declined from the youngest to the second and third groups. However, university basketball players showed a tendency to prefer more training and instruction than even the youngest group. Chelladurai and Carron (1983) concluded that athletic maturity was a factor which influenced the preferences athletes had for leadership styles.

In a study investigating swimmers, Dix (1989) examined the effect which age, sex and skill level had upon the athletes preferences for specific leader behaviors. The subjects were 424 male and female swimmers who ranged from elementary school age to masters open division (45+). Each completed the Preferred Form of the LSS (Chelladurai, 1979). Significant differences in preferred leader behaviors by skill level and sex were determined by t-test

analysis while Pearson product moment correlation was used in order to determine the relationship to age.

Results indicated that age was related to preferences in democratic behavior (r = -.13, p = .01), positive feedback (r = .12, p = .01), and training and instruction (r = .09, p = .04). Skill level was a significant ($p \leq .05$) factor as elite swimmers preferred higher levels of social support (t = 1.028) than less skilled swimmers. Sex was significantly (p = .05) related to preferences for leader behaviors as: (a) males preferred higher levels of autocratic behavior than females (t = 2.20), (b) females preferred higher levels of democratic behavior than males (t = 1.82), and (c) females preferred training and instruction more than males (t = 1.207).

Leadership Preferences and Perceptions

Longmuir (1972) studied athletes' preferences and perceptions of leadership behavior by examining dogmatism as a type of leadership style. The degree of dogmatism was measured for both the coach and the athletes and comparisons were then made. Coaches and athletes completed three forms of the Trodahl and Powel Short Form Dogmatism Scale. Each coach completed: (a) one form as he perceived himself in the coaching role, (b) one form as he perceived himself in another role, and (c) one form as he perceived

the ideal athlete. Each athlete completed: (a) one form in a manner which described his actual coach, (b) one form which described his perception of an ideal coach, and (c) one form in a manner which described himself as an athlete. The athletes also completed a series of 11 semantic differential attitude scales which were designed to determine their attitudes toward the various aspects of coaching behavior. The subjects for this study consisted of 119 male varsity basketball players and 215 male varsity football players (Longmuir, 1972). Twelve head football coaches and 12 head basketball coaches also participated. All of the subjects were associated with public and private high schools in the city of Albuquerque, New Mexico.

Longmuir (1972) concluded that the athletes as a group perceived the ideal coach as being more dogmatic than they were. Since the subjects of Longmuir's (1972) study were varsity athletes, this finding was consistent with the Chelladurai and Carron (1982) study in that older athletes tend to prefer more autocracy from their coach. Several conclusions dealt with the attitudes players had toward various types of coaches. Coaches who were perceived as low in dogmatism were believed to be more understanding and considerate of individual differences than coaches perceived to be high in dogmatism (Longmuir, 1972). Likewise, coaches who were perceived to be low in dogmatism

were better liked than coaches who were perceived to be high in dogmatism (Longmuir, 1972).

Vos Strache (1979) studied player perceptions of actual and ideal leadership behaviors and the degree to which those perceptions were influenced by: (a) success, win/loss record; (b) skill level, starter/nonstarter; and (c) educational level, freshman, sophomore, junior, senior. The subjects, 390 female basketball players from colleges and universities in Southern California, completed the Actual Form XII and the Ideal form of the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ). The data were analyzed with respect to the 12 subscales in the LBDQ. The interaction of team success and the perception of actual behaviors showed the following significant results. Losers perceived their coaches to be higher in tolerance of uncertainty than did winners ($p \leq .05$). Conversely, winners perceived their coaches to be higher in production emphasis ($p \leq .05$), and persuasiveness ($p \leq .05$), than did losers. Team success seemed to have no effect upon the perception of ideal leadership behavior for coaches. The researcher found no significant interaction between skill level and the perception of actual leader behaviors. However, athletes who were in the starting line up perceived the ideal coach to be higher in representation and persuasiveness ($p \leq .05$). Starters showed a stronger

preference for the coach to be the spokesperson for the team. The interaction of educational level and the perception of actual behaviors revealed that freshmen had a stronger perception than seniors ($p \leq .05$) for demand reconciliation.

In the perception of ideal leadership behaviors, the following results were obtained (Vos Strache, 1979). Freshmen perceived the ideal coach to be higher in demand reconciliation than did seniors ($p \leq .05$). That is, the younger players' preference that their coach solve problems among team members was stronger than the preference indicated by the older players. The remaining significant differences showed that seniors perceived the ideal leader to be higher in production emphasis ($p \leq .05$), persuasiveness ($p \leq .01$), representation ($p \leq .05$), and superior orientation ($p \leq .01$), than juniors. Seniors, then, preferred their coach to be more capable of dealing successfully with superiors. Vos Strache found that seniors' and starters' perceptions of the ideal leader behavior subscales persuasiveness and representation were higher than the perceptions of juniors and nonstarters. This finding was consistent with the findings of Longmuir (1972) and Chelladurai and Carron (1982). Older players seemed to prefer the coach to take charge and exercise more

control over the team and players (Chelladurai & Carron, 1982, 1983).

Weiss and Friedricks (1986) surveyed 251 male collegiate basketball players from 23 National Association of Intercollegiate Athletics (NAIA) teams in order to study the influence which coach traits, institutional variables and leader behaviors may have on both performance and player satisfaction. Demographic information was collected from the subjects and the Leadership Scale of Sports and the Athlete Satisfaction Scale (Weiss & Friedricks, 1986) were employed. The Athlete Satisfaction Scale was a modification of the Industrial Organization Reactions Scale. Reliability coefficients for the satisfaction subscales were: supervisor, $\underline{r}$ = .78, playing conditions, $\underline{r}$ = .75, teammates, $\underline{r}$ = .83, amount of work, $\underline{r}$ = .54, school identification, $\underline{r}$ = .87. Multiple regression analysis indicated that overall player satisfaction, taking into account all subscales, was significantly ($\underline{p} \leq .05$) related to social support ($\underline{R}^2$ = .069) and democratic behavior ($\underline{R}^2$ = .052). Canonical loadings indicated that social support and positive feedback contributed the most to the canonical correlation, although all five leader behaviors slowed substantial loadings. Thus, Weiss and Friedrichs, (1986) concluded that athletes who perceived greater levels of social support, democratic behavior, and positive feedback

were more satisfied than players who perceived lower levels of these three leader behaviors.

The preceding seven studies indicated that there were differences in athletes' preferences for specific leader behaviors, and that those differences were influenced by factors such as age, gender, type of sport, personality, and ability. Longmuir's (1972) study suggested that matching actual behaviors, in this case dogmatism, with the athletes' preferences was important to the coach/athlete relationship. Longmuir reported that athletes liked, and perceived more understanding in low dogmatic coaches. Yet, low and high dogmatism had no significant influence on the respect which athletes had for their coaches. The three subjective attitudes which were indicated by the terms, liked, understanding, and respected, are likely to have some connection with the notion of satisfaction, which is presented in the next section.

Discrepancy Theory

Chelladurai's (1979) contingency model suggested that player satisfaction with leadership was dependent upon the congruence of the athletes' preferences for specific leadership behaviors and the actual leadership behaviors of the coach as perceived by the athlete. In other words, Chelladurai hypothesized that the degree of satisfaction

which the athlete experienced was dependent upon the coach's ability to match his/her actual leadership behaviors with those behaviors that were preferred by the athlete, i.e., discrepancy score.

Scholten (1978) reported the results of a study which examined the relationship between general satisfaction with leadership and the discrepancy scores for: (a) training and instruction, (b) social support, (c) positive feedback, (d) democratic behavior, and (e) autocratic behavior. The study, which consisted of female collegiate basketball players as subjects indicated that a relationship exists between general satisfaction and discrepancy scores for each of the five leader behavior dimensions.

Chelladurai's (1979) study was reviewed above (pp. 50-51). However, to recapitulate, one of the issues addressed by Chelladurai was the influence of the congruence between actual leader behaviors and leader behaviors which athletes prefer upon the athlete's satisfaction with leadership. Chelladurai (1979) evaluated actual leader behaviors and preferred leader behaviors utilizing the Leadership Scale for Sports. A single item with a 7-point response option was used to measure satisfaction. A total of 216 athletes from Canadian Universities (87 basketball, 72 wrestling, 57 track and field) participated in the study. The Leadership Scale for Sports contained five dimensions, including

training and instruction, social support, positive feedback democratic behavior, and autocratic behavior. Each dimension was examined to determine the relationship between satisfaction and the congruence of actual perceived leader behaviors and preferences for particular leader behaviors.

Chelladurai (1979) found that satisfaction increased when actual behavior for the dimension, training and instruction, increased in relation to the athlete's preference. Conversely, when the actual training and instruction behavior fell short of player preferences then the satisfaction level was reduced. A curvilinear relationship was found to exist between the degree of satisfaction and actual perceived behaviors in the dimensions of autocratic behavior and positive feedback. That is, as the level of actual perceived behavior approached the preferences for autocracy and positive feedback, the level of satisfaction increased. But as the actual perceived behavior exceeded player preferences, the level of satisfaction decreased. No relationship was found to exist between the level of satisfaction and the leader behavior dimension of social support (Chelladurai, 1979).

A subsequent study (Chelladurai, 1984) involving 119 male subjects from Canadian colleges and universities was conducted to test this hypothesis. Of those subjects 87

were basketball players, 52 were wrestlers, and 57 were track and field athletes. Each subject completed both the Preferred Form and the Perceived Form of the Leadership Scale for Sports. Each subject responded to four items which measured the athlete's satisfaction with : (a) leadership, (b) individual performance, (c) team performance, and (d) overall involvement. The Leadership Scale for Sports contained five dimensions. They were: (a) training and instruction, (b) social support, (c) democratic behavior, (d) autocratic behavior, and (e) positive feedback. The results were significant for satisfaction with leadership, satisfaction with team performance, and satisfaction with overall involvement. No significant results were found for satisfaction with individual performance (Chelladurai, 1984). The following discussion will deal with the findings which were pertinent to satisfaction with leadership.

Within the male basketball group, Chelladurai (1984) found significant linear relationships between satisfaction with leadership and training and instruction ($p \leq .001$), democratic behavior ($p \leq .01$), social support ($p \leq .01$), and positive feedback ($p \leq .001$). The greater the levels of actual perceived behaviors in each of these four dimensions relative to the athletes' preference, the higher was the satisfaction with leadership. Analysis of the

dimension, autocratic behavior indicated the opposite results ($p \leq .0001$), i.e., the greater the perception of actual autocratic behavior, the lower the satisfaction with leadership. Linear results were found with wrestlers in the dimensions of: (a) training and instructions ($p \leq .001$), and (b) social support ($p \leq .05$). An increase in the perception of these behaviors was related to an increase in the level of satisfaction with leadership (Chelladurai, 1984). A curvilinear relationship ($p \leq .001$) was found in the positive feedback dimension. The congruence of preferred and perceived leader behavior produced optimal satisfaction. Discrepancies from the point of congruence produced diminishing levels of satisfaction with leadership. Finally, male track and field athletes showed significance in only two dimensions. A linear relationship ($p \leq .01$) was found for training and instruction. The more training and instruction the athlete perceived, relative to preferences for training and instruction, the higher the level of satisfaction. The autocratic behavior dimension showed a curvilinear relationship ($p \leq .05$) with satisfaction. This relationship was contrary to the results found for basketball players who indicated that less autocracy was better in terms of their satisfaction with leadership (Chelladurai, 1984).

In an effort to examine the relationship between coach/athlete compatibility and athlete satisfaction Horne and Carron (1985) surveyed 77 coach-athlete dyads from intercollegiate female basketball, track and field, and swimming teams. In addition to the Leadership Scale for Sports (Chelladurai 1979), subjects also responded to a sport adapted version of the FIRO-B to determine compatibility, and self ratings regarding performance, satisfaction and quality of relationship. The results for this study, derived across all three sport groupings, indicated that training and instruction (r^2 = .289), positive feedback (r^2 = .407), and social support (r^2 = .438) were significant ($p \leq .05$) predictors of satisfaction with leadership.

Female basketball players were subjects for a study by Mitchel (1986) which further examined the relationship between athletes' satisfaction with leadership and discrepancy scores for each of five leader behavior dimensions. Mitchel found significant ($p \leq .001$) relationships between general satisfaction and discrepancy scores for: (a) training and instruction (r = -.49, p = .001), (b) social support (r = -.63. p = .0001), (c) positive feedback (r = -.69, p = .0001), (d) democratic behavior (r = -.33, p = .0009), and (e) autocratic behavior (r = -.41, p = .0001). Mitchel further found significant

($p \leq .05$) linear relationships between satisfaction with specific leader behaviors and discrepancy scores for the corresponding leader behavior in the following cases: (a) training and instruction ($r^2 = .16$, $p = .0001$), (b) social support ($r^2 = .07$, $p = .008$), (c) positive feedback ($r^2 = .42$, $p = .0001$), (d) democratic behavior ($r^2 = .06$, $p = .011$), and (e) autocratic behavior ($r^2 = .05$, $p = .026$).

Schliesman (1985, 1987) studied 40 male track and field athletes in order to determine whether a relationship exists between player satisfaction with leadership and: (a) preferences for specific leader behaviors, (b) perceptions of actual leader behaviors, and (c) the discrepancy between preferred and actual perceived leader behaviors. No significant ($p \leq .05$) relationships were found between satisfaction and player preferences for specific leader behaviors. Contrary to Weiss and Friedricks (1986), however, Schliesman found significant ($p \leq .05$) relationships between general satisfaction and the actual perceived score on the LSS for: (a) social support ($r^2 = .17$, $p = .01$), and (b) democratic behavior ($r^2 = .18$, $p = .01$). Significant ($p \leq .05$) linear relationships were found to exist between general satisfaction and the discrepancy scores for: (a) social support ($r^2 = .10$, $p = .05$), and (b) democratic behavior ($r^2 = .10$, $p = .05$).

Schliesman also examined relationships between discrepancy scores for leader behaviors and satisfaction with the corresponding behavior dimension. Significant ($p \leq .05$) linear relationships were found to exist between: (a) satisfaction with training and instruction and the discrepancy score for training and instruction ($r^2 = .26$, $p = .001$), (b) satisfaction with social support and the discrepancy score for social support ($r^2 = .15$, $p = .02$) and (c) satisfaction with positive feedback and the discrepancy score for positive feedback ($r^2 = .10$, $p = .05$).

Mixed support exists for the discrepancy theory (Yukl, 1971) aspect of Chelladurai's (1979) contingency model of leadership in Athletics. Scholten (1978), Chelladurai (1984), and Mitchell (1986) each found significant relationships between satisfaction and all five leader behaviors, i.e., training and instruction, social support, positive feedback, democratic behavior, and autocratic behavior, within the sport of basketball. Other studies (Chelladurai, 1971; Horne & Carron, 1985; Schliesman, 1985, 1987) examining other sports, i.e., track and field, wrestling, swimming and/or basketball, resulted in partial support for the discrepancy theory of Yukl (1971).

Gender Differences

Two of the antecedent factors examined in this study were: (a) gender differences--classified as a member characteristic in accordance with Chelladurai's (1979) contingency model of leadership, and (b) gender of the coach relative to the gender of the athlete--classified as a situational characteristic in accordance with Chelladurai's (1979) contingency model of leadership. The general nature of Chelladurai's theory does not provide insight to the specific influence which member and situational characteristics may have upon the relationship between leader behavior and subordinate satisfaction. Furthermore, the theories described above which have been integrated to develop the contingency model of leadership are lacking in attention to gender differences as those differences may pertain to the leader-follower relationship. In order to examine this aspect of the complex leadership process, studies have been reviewed which are related to the sex role congruency hypothesis (Nieva & Gutek, 1981). The sex role congruency hypothesis suggests that subordinates are most satisfied with leaders, male or female, whose actions (i.e., leader behaviors) are consistent (congruent) with traditional gender role stereotypes. Male leaders who are more independent and directive are predicted to have followers who are more

satisfied than male leaders who are less task oriented. Conversely, female leaders who display leader behaviors which are more people oriented and democratic in nature are predicted to have followers who are more satisfied than female leaders who show higher levels of autocratic behaviors and initiating structure.

Bartol and Butterfield (1976) found support for the sex role congruency hypothesis in a study in which 312 female and male university management students were asked to read vignettes of hypothetical leader follower situations. One of the stories depicted the leader using behaviors which were people oriented while in the other story the leader was task oriented. Subjects, female and male, were presented the same stories--some of which identified the leader with a female name, some a male name. Thus, the experimenters sought to discover whether any differences in the way the students rated the hypothetical leaders were based on: (a) leadership style, and/or (b) sex of the leader. Results of this study were consistent with hypotheses founded in gender role expectations. Female managers in the stories which had a people orientation were rated higher than female managers in stories with a task orientation. Likewise, male managers who were written up to be directive and task

oriented were rated higher than male managers depicted to be people oriented.

Jugo and Vroom (1982) found somewhat less dramatic support for the sex role congruency hypothesis than did Bartol and Butterfield. Sixty-eight female and 22 male students were placed in training groups of 5-8 members each. At the conclusions of the group activity each member ranked the other members of the group as to each member's degree of participative or autocratic behavior within the group. Subjects then rated each group member as to the degree of positive feelings the rater had toward the member being rated.

As predicted, Jugo and Vroom (1982) found that female members who were thought to be autocratic were evaluated negatively; and males who were thought to be autocratic were evaluated positively, although only moderately so. Results among participative group members were not supportive of the sex role congruency hypothesis. Males and females who were judged to be participative were rated equally favorable. Thus, males who behaved in a manner which was incongruent with gender role expectations were acceptable to this particular group of subjects while female subjects who went outside of traditional gender role expectations were judged to be less acceptable (Jugo & Vroom, 1982).

Porter, Geis, and Walstedt (1983) found additional support for the notion that gender role stereotypes influence social judgements. University students (224 females, 224 males) were asked to examine photographs of 5 people sitting around a table and to identify the leader. When the photos depicted a man at the head of the table, a traditionally symbolic position of leadership, the man was identified as the leader. However, when a woman was placed at the head of the table, the subjects consistently looked elsewhere in the group for a leader. The results of Porter et al. (1983) illustrated not only the gender stereotyping phenomenon in the area of leadership, but also the higher status of males in society.

Another study (Stitt, Schmidt, Price, & Kipnis, 1983) in which male and female students (N = 678) served as subjects produced results somewhat similar to Porter et al. (1983) with respect to followers' sensitivities to leadership styles. The purpose of the study was to determine the influence of leadership style, gender of leader, and gender of followers on subordinate satisfaction and productivity in a simple task, i.e., the production of paper airplanes. Subjects were divided into 113 groups of all female or all male students. Each group had either a female or a male leader who was instructed to employ either democratic or autocratic leadership behaviors.

Satisfaction was measured using subscales of the Job Description Index. Leader behavior was measured using a questionnaire.

Analysis of variance indicated significant interactions effects of satisfaction with the leader by leadership style ($p \leq .01$) and leadership style by follower-sex ($p \leq .01$). The lack of support for the sex role congruency hypothesis not withstanding, these results indicated a phenomenon in which satisfaction with leadership style were related to the sex of the follower (Stitt et al., 1983).

Relationships of the gender of the leader to effectiveness of and satisfaction with the leadership process were investigated (Rice, Instone, & Adams, 1984) during two 6-week cadet training programs at the U.S. Military Academy. Subjects for the study were 1652 freshman and sophomore cadets (161 females, 1459 males, and 32 questionnaires with no gender identification). Subjects responded to 64 items dealing with satisfaction with leadership, effectiveness of leadership and other aspects of the leadership process such as communication, social power, and strategies of influence.

Analysis of variance and moderated regression analysis produced virtually no support for the sex role congruency hypothesis. Only 15 of 116 factors were significant adding

only .3% to 1.0% predictable criterion-score variance. All but one of the moderator effects were significant in only one of the two study sites.

In a sport related study, Weinberg, Revels, and Jackson (1984) asked 85 male and female college, high school, and junior high school basketball players to read and respond to a written description of a hypothetical head basketball coach. All details of the description were identical except for the name of the coach, one half were designated female and one half were male. All female players were coached by females and all male players were coached by had males. In the study male players rated female coaches lower than male coaches, while female players rated coaches of both sexes equally. The results provided some support for the findings of Porter et al. (1983), and for the notion that males in American society occupy an elevated status.

In a replication of the Bartol and Butterfield (1976) study, Izraeli and Izraeli (1985), obtained results which were not supportive of the notion that gender role expectations influence ratings of leaders' behaviors. Managers who were participating in training courses (920 male and 100 females) served as subjects for this study. The experimenters found no significant effects which were related to the sex of the leader. In their discussion of

the results the authors attributed this inconsistency to the fact that the replication involved older subjects most of whom had more working experience than subjects in the earlier study. Izraeli and Izraeli further speculated that cultural differences regarding sex stereotypes, (i.e., the Israeli culture has fewer sex stereotypes than does the United States culture) may account for incongruent experimental results.

The sex role congruency hypothesis was again investigated (Kushell & Newton, 1986) using role playing and 144 (72 male and 72 female) subjects. Leaders were asked to facilitate group ranking for the NASA moon landing exercise. Leaders were autocratic at times and democratic at other times. Results once again indicated that male and female subjects were more satisfied with leaders who were democratic. Female followers were found to be more satisfied with democratic leadership than were male followers, and female followers were more dissatisfied with autocratic leadership than were male followers. No significant differences were found in the way subjects perceived male or female leaders in any combination of autocratic or democratic style. While no direct support for the sex role congruency hypothesis was found in this study, there still remains the presence of a gender

stereotype influence on the satisfaction of group followers.

Bushardt, Fowler, and Caveny (1987) surveyed the subordinates of 69 nursing supervisors, using the Bem Sex Role Inventory and a leadership questionnaire. Respondents who perceived sex role differentiation in their supervisors also perceived higher levels of effectiveness.

Statham's (1987) qualitative study involved 22 female and 18 male managers from: (a) a financial institution, (b) a manufacturing firm, and (c) a technical institute. Respondents indicated that female leaders possessed both task and people orientation in their approach to management. Male leaders, on the other hand, were "image engrossed" and "autonomy invested". That is, male leaders: (a) tended to emphasize the importance of their jobs (image engrossed) and (b) preferred a hands off, delegative approach (autonomy invested). Subjects reported a preference for leaders using gender appropriate leader behaviors. Misunderstanding and exasperation resulted when managers used alternative approaches (Statham, 1987).

One hundred eighty-eight female and male graduate students participated in a role play study (Watson, 1988) in which female managers employed either considerate (sex appropriate) or dominant (sex inappropriate) leadership style. Upon completion of the role play, the subjects

responded to questionnaires which measured satisfaction with the outcome, influence over the decision, resistance to the leader's ideas, liking for the leader, effectiveness of the leader, and perceptions of the leader's decision-making style. The supervisors and the workers responded to questions dealing with all categories except perceptions of the leader's decision-making style.

Analysis of the post-role-play questionnaire indicated that subordinates of dominant supervisors were significantly ($p \leq .05$) less accepting of the supervisor's ideas and that they had significantly ($p \leq .05$) more influence over the decision than subordinates of considerate supervisors. Furthermore, groups with all male subordinates were significantly ($p \leq .05$) more accepting of supervisors than were mixed groups. All male groups reported greater effectiveness ($p \leq .05$) and greater liking for their supervisors ($p \leq .10$) than did mixed groups.

Since there is considerable support for the sex role congruency hypothesis in general it seems feasible that this particular aspect of gender role stereotyping may be found to exist in the sport setting. An evolutionary phenomenon is indicated in the literature as the influence of leader gender diminishes while significant differences remain in the reactions of female versus male followers.

Situational Leadership Theory

Hersey and Blanchard (1969) developed what was referred to as the Life Cycle Theory of Leadership, more recently (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988) known as situational leadership theory. The primary independent variable in this theory is maturity (Hersey & Blanchard, 1969) or more recently, readiness (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988). It is the concept of readiness, which according to the researchers, should govern the appropriateness of task and/or relationship oriented leadership behavior. That is, the leader would be most effective by accurately gauging the degree of readiness shown by the follower than employing leader behaviors which, according to the theory, are most compatible with the follower's readiness state. Readiness, in the context of situational leadership theory, is an amalgamation of the follower's ability and/or willingness to accomplish the tasks necessary for group goal achievement (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988). Thus, knowledge, experience, and skill are factors of ability, while confidence, commitment, and motivation are factors of willingness. Situational leadership suggests that leaders of followers who are low in readiness, i.e., unable and unwilling, would be most effective using leader behaviors which are highly task oriented and low in relationship. Followers who are moderate in readiness, i.e., who are

either able or willing, but not both, respond best to leaders who use leader behaviors which are high in both task and relationship orientation. Finally, situational leadership suggests that followers who are high in readiness, i.e., able and willing to complete necessary tasks are most effectively led by people using leader behaviors which are low in both task and relationship orientation.

No studies reviewed here specifically tested the situational leadership theory in the sport setting. However, several studies which are peripherally related to situational leadership and the concept of readiness are described in the previous sections of this chapter (Leadership Preferences and Perceptions, p. 58) and will be summarized here.

Longmuir (1972), Vos Strache (1979), Chelladurai and Carron (1982, 1983), and Dix (1989) conducted research which indicated that the preferences of athletes for certain specific leader behaviors were related in part to their level of experience. The results of the studies suggested that older, more experienced athletes prefer coaches who employ high task oriented leader behaviors. If it can be assumed that the experience factor as operationalized in the studies discussed can be equated with Hersey and Blanchard's (1988) concept of readiness,

and if it can be assumed that preference for leader behaviors as operationalized in the studies discussed here can be equated with Hersey and Blanchard's concepts of effectiveness or appropriateness, then situational leadership theory has not been supported by research in the sport setting. Situational leadership theory calls for low levels of both task and relationship oriented leader behaviors for followers with relatively high levels of readiness. Yet, the five studies summarized here indicate that high levels of task orientation are more desirable. Thus, further research is needed which will examine more closely the experience factor in relation to leadership behaviors and leadership effectiveness for sport.

Summary

Studies which have been conducted for sports by sport experts showed that there was some consistency between the theoretical propositions of business management situations and those propositions which were relevant to the sporting situation. Relatively few studies have used subjects who are involved in a leader follower situation which is as intense or as lengthy as the relationship between NCAA Division I athletes and their coach.

CHAPTER 3

PROCEDURE

The purpose of this study was to test the portion of Chelladurai's (1984) contingency model of leadership in athletics which states that player satisfaction with leadership is related to: (a) actual perceived leader behavior and, (b) the discrepancy between preferred leadership behavior and the actual perceived behavior of the coach. The procedures used in this study were divided into the following areas: (a) selection of subjects, (b) selection of testing instruments, and (c) method of testing.

Selection of Subjects

Subjects for this study were 73 female athletes and 141 male athletes from the same National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) Division I institution. The men's and women's sports which were represented in this study were: (a) tennis, (b) basketball, (c) volleyball, (d) swimming, and (e) track and field. The men's baseball team was also included. All of the sports teams competed at the NCAA, Division I level except men's volleyball which is a highly competitive club sport participating in national level United States Volleyball Association

tournaments. The subjects were not paid for their participation in the study. Each subject completed an informed consent statement (Appendix E) and a demographic information sheet (Appendix F) before participating in the study. Confidentiality of information was maintained by numerically coding all response sheets so that names were not associated with the subject's responses.

Selection of Testing Instruments

The primary instrument used for this study was the Leadership Scale for Sports (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1980). The Leadership Scale for Sports (LSS) is a questionnaire containing 40 statements which assesses the following 5 dimensions of coaching behavior.

1. TRAINING AND INSTRUCTION . . . "the extent to which the coach emphasizes and facilitates hard and strenuous training. It includes the efforts of the coach to structure and coordinate the activities of the members" (Chelladurai, 1979, p. 69).

2. SOCIAL SUPPORT . . . "the coach's concern for individual athletes, their welfare, positive group atmosphere, and for warm interpersonal relations with members" (Chelladurai, 1979, p. 72).

3. POSITIVE FEEDBACK . . . "the degree to which the coach provided reinforcement for an athlete by recognizing and rewarding good performance" (Chelladurai, 1979, p. 73).

4. DEMOCRATIC BEHAVIOR . . . "the degree to which the coach allows participation by the athletes in deciding on group goals, practice methods, and game tactics and strategies" (Chelladurai, 1979, p. 71).

5. AUTOCRATIC BEHAVIOR . . . "the tendency of the coach to set himself/herself apart from the athletes, and to make all decisions by himself/herself" (Chelladurai, 1979, p. 72).

Two forms of the LSS were used for the study. The Preferred Behavior Form (Appendix B) was used to measure individual preferences for specific leadership behaviors. A sample item read, "I prefer my coach to emphasize hard, vigorous training to improve performance level." The Perceived Behavior Form (Appendix A) was used to measure the actual leadership behavior of the Coach as perceived by the subject. A sample item read, "My coach emphasizes hard vigorous training to improve performance level."

The 40 items in each form called for a response to be selected from a 5 point Likert scale. The 5 responses are: (a) always, (b) often, (c) occasionally, (d) seldom, and (e) never. Chelladurai and Saleh, (1980) established reliability for the LSS using Cronbach's Alpha (Table 1).

Table 1

Internal Consistency Estimates*

Dimension	Preferred Internal Consistency	Perceived Internal Consistency
Training and Instruction	.83	.93
Social Support	.70	.86
Positive Feedback	.82	.92
Democratic Behavior	.75	.87
Autocratic Behavior	.45	.79

Note: P. Chelladurai & S. D. Saleh (1980). Dimensions of leader behavior in sports: Development of a leadership scale. Journal of Sport Psychology, 2, 34-45.

Chelladurai and Saleh (1980) examined the factor structure across three separate samples in order to determine the validity of the LSS. The five factors which were extracted from the first sample also appeared in the second and third. Further, forty of the items had the highest loadings in the same factors across all three samples, indicating a valid factor structure. Content validity was based on examination of the five factor structure which includes: (a) training and instruction, (b) social support, (c) positive feedback, (d) democratic behavior, and (e) autocratic behavior.

Test-retest reliability for both forms of the LSS was determined by using 53 physical education majors who responded to the scale four weeks after initial completion. Reliability coefficients ranged from a low of .71 for Social Support to a high figure of .82 for Democratic Behavior.

Other instruments utilized were the general satisfaction and specific satisfaction scales as well as a demographic information questionnaire. In this study, the general satisfaction scale was Chelladurai's (1979) single question with a 7-point response scale (Appendix C). Specific satisfaction was measured by the responses to five questions developed by Schliesman (1985, 1987) in a format parallel to Chelladurai's (1979) general satisfaction

measure and each specific satisfaction scale item contained a 7-point response scale (Appendix D). Demographic information was collected via a form developed for this study (Appendix E).

Pairwise correlation between general satisfaction and each of the specific satisfaction scores resulted in significant ($p \leq .0001$) relationships in the dimensions of: (a) training and instruction, (b) autocratic behavior, (c) positive feedback, (d) social support, (e) democratic behavior. The most significant predictor of general satisfaction with training and instruction ($r^2 = .6090$, $p = .0001$) followed by satisfaction with autocratic behavior ($r^2 = .4976$, $p = .0001$). The remaining significant predictors of general satisfaction with leadership were positive feedback ($r^2 = .3550$, $p = .0001$), and democratic behavior ($r^2 = .2439$, $p = .0001$). Further analysis of the relationship between general satisfaction with leadership and specific satisfaction using stepwise regression analysis produced a significant ($p \leq .0001$) five variable model which included (in order) each of the dimensions of training and instruction, autocratic behavior, positive feedback, social support, and democratic behavior. This model ($r^2 = .6966$, $p = .0001$) accounted for a larger percent of common variability than any other combination of variables.

As expected, there was a strong correlation between the concepts of general, and specific satisfaction with leadership. The data indicate that the two variables (general and specific satisfaction) which were examined in this study were highly related.

Method of Testing

All testing was conducted during the summer and fall semester of 1989 and took each subject approximately 30 minutes. Athletes were surveyed following the preseason training and prior to the first contest. The questionnaires were administered to groups of about 10 to 45 athletes. Written instructions were read by the subjects and explained by the researcher. After reading and signing an informed consent form (Appendix F) the subjects were asked to respond to the general Leader Satisfaction item (Appendix C), focusing on their relationship with the head coach as opposed to an assistant coach with whom they may work. The subjects then completed the Perceived Behavior Form (Appendix A) of the Leadership Scale for Sports (LSS). In an effort to reduce possible response bias, the first two forms were collected and the Preferred Behavior Form (Appendix B) of the LSS was administered. Upon the completion of the Preferred Behavior Form, the subjects returned it to the researcher

and were given a five question form (Appendix D) to measure satisfaction with specific leader behavior. Finally, subjects were asked to respond to demographic items (Appendix E).

CHAPTER 4

ANALYSIS OF DATA

The present study was conducted in order to test the contingency model of leadership in athletics developed by Chelladurai (1979). Specifically, statistical tests were run to investigate the relationship between player satisfaction with leadership and: (a) actual perceived leader behavior and (b) the discrepancy between preferred leadership behavior and the actual perceived leader behavior of the coach. These relationships were examined within the framework of Chelladurai's (1979) contingency model of leadership in athletics in relation to four theories and/or hypotheses including: (a) path goal theory (House, 1971), (b) discrepancy theory (Yukl, 1971), (c) the sex role congruency hypothesis (Nieva & Gutek, 1981), and (d) situational leadership theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988), which suggested that the relationship between player satisfaction and leader behaviors may be modified by various situational and member characteristics (Figure 1, p. 2).

In order to test Chelladurai's (1979) model 73 female athletes and 141 male athletes participated in the study. The athletes represented a men's baseball team, and women's and men's teams in the sports of tennis, basketball,

volleyball, swimming, and track and field. The subjects responded to scales which measured their satisfaction with their coach's general leadership and satisfaction with their coach's specific leadership behaviors which correspond with the five dimensions of: (a) training and instruction, (b) social support, (c) positive feedback, (d) democratic behavior, and (e) autocratic behavior. Furthermore, the athletes completed two forms of the Leadership Scale for Sports (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1980). One form measured the athletes' preferences for particular leader behaviors, while the other form measured the athlete's perceptions of actual leader behavior exhibited by the coach.

Testing Hypotheses

Analyses were used to determine whether, and to what extent, relationships between follower satisfaction with leadership and five leader behavior dimensions were associated with situational and member characteristics. Specifically, the data were examined to find correlations between: (a) follower (athlete) satisfaction and actual perceived leader (coaching) behaviors, and (b) follower (athlete) satisfaction and the discrepancy between

preferred leader (coaching) behaviors and actual perceived leader (coaching) behaviors.

In order to test the hypotheses proposed in this study pairwise correlation (Safer, 1985) and stepwise regression (Joyner, 1985) procedures were employed. Within the framework of each hypothesis the correlations were run between the dependent variable, (general satisfaction with leadership, or satisfaction with specific leader behaviors) and five independent variables (the leader behavior dimensions--training and instruction, social support, positive feedback, democratic behavior, and autocratic behavior). In all cases, the Pearson product moment (Safer, 1985) correlation technique was used to generate pairwise correlations for each combination of dependent and independent variables. The resulting probability levels and calculated $\underline{r}^2$ values were used to test the hypotheses. Throughout the results presentation, significant factors were reported using $\underline{r}^2$ (percent of common variability) as well as the $\underline{p}$ (probability) values. Since the variation in the number of subjects within experimental cells can affect $\underline{p}$ values, the $\underline{r}^2$ value, or the percent of common variability, provides a more consistent picture across hypotheses and a better means of comparing the degree of relationship across groups than would be possible using only the probability figures. Data for general

satisfaction with actual perceived leader behavior and discrepancy scores for leader behavior were analyzed further using the stepwise regression solution, maximum $\underline{R}^2$ improvement (Joyner, 1985). Leader behaviors, (dependent variables) were grouped and ordered according to the strength of the correlation with satisfaction. All results of stepwise analyses were presented in table form. Written summaries of stepwise analyses focused on significant models including one to five variables all of which added significant information to the nature of the relationship being examined. Selection of the model to be included in the written summary was based on the largest number of variables each of which added significant information to the model.

Order of Evaluation

The approach to the basic problem was to examine first the relationships indicated in Hypotheses 1-4, 6-10 and 12. Thus correlations within the context of situational characteristics (task dependence and relative gender) and member characteristics (gender and readiness) were analyzed. Preliminary analyses indicated there was a significant difference in the years of experience (readiness) between various gender and task groups within

the study. A 2x2 (gender x dependence) analysis of variance (Joyner, 1985) procedure with planned contrasts indicated significant ($p \leq .05$) experience differences in the following groups: (a) independent (more experience) vs. interdependent sports, ($p = .0017$), (b) male athletes (more experience) vs. male volleyball players, ($p = .0001$), (c) female volleyball players (more experience) vs. male volleyball players, ($p = .0016$), (d) basketball players (more experience) vs. volleyball players, ($p - .0001$), (e) female interdependent (more experience) vs. male interdependent sports ($p = .0083$), (f) male interdependent (more experience) vs. male independent sports ($p = .0001$), and (g) female athletes/male coaches (more experience) vs. female athletes/female coaches ($p = .0003$). Further analysis, using ANOVA with planned contrasts and focusing on male baseball players produced significant ($p \leq .05$) differences in the amount of sport maturity/readiness in the following groups: (a) baseball players (more experience) vs. male athletes, ($p = .0001$), (b) baseball players (more experience) vs. male basketball players, ($p = .0013$), (c) baseball players (more experience) vs. male volleyball players, ($p = .0001$), (d) baseball players (more experience) vs. male interdependent sports, ($p = .0001$), and (e) baseball players (more experience) vs. female and male interdependent sports ($p = .0001$).

One of the theorized member characteristics (i.e., readiness) in the sport setting (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988) is a phenomenon which, if supported, might have an interaction with each of the previously stated hypotheses. The relative impact of readiness in the sport groups was evaluated in Hypothesis 5 and in Hypothesis 11.

The present results chapter is divided into four sections: (a) relationship between general satisfaction and actual perceived leader behavior dimensions, Hypotheses 1-5, (b) relationship between general satisfaction and discrepancy scores, Hypothesis 6, (c) relationship between specific satisfaction and corresponding actual perceived leader behavior dimensions, Hypotheses 7-11, and (d) relationship of specific satisfaction and corresponding discrepancy scores, Hypothesis 12. All results are presented in the order and follow the specifications of the hypotheses (Chapter 1, pp. 9-16).

Results

Relationship Between General Satisfaction and Actual Perceived Leader Behavior Dimensions

The hypotheses analyzed in this section predicted positive relationships between general satisfaction with leadership and mean actual perceived leader behaviors. The expected positive relationship for each hypothesis involved

either: (a) people oriented leader behaviors, (i.e., social support and democratic behavior) or (b) task oriented leader behaviors, (i.e., training and instruction, positive feedback, and autocratic behavior). It is noteworthy at this point, that while positive relationships among people or task oriented leader behaviors were projected, negative relationships among nonpredicted leader behaviors were interpreted as being supportive of the hypothesis. Thus, for example, hypotheses which predicted positive relationships between general satisfaction with leadership and people oriented leader behaviors were deemed to be partially supported by the presence of negative relationships with autocratic behaviors.

Situational Characteristics--Task Dependence

Hypothesis 1a. Across the independent sports of tennis, track and field, and swimming, the results of the pairwise correlations (Table 2) indicated significant ($p \leq .05$) linear relationships between general satisfaction and each of the actual perceived leader behaviors in the dimensions of: (a) training and instruction, (b) social support, and (c) democratic behavior. The most statistically significant predictor of general satisfaction was training and instruction ($r^2 = .1441$, $p = .0001$) followed by social support ($r^2 = .0896$, $p = .0005$). The

Table 2

Pairwise Correlation of Actual Perceived Leader Behaviors With General Satisfaction--Independent Sports Teams

	MATI	MASS	MAPF	MADB	MAAB
MASS	.4287 .0001				
MAPF	.5388 .0001	.4204 .0001			
MADB	.3135 .0002	.4777 .0001	.3719 .0001		
MAAB	-.3063 .0003	-.0707 .4190	-.2025 .0194	.0076 .9310	
SATG	.3796 .0001	.2993 .0005	.0755 .3875	.1772 .0413	-.1549 .0750
Mean	4.1932	3.4497	4.1098	3.1531	2.7417
S.D.	.5063	.6475	.5844	.6826	.6080

SATG Mean = 6.1955 S.D. = 1.1577

MATI = Mean actual perceived training and instruction

MASS = Mean actual perceived social support

MAPF = Mean actual perceived positive feedback

MADB = Mean actual perceived democratic behavior

MAAB = Mean actual perceived autocratic behavior

SATG = General satisfaction with leadership

Note: N = 133 First line in each cell is Pearson product moment (r). Second line in each cell is probability (p).

third significant leader behavior dimension was democratic behavior ($r2$ = .0314, p = .0413). Thus Hypothesis 1a which suggested a relationship for independent sports between general satisfaction with leadership and the people oriented leader behavior dimensions of social support and democratic behavior was supported to the extent that training and instruction was also found to be related to general satisfaction with leadership. The latter finding was contrary to the predictions of Hypothesis 1a and path goal theory. Path goal theory (House, 1971) was partially supported for independent sports.

Further investigation of the variables in Hypothesis 1a using stepwise regression analysis (Table 3) produced a significant (p = .0001) three variable model which included (from most significant to least significant) training and instruction (p = .0001), positive feedback, (p = .0133), and social support, (p = .0141). This model, (R^2 = .2057, p = .0001), accounted for a larger percent of common variability than any other combination in which each variable was significant. Thus, only partial support for Hypothesis 1a, and the examination of independent sports, was found in the inclusion of the people oriented leader behavior of social support. However, initiating structure (task oriented) behaviors (training and instruction, and positive feedback) were also found to be significant ($p \leq$

Table 3

Stepwise Regression of Actual Perceived Leader Behaviors With General Satisfaction--Independent Sports Teams

STP	INTERC	MATI	MASS	MAPF	MADB	MAAB	R^2 MODEL	MODEL p
		1						
1	2.5557	.8680					.1411	.0001
	.0014	.0001						
		1		2				
2	3.0965	1.0919		-.3600			.1675	.0001
	.0003	.0001		.0579				
		1	3	2				
3	2.8145	.9465	.3992	-.4781			.2057	.0001
	.0007	.0001	.0141	.0133				
		1	3	2		4		
4	3.3737	.8990	.4105	-.4886		-.1299	.2099	.0001
	.0019	.0001	.0120	.0118		.4123		
		1	3	2	5	4		
5	3.3629	.8896	.3774	-.5077	.0852	-.1392	.2117	.0001
	.0020	.0002	.0307	.0103	.5877	.3837		

MATI = Mean actual perceived training and instruction

MASS = Mean actual perceived social support

MAPF = Mean actual perceived positive feedback

MADB = Mean actual perceived democratic behavior

MAAB = Mean actual perceived autocratic behavior

Note: N = 133 The single digit number in middle five cells is rank. The first decimal number is the loading. The second decimal number is probability (p) for the variable in each regression equation.

.05) predictors of general satisfaction with leadership within the framework of this particular statistical model. These latter findings do not support the prediction of path goal theory (House, 1971).

Hypothesis 1b. Across the interdependent sports of basketball and volleyball the results of the pairwise correlations (Table 4) indicated significant ($p \leq .05$) positive linear relationships between general satisfaction and each of the actual perceived leader behaviors in the dimensions of: (a) training and instruction, (b) social support, (c) positive feedback, and (d) democratic behavior. Positive feedback ($r^2 = .3217$, $p = .0001$) proved to be the most statistically significant predictor followed by training and instruction ($r^2 = .2951$, $p = .0001$). Social support ($r^2 = .2410$, $p = .0001$) was the third predictor followed by democratic behavior ($r^2 = .2214$, $p = .0001$). One task oriented leader behavior (autocratic behavior) was not found to be a significant ($p \leq .05$) predictor of general satisfaction with leadership, while two people oriented leader behaviors (social support and democratic behavior) were found to be significantly ($p \leq .05$) related to general satisfaction with leadership. Thus, Hypothesis 1b and path goal theory, which suggested a relationship for interdependent sports between general satisfaction with leadership and the task oriented leader

Table 4

Pairwise Correlation of Actual Perceived Leader Behaviors With General Satisfaction--Interdependent Sports Teams

	MATI	MASS	MAPF	MADB	MAAB
MASS	.5822 .0001				
MAPF	.6486 .0001	.7130 .0001			
MADB	.4962 .0001	.7653 .0001	.5828 .0001		
MAAB	-.1528 1.7320	-.0478 .6715	-.1374 .2212	.1047 .3523	
SATG	.5433 .0001	.4909 .0001	.5672 .0001	.4705 .0001	-.1114 .3222
Mean	4.2095	3.1528	3.9111	3.0156	2.9605
S.D.	.5700	.8448	.9022	.7975	.7304

SATG Mean = 5.6951 S.D. = 1.7047

MATI = Mean actual perceived training and instruction

MASS = Mean actual perceived social support

MAPF = Mean actual perceived positive feedback

MADB = Mean actual perceived democratic behavior

MAAB = Mean actual perceived autocratic behavior

SATG = General satisfaction with leadership

Note: N = 81 First line in each cell is Pearson product moment (r). Second line in each cell is probability (p).

behavior dimensions of training and instruction, positive feedback, and autocratic behavior, was partially supported. The absence of a positive relationship for autocratic behavior and the presence of relationships with both people oriented leader behaviors, (i.e., social support and democratic behavior) were contrary to the predictions of Hypothesis 1b and path goal theory (House, 1971).

Further investigation of the variables in Hypothesis 1b using stepwise regression analysis (Table 5) produced a significant (r^2 = .3748, p = .0001) two variable model, which included (from most significant to least significant): (a) positive feedback (p = .0023), and (b) training and instruction, (p = .0120). Thus partial support for Hypothesis 1b, and the examination of interdependent sports, was found in the inclusion of the task oriented leader behaviors of training and instruction and positive feedback. Path goal theory (House, 1971) was partially supported. The absence of a relationship between general satisfaction and autocratic behavior was contrary to Hypothesis 1b and path goal theory.

Baseball

Among male baseball players the results of the pairwise correlations (Table 6) indicated one significant ($p \leq .05$) positive linear relationship between general

TABLE 5

Stepwise Regression of Actual Perceived Leader Behaviors With General Satisfaction--Interdependent Sports Teams

STP	INTERC	MATI	MASS	MAPF	MADB	MAAB	R^2 MODEL	MODEL p
				1				
1	1.6486			1.0463			.3218	.0001
	.0186			.0001				
		2		1				
2	-.6552	.8837		.6842			.3748	.0001
	.5580	.0120		.0023				
		2		1	3			
3	-.7430	.7862		.5481	.3417		.3919	.0001
	.5042	.0264		.0220	.1457			
		2		1	3	4		
4	.6351	.7823		.5468	.3413	-.0286	.3920	.0001
	.6416	.0286		.0233	.1489	.8900		
		1	5	2	3	4		
5	-.6456	.7847	.0149	.5517	.3493	-.2742	.3921	.0001
	.6430	.0310	.9637	.0378	.2397	.8963		

MATI = Mean actual perceived training and instruction

MASS = Mean actual perceived social support

MAPF = Mean actual perceived positive feedback

MADB = Mean actual perceived democratic behavior

MAAB = Mean actual perceived autocratic behavior

Note: N = 81 The single digit number in middle five cells is rank. The first decimal number is the loading. The second decimal number is probability (p) for the variable in each regression equation.

Table 6

Pairwise Correlation of Actual Perceived Leader Behaviors With General Satisfaction--Baseball

	MATI	MASS	MAPF	MADB	MAAB
MASS	.4615				
	.0060				
MAPF	.5406	.6900			
	.0010	.0001			
MADB	.3699	.8364	.4714		
	.0313	.0001	.0049		
MAAB	-.2062	-.0851	-.0381	.0499	
	.2419	.6322	.8308	.7795	
SATG	.1893	.3826	.3093	.1834	-.1208
	.2835	.0255	.0751	.2991	.4962
Mean	4.3257	3.1765	4.1765	3.0949	2.9765
S.D.	.4985	.7657	.6434	.7670	.7165

SATG Mean = 6.0588 S.D. = 1.3471

MATI = Mean actual perceived training and instruction

MASS = Mean actual perceived social support

MAPF = Mean actual perceived positive feedback

MADB = Mean actual perceived democratic behavior

MAAB = Mean actual perceived autocratic behavior

SATG = General satisfaction with leadership

Note: N = 134 First line in each cell is Pearson product moment (r). Second line in each cell is probability (p).

satisfaction and social support, (r^2 = .1464, p = .0255). Thus Hypothesis 1b, and path goal theory which suggested a relationship between general satisfaction and task oriented leader behaviors for the interdependent sport of baseball, were not supported in this study. The presence of a single people oriented leader behavior, (i.e., social support) and the absence of task oriented leader behaviors, (i.e., training and instruction, positive feedback and autocratic behavior) were contrary to Hypothesis 1b and path goal theory (House, 1971).

Further investigation of the data from the baseball team using stepwise regression analysis (Table 7) produced a significant (r^2 = .1464, p = .0255) one variable model in which social support, a people oriented leader behavior, was the only variable brought into a regression model significantly related (p = .0255) to general satisfaction. Again, there was no support for Hypothesis 1b or for path goal theory (House, 1971) within the interdependent sport of baseball. The presence of one people oriented leader behavior, (i.e., social support) and the absence of task oriented leader behaviors, (i.e., training and instruction, positive feedback and autocratic behavior) were contrary to Hypothesis 1b and path goal theory (House, 1971).

Table 7

Stepwise Regression of Actual Percieved Leader Behaviors With General Satisfaction--Baseball

STP	INTERC	MATI	MASS	MAPF	MADB	MAAB	R^2 MODEL	MODEL p
1	3.9209		1 .6731				.1464	.0255
	.0002		.0255					
2	4.2669		1 1.3419		2 -.7983		.2084	.0267
	.0001		.0136		.1291			
3	4.0761		1 1.3158		2 -.7734	3 .0661	.2096	.0667
	.0043		.0200		.1574	.8347		
4	3.8656	4 .0537	1 1.2942		2 -.7678	3 .0761	.2099	.1328
	.1272	.9194	.0348		.1697	.8214		
5	3.8757	4 .0557	1 1.2990	5 -.0064	2 -.7698	3 .0756	.2099	.2254
	.1544	.9218	.0820	.9906	.1950	.8267		

MATI = Mean actual perceived training and instruction

MASS = Mean actual perceived social support

MAPF = Mean actual perceived positive feedback

MADB = Mean actual perceived democratic behavior

MAAB = Mean actual perceived autocratic behavior

Note: N = 34 The single digit number in middle five cells is rank. The first decimal number is the loading. The second decimal number is probability (p) for the variable in each regression equation.

Situational Characteristics--Relative Gender

Hypothesis 2a. Across the teams which had female athletes and a female coach (basketball, volleyball, and track and field), the results of the pairwise correlations (Table 8) indicated significant linear ($p \leq .05$) relationships between general satisfaction with leadership and actual perceived leader behaviors in each of the actual perceived leader behavior dimensions of: (a) social support, (b) training and instruction (c) democratic behavior and (d) autocratic behavior. Social support ($r^2 = .3145$, $p = .0001$) proved to be the most statistically significant predictor followed by training and instruction ($r^2 = .2155$, $p = .0015$) and democratic behavior, ($r^2 = .2011$, $p = .0023$). Autocratic behavior ($r^2 = .0908$, $p = .0469$) was the least statistically significant correlation in this group, as well as the only negatively correlated factor. Thus Hypothesis 2a, which suggested for female athletes with female coaches a relationship between general satisfaction with leadership and the people oriented leader behaviors of social support and democratic behavior, was only partially supported by the pairwise correlations. Both social support and democratic behavior were found to be significant ($p \leq .05$) predictors of satisfaction with leadership. Since the relationship between satisfaction with general leadership and autocratic behavior was

Table 8

Pairwise Correlation of Actual Perceived Leader Behaviors With General Satisfaction--Female Athletes/Female Coaches

	MATI	MASS	MAPF	MADB	MAAB
MASS	.3980				
	.0075				
MAPF	.4862	.4556			
	.0008	.0019			
MADB	.2093	.6217	.4285		
	.1728	.0001	.0037		
MAAB	-.2077	-.1849	-.3754	-.0741	
	.1762	.2295	.0121	.6326	
SATG	.4643	.5608	.2114	.4486	-.3013
	.0015	.0001	.1683	.0023	.0469
Mean	4.4104	3.3781	4.3273	3.1456	2.5818
S.D.	.4174	.8086	.6794	.6965	.6218

SATG Mean = 6.2955 S.D. = 1.2864

MATI = Mean actual perceived training and instruction

MASS = Mean actual perceived social support

MAPF = Mean actual perceived positive feedback

MADB = Mean actual perceived democratic behavior

MAAB = Mean actual perceived autocratic behavior

SATG = General satisfaction with leadership

Note: N = 44 First line in each cell is Pearson product moment (r). Second line in each cell is probability (p).

significant (p = .0469) and negative (r = -.3013) this too lends support to Hypothesis 2a and the sex role congruency hypothesis (Nieva & Gutek, 1981). However, training and instruction, a task oriented behavior was also found to be significantly related to general satisfaction with leadership. The latter finding does not support Hypothesis 2a, nor does it support the sex role congruency hypothesis (Nieva & Gutek, 1981).

Further analysis of the variables in Hypothesis 2a using stepwise regression analysis (Table 9) produced a significant (p = .0001) two variable model which included (from most significant to least significant), social support, (p = 0018), and training and instruction, (p = .0381). This model (R^2 = .3836, p = .0001) indicated that together both leader behavior dimensions, accounted for a larger percent of the variability than any other combination in which each variable was significant. Thus, an analysis of the interactions of the variables presented here lends partial support for the sex role congruency hypothesis for female athletes with female coaches reflected in Hypothesis 2a, in which relationships were predicted between general satisfaction with leadership and people oriented leader behaviors. The presence of a relationship with training and instruction and the absence of a relationship with democratic behavior were contrary to

Table 9

Stepwise Regression of Actual Perceived Leader Behaviors With General Satisfication--Female Athletes/Female Coaches

STP	INTERC	MATI	MASS	MAPF	MADB	MAAB	R^2 MODEL	MODEL p
			1					
1	3.2816		.8922				.3145	.0001
	.0001		.0001					
		2	1					
2	.0009	.8828	.7108				.3836	.0001
	.9996	.0381	.0018					
		2	1			3		
3	1.3764	.8000	.6783			-.3488	.4104	.0001
	.4834	.0595	.0027			.1848		
		2	1	4		3		
4	2.4026	1.0754	.8022	-.5264		-.4965	.4583	.0001
	.2295	.0160	.0006	.0709		.0667		
		1	4	2	5	3		
5	1.9495	1.1883	.5405	-.6749	.5344	-.5602	.5056	.0001
	.3255	.0007	.0372	.0232	.0642	.0355		

MATI = Mean actual perceived training and instruction

MASS = Mean actual perceived social support

MAPF = Mean actual perceived positive feedback

MADB = Mean actual perceived democratic behavior

MAAB = Mean actual perceived autocratic behavior

Note: N = 44 The single digit number in middle five cells is rank. The first decimal number is the loading. The second decimal number is probability (p) for the variable in each regression equation.

the predictions of Hypothesis 2a and the sex role congruency hypothesis (Nieva & Gutek, 1981).

Hypothesis 2b. Across the teams which had female athletes and a male coach (swimming and tennis) the results of the pairwise correlations (Table 10) indicated no significant relationships between general satisfaction and actual perceived leader behavior dimensions. Thus, no support was found for Hypothesis 2b or for the sex role congruency hypothesis which suggested a relationship between satisfaction with general leadership and the task oriented leader behaviors among female athletes with male coaches.

Further analysis of the variables in Hypothesis 2b using stepwise regression analysis (Table 11) uncovered no significant ($p \leq .05$) models in any combinations of variables. Thus, again, no support was found for Hypothesis 2b and the examination of teams with female athletes and male coaches with respect to the sex role congruency hypothesis (Nieva & Gutek,1981).

Hypothesis 2c. Across the teams which had male athletes and a male coach (basketball, swimming, tennis, track and field, and volleyball) results of the pairwise correlations (Table 12) indicated four significant ($p \leq .05$) relationships exist between satisfaction with general leadership and each of the actual perceived leader behavior

Table 10

Pairwise Correlation of Actual Perceived Leader Behaviors With General Satisfaction--Female Athletes/Male Coaches

	MATI	MASS	MAPF	MADB	MAAB
MASS	.3185				
	.0863				
MAPF	.4327	.2609			
	.0169	.1638			
MADB	.2855	.2652	.1869		
	.1262	.1567	.3228		
MAAB	-.6021	-.2155	-.4400	-.3611	
	.0004	.2528	.0150	.0499	
SATG	.2863	.0712	.0420	.2482	-.2333
	.1251	.7084	.8256	.1860	.2147
Mean	4.2871	3.2125	3.7067	2.9333	2.6222
S.D.	.4095	.5023	.5842	.5448	.6427

SATG Mean = 6.6000 S.D. = .6747

MATI = Mean actual perceived training and instruction

MASS = Mean actual perceived social support

MAPF = Mean actual perceived positive feedback

MADB = Mean actual perceived democratic behavior

MAAB = Mean actual perceived autocratic behavior

SATG = General satisfaction with leadership

Note: N = 30 First line in each cell is Pearson product moment (r). Second line in each cell is probability (p).

Table 11

Stepwise Regression of Actual Perceived Leader Behaviors With General Satisfaction--Female Athletes/Male Coaches

STP	INTERC	MATI	MASS	MAPF	MADB	MAAB	R^2 MODEL	MODEL p
		1						
1	4.5783	.4716					.0819	.1251
	.0013	.1251						
		1			2			
2	4.2854	.3863			.2245		.1121	.2008
	.0032	.2259			.3466			
		1	3		2			
3	4.6795	.4839	-.3010		.2772		.1556	.2142
	.0019	.1438	.2578		.2534			
		1	3	4	2			
4	4.7560	.5377	-.2862	-.0995	.2819		.1615	.3339
	.0022	.1376	.2936	.6785	.2539			
		1	3	4	2	5		
5	5.2680	.4853	-.2824	-.1162	.2651	-.0716	.1641	.4717
	.0341	.2429	.3098	.6454	.3062	.7862		

MATI = Mean actual perceived training and instruction

MASS = Mean actual perceived social support

MAPF = Mean actual perceived positive feedback

MADB = Mean actual perceived democratic behavior

MAAB = Mean actual perceived autocratic behavior

Note: N = 30 The single digit number in middle five cells is rank. The first decimal number is the loading. The second decimal number is probability (p) for the variable in each regression equation.

Table 12

Pairwise Correlation of Actual Perceived Leader Behaviors With General Satisfaction--Male Athletes/Male Coaches

	MATI	MASS	MAPF	MADB	MAAB
MASS	.6412				
	.0001				
MAPF	.6440	.7097			
	.0001	.0001			
MADB	.5090	.5962	.5558		
	.0001	.0001	.0001		
MAAB	-.1079	-.1016	-.1081	-.0173	
	.2709	.3003	.2702	.8604	
SATG	.4857	.4819	.5108	.3928	-.1107
	.0001	.0001	.0001	.0001	.2588
Mean	4.0464	3.4074	3.9604	3.1321	2.9337
S.D.	.5696	.7569	.7592	.7772	.6360

SATG Mean = 5.7009 S.D. = 1.5554

MATI = Mean actual perceived training and instruction

MASS = Mean actual perceived social support

MAPF = Mean actual perceived positive feedback

MADB = Mean actual perceived democratic behavior

MAAB = Mean actual perceived autocratic behavior

SATG = General satisfaction with leadership

Note: N = 106 First line in each cell is Pearson product moment (r). Second line in each cell is probability (p).

dimensions of: (a) positive feedback, (b) training and instruction, (c) social support, and (d) democratic behavior. Positive feedback (r^2 = .2609, p = .0001) and training and instruction (r^2 = .2359, p = .0001) were the two most statistically significant predictors of general satisfaction. Social support (r^2 = .2322, p = .0001) was the third predictor, followed by democratic behavior (r^2 = .1543, p = .0001). Hypothesis 2c and the sex role congruency hypothesis which suggested a relationship between general satisfaction with leadership and task oriented leader behaviors for male athletes with male coaches was partially supported because of the strength of positive feedback and training and instruction as predictors of general satisfaction. The absence of autocratic behavior and the inclusion of social support and democratic behavior were contrary to Hypothesis 2c and the sex role hypothesis. Partial support therefore was found for the sex role congruency hypothesis (Nieva & Gutek).

Further analysis of the variables in Hypothesis 2c using stepwise regression analysis (Table 13) produced a significant (R^2 = .3029, p = .0001) two variable model which included (from most significant to least significant) positive feedback (p = .0022), and training and instruction, (p = .0144). In light of the significance of two task oriented leader behaviors, positive feedback and

Table 13

Stepwise Regression of Actual Perceived Leader Behaviors With General Satisfaction--Male Athletes/Male Coaches

STP	INTERC	MATI	MASS	MAPF	MADB	MAAB	R^2 MODEL	MODEL p
1	1.6854 .0149			1 1.0228 .0001			.2609	.0001
2	.1615 .8584	2 .7145 .0144		1 .6775 .0022			.3029	.0001
3	.2534 .7796	2 .5804 .0594	1 .3209 .1998	3 .5152 .0409			.3141	.0001
4	.2203 .8085	1 .5415 .0764	3 .2692 .3038	2 .4842 .0589	4 .1434 .4922		.3173	.0001
5	.6155 .5894	2 .5424 .0827	3 .2631 .3169	1 .4773 .0637	4 .1524 .4681	5 .1154 .5634	.3196	.0001

MATI = Mean actual perceived training and instruction

MASS = Mean actual perceived social support

MAPF = Mean actual perceived positive feedback

MADB = Mean actual perceived democratic behavior

MAAB = Mean actual perceived autocrtatic behavior

Note: N = 106 The single digit number in middle five cells is rank. The first decimal number is the loading. The second decimal number is probability (p) for the variable in each regression equation.

training and instruction, there was some support for Hypothesis 2c, the sex role congruency hypothesis, which predicted relationships with task oriented leader behaviors in the examination of teams with male athletes and male coaches. The absence of autocratic behavior as a predictor of general satisfaction was contrary to Hypothesis 2c and the sex role congruency hypothesis (Nieva & Gutek, 1981).

Baseball

Among male baseball players the results of the pairwise correlations (Table 6, p. 105) indicated one significant ($p \leq .05$) positive linear relationship between general satisfaction and the actual perceived leader behavior dimension of social support, ($r^2 = .1464$, $p = .0225$). Thus Hypothesis 2c, and the sex role congruency hypothesis (Nieva & Gutek, 1981), which suggested a relationship between general satisfaction and task oriented leader behaviors for male athletes with male coaches were not supported in this study in the sport of baseball. The presence of one people oriented leader behavior, (i.e., social support) and the absence of task oriented leader behaviors, (i.e., training and instruction, positive feedback and autocratic behavior) were contrary to Hypothesis 2c and path goal theory (House, 1971).

Further investigation of the data from the baseball players for Hypothesis 2c using stepwise regression analysis (Table 7, p. 107) indicated a significant (R^2 = .1464, p = .0255) one variable model in which social support, a people oriented leader behavior, was the only variable brought into a regression model significantly related (p = .0255) to general satisfaction. Again there was no support for Hypothesis 2c, or the sex role congruency hypothesis in the sport of baseball. The presence of one people oriented leader behavior, (i.e., social support) and the absence of task oriented leader behaviors, (i.e., training and instruction, positive feedback and autocratic behavior) were contrary to Hypothesis 2c and path goal theory (House, 1971).

Situational Characteristics--Specific Sport

Hypothesis 3. Across female and male basketball players, the results of the pairwise correlations (Table 14) indicated significant ($p \leq .05$) positive linear relationships exist between general satisfaction and each of the actual perceived leader behaviors in the dimensions of: (a) democratic behavior, (b) social support, (c) positive feedback, and (d) training and instruction. Democratic behavior (r^2 = .7211, p = .0001) was the most statistically significant predictor of satisfaction with

Table 14

Pairwise Correlation of Actual Perceived Leader Behaviors With General Satisfaction--Basketball

	MATI	MASS	MAPF	MADB	MAAB
MASS	.7955 .0001				
MAPF	.8383 .0001	.8630 .0001			
MADB	.7362 .0001	.8938 .0001	.7290 .0001		
MAAB	-.1921 .3919	-.1932 .3891	-.2011 .3696	-.2247 .3148	
SATG	.7262 .0001	.8358 .0001	.7843 .0001	.8492 .0001	-.0901 .6901
Mean	4.0267	3.3466	3.8364	2.8351	2.9636
S.D.	.7534	1.0286	1.0540	.8823	.8203

SATG Mean = 4.9546 S.D. = 2.2142

MATI = Mean actual perceived training and instruction

MASS = Mean actual perceived social support

MAPF = Mean actual perceived positive feedback

MADB = Mean actual perceived democratic behavior

MAAB = Mean actual perceived autocratic behavior

SATG = General satisfaction with leadership

Note: N = 22 First line in each cell is Pearson product moment (r). Second line in each cell is probability (p).

leadership, followed by social support (r^2 = .6985, p = .0001) and positive feedback (r^2 = .6150, p = .0001). Training and instruction (r^2 = .5274, p = .0001) was the weakest significant predictor. The two most significant relationships existed between satisfaction with leadership and people oriented leader behaviors democratic behavior and social support.

On the other hand, across female and male volleyball players the results of the correlations (Table 15) indicated significant (p = .05) positive linear relationships existed between general satisfaction and actual perceived leader behaviors in the dimensions of: (a) positive feedback, and (b) training and instruction. One significant ($p \leq .05$) negative linear relationship was found to exist with autocratic behavior. Positive feedback (r^2 = .3936, p = .001) was the most statistically significant predictor of satisfaction with leadership followed by the negative relationship to autocratic behavior (r^2 = .3356, p = .003). Training and instruction (r^2 = .2802, p = .0078) was the least statistically significant predictor.

Partial support for Hypothesis 3 and path goal theory (House, 1971) was found to the extent that two task oriented leader behaviors (training and instruction and positive feedback) resulted in a stronger linear

Table 15

Pairwise Correlation of Actual Perceived Leader Behaviors With General Satisfaction--Volleyball

	MATI	MASS	MAPF	MADB	MAAB
MASS	.5314				
	.0075				
MAPF	.5243	.6018			
	.0085	.0019			
MADB	.2271	.6249	.5813		
	.2858	.0011	.0028		
MAAB	-.1089	-.1868	-.3587	-.1619	
	.6124	.3820	.0852	.4498	
SATG	.5294	.2932	.6274	.1966	-.5793
	.0078	.1644	.0010	.3572	.0030
Mean	4.1988	2.9115	3.5667	3.0325	2.8750
S.D.	.4455	.7450	.9774	.7637	.6374

SATG Mean = 5.8400 S.D. = 1.5188

MATI = Mean actual perceived training and instruction

MASS = Mean actual perceived social support

MAPF = Mean actual perceived positive feedback

MADB = Mean actual perceived democratic behavior

MAAB = Mean actual perceived autocratic behavior

SATG = General satisfaction with leadership

Note: N = 24 First line in each cell is Pearson product moment (r). Second line in each cell is probability (p).

relationship for basketball than for volleyball. However this supportive factor is tempered by the fact that both people oriented leader behaviors (social support and democratic behavior) also resulted in stronger relationships for basketball than for volleyball. Further confusion arose from the fact that basketball players indicated stronger relationships between people oriented leader behaviors and general satisfaction, while volleyball players indicated stronger relationships with task oriented behaviors. Each of these latter confounding results run contrary to the predictions of path goal theory (House, 1971).

Further investigation of the variables in Hypothesis 3 using stepwise regression analysis (Table 16) among the data collected from basketball players produced a significant (R^2 = .7793, p = .0001) two variable model which included (from most significant to least significant) democratic behavior (p = .0013) and positive feedback (p = .0372). This model represented split results between people oriented and task oriented behaviors, with the people oriented behavior (democratic behavior) showing as the stronger predictor of general satisfaction. Therefore, little support is present for Hypothesis 3 and path goal theory as it pertains to the examination of basketball and volleyball. Stepwise regression analysis among the data

Table 16

Stepwise Regression of Actual Perceived Leader Behaviors With General Satisfaction--Basketball

STP	INTERC	MATI	MASS	MAPF	MADB	MAAB	R^2 MODEL	MODEL p
					1			
1	1.0867				2.1309		.7211	.0001
	.2302				.0001			
				2	1			
2	2.0998			.7408	1.4858		.7793	.0001
	.0342			.0372	.0013			
				2	1	3		
3	-3.2814			.7609	1.5361	.3246	.7930	.0001
	.0327			.0330	.0011	.2896		
		4		2	1	3		
4	-3.1912	-.0556		.7865	1.5487	.3244	.7931	.0001
	.0914	.9309		.0961	.0023	.3040		
		4	5	2	1	3		
5	-3.1957	-.0555	-.0134	.7923	1.5576	.3249	.7931	.0001
	.1044	.9331	.9861	.1814	.0334	.3198		

MATI = Mean actual perceived training and instruction

MASS = Mean actual perceived social support

MAPF = Mean actual perceived postive feedback

MADB = Mean actual perceived democratic behavior

MAAB = Mean actual prceived autocratic behavior

Note: N = 22 The single digit number in middle five cells is rank. The first decimal number is the loading. The second decimal number is probability (p) for the varialbe in each regression equation.

collected from volleyball players for Hypothesis 3 (Table 17) produced a pair of significant two variable models. The first model (R^2 = .5376, p = .0003) consisted of (from most significant to least significant) positive feedback (p = .0064) and autocratic behavior (p = .0183). The second model, which accounted for more variability and had greater significance, (R^2 = .5556, p = 0002) consisted of (from most significant to least significant) autocratic behavior--negatively related (p = .0017) and training and instruction (p = .0041). Neither model lends support for Hypothesis 3 as it pertains to the comparison of basketball and volleyball within the framework of path goal theory (House, 1971).

Member Characteristics--Gender of Athletes

Hypothesis 4a. Across all female teams (baseball, swimming, tennis, track and field, and volleyball) the results of the pairwise correlations (Table 18) indicated significant (p = .05) positive linear relationships between general satisfaction and actual perceived leader behaviors in each of the dimensions of: (a) social support, (b) training and instruction, and (c) democratic behavior. Autocratic behavior was found to have a significant negative relationship with general satisfaction. Social support (r^2 = .1785, p = .0002) was the most statistically

Table 17

Stepwise Regression of Actual Perceived Leader Behaviors With General Satisfaction--Volleyball

STP	INTERC	MATI	MASS	MAPF	MADB	MAAB	R^2 MODEL	MODEL p
				1				
1	2.9809			.8465			.3936	.0010
	.0016			.0010				
				1		2		
2	6.1009			.6497		-0.8411	.5376	.0003
	.0003			.0064		0.0183		
		2				1		
3	3.2751	1.3968				-1.0922	.5556	.0002
	.1353	.0041				0.0017		
		2		3		1		
4	3.1170	.9591		.4063		.9020	.6130	.0002
	.1382	.0624		.1004		.0086		
		2	4	3		1		
5	2.9361	.1762	-0.4372	.5557		.8988	.6480	.0004
	.1544	.0299	0.1853	.0422		.0080		
		3	4	2	5	1		
6	3.2785	.0976	-0.3462	.6133	-.1709	-.8864	.6529	.0010
	0.1414	.0549	0.3641	.0449	.6219	.0105		

MATI = Mean actual perceived training and instruction

MASS = Mean actual perceived social support

MAPF = Mean actual perceived positive feedback

MADB = Mean actual perceived democratic behavior

MAAB = Mean actual perceived autocratic behavior

Note: N = 24 The single digit number in middle five cells is rank. The first decimal number is the loading. The second decimal number is probability (p) for the varialbe in each regression equation.

Table 18

Pairwise Correlation of Actual Perceived Leader Behaviors With General Satisfaction—Female Athletes

	MATI	MASS	MAPF	MADB	MAAB
MASS	.3775 .0009				
MAPF	.4788 .0001	.4085 .0003			
MADB	.2522 .0302	.5396 .0001	.3843 .0007		
MAAB	-.3683 .0012	-.1913 .1026	-.3724 .0011	-.1766 .1323	
SATG	.3745 .0010	.4225 .0002	.0901 .4454	.3680 .0013	-.2635 .0233
Mean	4.3604	3.3110	4.0757	3.0595	2.5982
S.D.	.4159	.7015	.7082	.6440	.6263

SATG Mean = 6.4189 S.D. = 1.0855

MATI = Mean actual perceived training and instruction

MASS = Mean actual perceived social support

MAPF = Mean actual perceived positive feedback

MADB = Mean actual perceived democratic behavior

MAAB = Mean actual perceived autocratic behavior

SATG = General satisfaction with leadership

Note: N = 74 First line in each cell is Pearson product moment (r). Second line in each cell is probability (p).

significant predictor of satisfaction with leadership followed by training and instruction (r^2 = .1403, p = .001). Democratic behavior (r^2 = .1354, p = .0013) was the third significant predictor. Autocratic behavior (r^2 = .0694, p = .0233) was negatively related with general satisfaction with leadership. Thus Hypothesis 4a and the sex role congruency hypothesis which suggested a relationship between general satisfaction with leadership and people oriented leader behaviors were partially supported to the extent that social support and democratic behavior, were found to be significantly and positively related to general satisfaction with leadership for female athletes and autocratic behavior was negatively related. However training and instruction, a task oriented behavior, was also found to be related to satisfaction which is contrary to the predictions of the sex role congruency hypothesis. Further investigation of the variables in Hypothesis 4a using stepwise regression analysis (Table 19) produced a significant (R^2 = .2324, p = .0001) two variable model which included (from most significant to least significant) social support (p = .0047) and training and instruction (p = .0287). Thus, partial support for Hypothesis 4a and the sex role congruency hypothesis (Nieva & Gutek, 1981) which predicted positive relationships between satisfaction with general leadership and people

Table 19

Stepwise Regression of Actual Perceived Leader Behaviors With General Satisfaction--Female Athletes

STP	INTERC	MATI	MASS	MAPF	MADB	MAAB	R^2 MODEL	MODEL p
			1					
1	4.2543		.6538				.1785	.0002
	.0001		.0002					
		2	1					
2	1.8853	.6545	.5073				.2324	.0001
	.1183	.0287	.0047					
		2	1	3				
3	2.0186	.8826	.6021	-.3538			.2703	.0001
	.0896	.0060	.0012	.0609				
		1	3	2	4			
4	1.6030	.8957	.4308	-.4287	.4024		.3088	.0001
	.1747	.0046	.0304	.0242	.0538			
		2	3	1	4	5		
5	3.2060	.7793	.4365	-.4976	.3938	-.3107	.3350	.0001
	.0380	.0144	.0266	.0103	.0563	.1066		

MATI = Mean actual perceived training and instruction

MASS = Mean actual perceived social support

MAPF = Mean actual perceived positive feedback

MADB = Mean actual perceived democratic behavior

MAAB = Mean actual perceived autocratic behavior

Note: N = 74 The single digit number in middle five cells is rank. The first decimal number is the loading. The second decimal number is probability (p) for the varialbe in each regression equation.

oriented leader behaviors was found in the inclusion of social support, the most significant relationship within the model for female athletes. The presence of training and instruction as a predictor of satisfaction with general leadership and the absence of democratic behavior are contrary to Hypothesis 4a and the sex role congruency hypothesis.

Hypothesis 4b. Across five male teams basketball, swimming, tennis, track and field, and volleyball the results of the pairwise correlations (Table 12, p. 115) indicated significant ($p \leq .05$) linear positive relationships existed between general satisfaction and each of the actual perceived leader behaviors in the dimensions of: (a) positive feedback, (b) training and instruction, (c) social support, and (d) democratic behavior. Positive feedback, ($r2 = .2609$, $p = .0001$) was the most statistically significant predictor of satisfaction with leadership followed by training and instruction ($r^2 = .2359$, $p = .0001$) and social support, ($r^2 = .2322$, $p = .0001$). Democratic behavior ($r^2 = .1543$, $p = .0001$) was the least statistically significant predictor. Thus Hypothesis 4b and the sex role congruency hypothesis which suggested a relationship between general satisfaction with leadership and task oriented leader behaviors was partially supported by the correlation analysis to the extent that

positive feedback and training and instruction were the two most significant predictors of satisfaction with leadership among male athletes. However, social support and democratic behavior, both people oriented behaviors, were also significant ($p \leq .05$) predictors of satisfaction, and autocratic behavior, a task oriented behavior, was not significantly related to satisfaction with general leadership. The latter findings are contrary to the predictions of Hypothesis 4b and the sex role congruency hypothesis (Nieva & Gutek, 1981).

Further investigation of the variables in Hypothesis 4b using stepwise regression analysis (Table 12, p. 115) produced a significant ($R^2 = .3029$, $p = .0001$) two variable model which included (from most significant to least significant) positive feedback ($p = .0022$) and training and instruction ($p = .0144$). Thus, partial support for Hypothesis 4b and the sex role congruency hypothesis was found in the inclusion of the task oriented behaviors of positive feedback and training and instruction for male athletes. The absence of autocratic behaviors as a predictor of satisfaction with general leadership was contrary to the prediction of Hypothesis 4b and the sex role congruency hypothesis (Nieva & Gutek, 1981).

Baseball

Among male baseball players the results of the pairwise correlations (Table 6, p. 105) indicated one significant ($p \leq .05$) positive linear relationship existed between general satisfaction and social support, ($r^2 = .1464$, $p = .0255$). Thus, Hypothesis 4b and the sex role congruency hypothesis, which suggested a relationship between general satisfaction and task oriented leader behaviors for male athletes was not supported in this study in the sport of baseball. The presence of one people oriented leader behavior, (i.e., social support) and the absence of task oriented leader behaviors, (i.e., training and instruction, positive feedback and autocratic behavior) were contrary to Hypothesis 4b and path goal theory (House, 1971).

Further investigation of the data for baseball players for Hypothesis 4b using stepwise regression analysis (Table 7, p. 107) produced a significant ($R^2 = .1464$, $p = .0255$) one variable model in which social support was the only variable brought into a regression model significantly related ($p = .0255$) to general satisfaction. Again, there was no support for Hypothesis 4b and the sex role congruency hypothesis (Nieva & Gutek, 1981) in the sport of baseball. The presence of one people oriented leader behavior, (i.e., social support) and the absence of task

oriented leader behaviors, (i.e., training and instruction, positive feedback and autocratic behavior) were contrary to Hypothesis 4b and path goal theory (House, 1971).

Member Characteristics--Readiness

Hypothesis 5a. Among athletes of low readiness (male volleyball) the results of the pairwise correlations (Table 20) indicated significant linear ($p \leq .05$) relationships between general satisfaction with leadership and actual perceived leader behaviors in each of the dimensions of: (a) autocratic behavior, and (b) positive feedback. Autocratic behavior ($r^2 = .5797$, $p = .0025$) proved to be the most statistically significant and negative predictor followed by positive feedback ($r^2 = .4844$, $p = .0082$).

Thus, Hypothesis 5a which suggested for athletes with low readiness a relationship between general satisfaction with leadership and task oriented leader behaviors was partially supported. Positive feedback lends partial support to Hypothesis 5a as well as situational leadership theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988). However, the absence of training and instruction and the presence of a negative relationship with autocratic behavior were contrary to Hypothesis 5a and situational leadership theory.

Further investigation using stepwise regression analysis (Table 21) produced a significant two variable model ($R^2 = .7318$, $p = .0014$) which included (from most significant to least significant), autocratic behavior, (p

Table 20

Pairwise Correlation of Actual Perceived Leader Behaviors With General Satisfaction--Low Readiness

	MATI	MASS	MAPF	MADB	MAAB
MASS	.6898				
	.0091				
MAPF	.5026	.7647			
	.0800	.0023			
MADB	.5578	.7532	.7898		
	.0476	.0030	.0013		
MAAB	-.2028	-.1468	-.4664	-.0781	
	.5064	.6323	.1082	.7999	
SATG	.5363	.4271	.6960	.3281	-.7614
	.0588	.1455	.0082	.2738	.0025
Mean	4.0592	2.9231	3.4308	3.2479	2.8154
S.D.	.5208	.9703	1.1041	.8547	.8102

SATG Mean = 5.3571 S.D. = 1.7805

MATI = Mean actual perceived training and instruction

MASS = Mean actual perceived social support

MAPF = Mean actual perceived positive feedback

MADB = Mean actual perceived democratic behavior

MAAB = Mean actual perceived autocratic behavior

SATG = General satisfaction with leadership

Note: N = 13 First line in each cell is Pearson product moment (r). Second line in each cell is probability (p).

Table 21

Stepwise Regression of Actual Perceived Leader Behaviors With General Satisfaction--Low Readiness

STP	INTERC	MATI	MASS	MAPF	MADB	MAAB	R^2 MODEL	MODEL p
						1		
1	78.74					15.17	.5797	.0025
	.0001					.0025		
		2				1		
2	3.4700	5.67				16.56	.7318	.0014
	.0919	.0385				.0023		
		2		3		1		
3	2.9800	2.33		2.18		10.55	.7841	.0024
	.1182	.1614		.1740		.0100		
		3		2	4	1		
4	1.5100	3.91		4.16	1.94	4.37	.8263	.0039
	.2535	.0835		.0756	.2007	.0701		
		2	5	1	4	3		
5	.3400	4.46	.77	4.73	1.76	2.72	.8435	.0097
	.5781	.0726	.4099	.0661	.2257	.1429		

MATI = Mean actual perceived training and instruction

MASS = Mean actual perceived social support

MAPF = Mean actual perceived positive feedback

MADB = Mean actual perceived democratic behavior

MAAB = Mean actual perceived autocratic behavior

Note: N = 13 The single digit number in middle five cells is rank. The first decimal number is the loading. The second decimal number is probability (p) for the variable in each regression equation.

= .0023) and training and instruction, (p = .0385). In light of the significance of two task oriented leader behavior dimensions there was partial support for Hypothesis 5b and the situational leadership theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988) as it pertains to athletes who are low in readiness. The absence of positive feedback as a predictor of satisfaction with general leadership was contrary to Hypothesis 5a and situational leadership theory, (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988).

Hypothesis 5b. Among athletes of moderate readiness (female volleyball, and track and field; male track and field) the results of the pairwise correlations (Table 22) indicated significant linear ($p \leq .05$) relationships between general satisfaction with leadership and actual perceived leader behaviors in each of the dimensions of: (a) training and instruction, and (b) social support. Training and instruction (r^2 = .1547, p = .0002) proved to be the most statistically significant predictor followed by social support (r^2 = .0913, p = 0052).

Thus, Hypothesis 5b which suggested for athletes with moderate readiness a relationship between general satisfaction with leadership, and both task and people oriented leader behaviors was partially supported. Training and instruction a (task oriented behavior) and social support (people oriented) lend partial support to

Table 22

Pairwise Correlation of Actual Perceived Leader Behaviors With General Satisfaction--Moderate Readiness

	MATI	MASS	MAPF	MADB	MAAB
MASS	.4315 .0001				
MAPF	.5793 .0001	.4118 .0001			
MADB	.2818 .0094	.5342 .0001	.3589 .0008		
MAAB	-.1940 .0771	-.0243 .8263	-.1692 .1240	-.1375 .2123	
SATG	.3933 .0002	.3022 .0052	.1746 .1122	.2135 .0511	-.1413 .1998
Mean	4.1630	3.3394	4.1905	3.1750	2.8402
S.D.	.5215	.6824	1.6003	.7204	.6316

SATG Mean = 5.9643 S.D. = 1.3303

MATI = Mean actual perceived training and instruction

MASS = Mean actual perceived social support

MAPF = Mean actual perceived positive feedback

MADB = Mean actual perceived democratic behavior

MAAB = Mean actual perceived autocratic behavior

SATG = General satisfaction with leadership

Note: N = 84 First line in each cell is Pearson product moment (r). Second line in each cell is probability (p).

Hypothesis 5b and situational leadership theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988) as it pertains to athletes who are moderate in readiness. The absence of positive feedback, democratic behavior, and autocratic behavior were contrary to the predictions of Hypothesis 5b and situational leadership theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988).

Further investigation using stepwise regression analysis (Table 23) produced a significant one variable model ($\underline{R}^2$ = .1547, $\underline{p}$ = .0002) which included training and instruction ($\underline{p}$ = .0002). In light of the significance of only one task oriented leader behavior there was little support for Hypothesis 5b and the situational leadership theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988) as it pertains to athletes of moderate readiness. The absence of positive feedback, democratic behavior, social support, and autocratic behavior were contrary to the predictions of Hypothesis 5b and situational leadership theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988).

Hypothesis 5c. Among athletes of high readiness (female and male basketball, swimming, and tennis) the results of the pairwise correlations (Table 24) indicated significant linear ($\underline{p} \leq .05$) relationships between general satisfaction with leadership and actual perceived leader behaviors in each of the dimensions of: (a) training and instruction, (b) democratic behavior, (c) social support,

Table 23

Stepwise Regression of Actual Perceived Leader Behaviors With General Satisfaction--Moderate Readiness

STP	INTERC	MATI	MASS	MAPF	MADB	MAAB	R^2 MODEL	MODEL p
1	2.7100	1 15.0100					.1547	.0002
	.1037	.0002						
2	1.7900	1 8.3500	2 2.1200				.1762	.0004
	.1842	.0049	.1493					
3	2.4900	1 9.0400	3 2.6800	3 .9900			.1863	.0009
	.1188	.0035	.1053	.3239				
4	3.1300	1 8.1600	2 2.9000	3 1.1300		.7200	.1936	.0018
	.0807	.0055	.0928	.2917		.4001		
5	3.1400	1 8.0600	3 1.3800	2 1.4200	5 .6300	4 .9900	.2000	. 0033
	.0803	.0057	.2435	.2373	.4306	.3230		

MATI = Mean actual perceived training and instruction

MASS = Mean actual perceived social support

MAPF = Mean actual perceived positive feedback

MADB = Mean actual perceived democratic behavior

MAAB = Mean actual perceived autocratic behavior

Note: N = 84 The single digit number in middle five cells is rank. The first decimal number is the loading. The second decimal number probability (p) for the variable in each regression equation.

Table 24

Pairwise Correlation of Actual Perceived Leader Behaviors With General Satisfaction--High Readiness

	MATI	MASS	MAPF	MADB	MAAB
MASS	.5453 .0001				
MAPF	.6598 .0001	.7060 .0001			
MADB	.5151 .0001	.6559 .0001	.5656 .0001		
MAAB	-.3122 .0041	-.1809 .1017	-.2474 .0241	-.2739 .0122	
SATG	.5698 .0001	.5257 .0001	.4924 .0001	.5440 .0001	-.1586 .1521
Mean	4.2063	3.4660	3.9133	3.0058	2.7478
S.D.	.5510	.7249	1.7432	.7035	.6501

SATG Mean = 6.1325 S.D. = 1.4379

MATI = Mean actual perceived training and instruction

MASS = Mean actual perceived social support

MAPF = Mean actual perceived positive feedback

MADB = Mean actual perceived democratic behavior

MAAB = Mean actual perceived autocratic behavior

SATG = General satisfaction with leadership

Note: N = 83 First line in each cell is Pearson product moment (r). Second line in each cell is probability (p).

and (d) positive feedback. Training and instruction (r^2 = .3247, p = .0001), proved to be the most statistically significant predictor of general satisfaction with leadership followed by democratic behavior (r^2 = .2959, p = .0001), social support (r^2 = .2764, p = .0001), positive feedback (r^2 = .2425, p = .0001). Thus Hypothesis 5c, which suggested for athletes with high readiness no significant relationships between general satisfaction and any of the leader behavior dimensions was supported very little. The significance of four dimensions, two task and two people oriented behaviors is contrary to the predictions of Hypothesis 5c and the situational leadership theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988).

Further investigation using stepwise regression analysis (Table 25) produced a significant two variable model (R^2 = .4101, p = .0001) which included (from most significant to least significant) training and instruction (p = .0002) and democratic behavior (p = .0010). In light of the theoretical expectation of no significant relationships between satisfaction with general leadership and any of the leader behaviors, the significance of one task oriented behavior and one people oriented behavior lend only partial support for Hypothesis 5b and the situational leadership theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988).

Table 25

Stepwise Regression of Actual Perceived Leader Behaviors With General Satisfaction--High Readiness

STP	INTERC	MATI	MASS	MAPF	MADB	MAAB	R^2 MODEL	MODEL p
		1						
1	.0100	38.95					.3247	.0001
	.9038	.0001						
		1			2			
2	.0900	15.4800			11.5800		.4101	.0001
	.7618	.0002			.0010			
		1	3		2			
3	.1800	10.8500	2.0400		4.7400		.4249	.0001
	.6758	.0015	.1575		.0325			
		1	3		2	4		
4	.5300	11.1300	1.8900		5.0100	.3800	.4277	.0001
	.4697	.0013	.1732		.0280	.5373		
		1	3	5	2	4		
5	.5200	8.9600	1.4300	.0000	4.9000	.3800	.4278	.0001
	.4722	.0037	.2350	.9738	.0298	.5394		

MATI = Mean actual perceived training and instruction

MASS = Mean actual prceived social support

MAPF = Mean actual perceived positive feedback

MADB = Mean actual perceived democratic behavior

MAAB = Mean actual perceived autocratic behavior

Note: N = 83 The single digit number in middle five cells is rank. The first decimal number is the loading. The second decimal number is probability (p) for the variable in each regression equation.

Baseball

Among male baseball players the results of the pairwise correlations (Table 6, p. 105) indicated one significant ($p \leq .05$) positive linear relationship between general satisfaction and social support, ($r^2 = .1464$, $p = .0255$). Thus, Hypothesis 5c, and situational leadership theory which suggested no relationships between general satisfaction and any of the leader behaviors for the high readiness sport of baseball, were supported in this study. The presence of one people oriented leader behavior, (i.e., social support) was partially supportive of Hypothesis 5c and situational leadership theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988)

Further investigation of the data from the baseball team using stepwise regression analysis (Table 7, p. 107) produced a significant ($r^2 = .1464$, $p = .0255$) one variable model in which social support was the only variable brought into a regression model significantly related ($p = .0255$) to general satisfaction. Again, there was considerable support for Hypothesis 5c and for situational leadership theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988) within the high readiness sport of baseball.

Relationship Between General Satisfaction and Discrepancy Scores

Discrepancy theory (Yukl, 1971) predicted that general satisfaction with leadership will increase as the discrepancy between preferred and actual perceived leader behaviors decreases. Thus, a negative relationship (i.e., lower discrepancy score with higher level of general satisfaction with leadership) was expected.

All Situational and Member Characteristics

Hypothesis 6. Across all female teams and all male teams, except baseball, the results of the pairwise correlations (Table 26) indicated significant ($p \leq .05$) negative linear relationships existed between general satisfaction with leadership and each of the discrepancy scores in the dimensions of: (a) democratic behavior, (b) social support, (c) training and instruction, and (d) positive feedback. The discrepancy score for autocratic behavior was found to be positively related to general satisfaction.

Democratic behavior ($r^2 = .2397$, $p = .0001$) produced the most statistically significant relationship, followed by social support ($r^2 = .2230$, $p = .0001$) and training and instruction ($r^2 = .1779$, $p = .0001$). The fourth most significant relationship with general satisfaction with leadership was the discrepancy score for positive feedback

Table 26

Pairwise Correlation of Discrepancy Scores With General Satisfaction--All Athletes Except Baseball

	DTI	DSS	DPF	DDB	DAB
DSS	.4713				
	.0001				
DPF	.3301	.3798			
	.0001	.0001			
DDB	.3757	.5452	.4271		
	.0001	.0001	.0001		
DAB	-.1847	-.1804	-.2315	-.2510	
	.0136	.0159	.0019	.0007	
SATG	.4218	.4723	.3431	.4896	-.1874
	.0001	.0001	.0001	.0001	.0123
Mean	.2328	.2667	.3791	.4044	-.4048
S.D.	.4666	.6734	.7974	.6577	.7348

SATG Mean = 5.9945 S.D. = 1.4240

MATI = Mean actual perceived training and instruction

MASS = Mean actual perceived social support

MAPF = Mean actual perceived positive feedback

MADB = Mean actual perceived democratic behavior

MAAB = Mean actual perceived autocratic behavior

SATG = General satisfaction with leadership

Note: N = 179 First line in each cell is Pearson product moment (r). Second line in each cell is probability (p).

(r^2 = .1177, p = .0001). Autocratic behavior--positively related (r^2 = .0351, p = .0123) was the last factor which was significantly related with general satisfaction. Thus Hypothesis 6 and discrepancy theory (Yukl, 1971) which predicted negative linear relationships between general satisfaction with leadership and discrepancy scores for each of the leader behavior dimensions was supported. The notable exception in the present study was autocratic behavior which resulted in a positive relationship. Thus athletes were found to be more satisfied with general leadership as they perceived less autocratic behavior from their coach relative to their preference for autocratic behavior. In light of this finding, Yukl's (1971) discrepancy theory was supported.

Further investigation of the variables in Hypothesis 6 using stepwise regression analysis (Table 27) produced a significant (R^2 = .3326, p = .0001) three variable model which included (most significant to least significant) democratic behavior, (p = .0001), training and instruction, (p = .0035), and social support (p = .0085). Thus only partial support was found for Hypothesis 6 and discrepancy theory (Yukl, 1971) which predicted negative relationships between general satisfaction with leadership and each of the leader behavior dimensions. Discrepancy theory (Yukl, 1971) was partially supported by the stepwise analysis in

Table 27

Stepwise Regression of Discrepancy Scores With General Satisfaction--All Athletes Except Baseball

STP	INTERC	DTI	DSS	DPF	DDB	DAB	R^2 MODEL	MODEL p
1	6.4384 .0001				1 -1.0423 .0001		.2397	.0001
2	6.5402 .0001	1 -.8514 .0001			2 -.8211 .0001		.3054	.0001
3	6.5326 .0001	2 -.6491 .0035	3 -.4347 .0085		1 -.6306 .0001		.3326	.0001
4	6.5546 .0001	2 -.5831 .0103	3 -.4063 .0146	4 -.1666 .1971	1 -.5790 .0005		.3390	.0001
5	6.5691 .0001	2 -.5770 .0114	3 -.4060 .0149	4 -.1596 .2208	1 -.5684 .0008	5 -.0568 .6459	.3398	.0001

DTI = Discrepancy score for training and instruction

DSS = Discrepancy score for social support

DPF = Discrepancy score for positive feedback

DDB = Discrepancy score for democratic behavior

DAB = Discrepancy score for autocratic behavior

Note: N = 179 The single digit number in middle five cells is rank. The first decimal number is the loading. The second decimal number is probability (p) for the variable in each regression equation.

all sports except baseball. The absence of positive feedback and autocratic behavior were contrary to Hypothesis 6 and discrepancy theory (Yukl, 1971).

Baseball

Among baseball players, the results of the pairwise correlations (Table 28) indicated no significant, ($p \leq .05$) relationships between general satisfaction and the discrepancy score for any of the leader behavior dimensions. No support for Hypothesis 6 and Yukl's (1971) discrepancy theory which predicted negative relationships between general satisfaction with leadership and each of the leader behavior dimensions was found in the sport of baseball.

Further investigation of the data from baseball players for Hypothesis 6 using stepwise regression analysis (Table 29) produced no significant ($p \leq .05$) models in which all variables within the model were also significant. Again no support for Hypothesis 6 or discrepancy theory (Yukl, 1971) was found in the sport of baseball.

Relationship Between Specific Satisfaction and the Corresponding Actual Perceived Leader Behavior Dimensions

The hypotheses analyzed in this section (Chapter 1, pp. 148-168) predicted positive relationships between

Table 28

Pairwise Correlation of Discrepancy Scores With General Satisfaction--Baseball

	DTI	DSS	DPF	DDB	DAB
DSS	.1598 .3667				
DPF	.0876 .6244	.0814 .6471			
DDB	.1114 .5305	.7016 .0001	.0429 .8099		
DAB	.0611 .7315	.3525 .0409	.0966 .5870	.1219 .4923	
SATG	-.2952 .0900	.0856 .6304	.1291 .4669	-.1901 .2817	-.0077 .9655
Mean	.1676	.2942	.2353	.3561	-.0294
S.D.	.4064	.6671	.4306	.6103	.1715

SATG Mean = 6.0588 S.D. = 1.3471

MATI = Mean actual perceived training and instruction

MASS = Mean actual perceived social support

MAPF = Mean actual perceived positive feedback

MADB = Mean actual perceived democratic behavior

MAAB = Mean actual perceived autocratic behavior

SATG = General satisfaction with leadership

Note: N = 34 First line in each cell is Pearson product moment (r). Second line in each cell is probability (p).

Table 29

Stepwise Regression of Discrepancy Scores With General Satisfaction--Baseball

STP	INTERC	DTI	DSS	DPF	DDB	DAB	R^2 MODEL	MODEL p
1	6.0706			1 -.6659			.1027	.0646
	.0001			.0646				
2	6.1718	2 -.6231		1 -.4872			.1306	.1142
	.0001	.3259		.2225				
3	6.2813	2 -.5816		1 - .4690	3 -.3278		.1523	.1690
	.0001	.3621		.2425	.3876			
4	6.3362	3 -1.0521	2 .9737		1 -1.0882		.2287	.0478
	.0001	.0601	.0416		.0364			
5	6.3031	3 -.8418	2 .8839	4 .2746	1 1.0065		.2414	.0819
	.0001	.1856	.0752	.4901	.0601			
6	6.3175	3 -.7799	2 .8747	4 -.2878	1 -.9827	5 .0768	.2435	.1449
	.0001	.2543	.0838	.4801	.0743	.7861		

DTI = Discrepancy score for training and instruction

DSS = Discrepancy score for social support

DPF = Discrepancy score for positive feedback

DDB = Discrepancy score for democratic behavior

DAB = Discrepancy score for autocratic behavior

Note: N = 34 The single digit number in middle five cells is rank. The first decimal number is the loading. The second decimal number is probabilty (p) for the variable in each regression equation.

specific satisfaction with leadership and mean actual perceived leader behaviors. The expected positive relationship for each hypothesis involved either: (a) people oriented leader behaviors, (i.e., social support and democratic behavior) or (b) task oriented leader behaviors, (i.e., training and instruction, positive feedback, and autocratic behavior). It is noteworthy at this point, that while positive relationships among people or task oriented leader behaviors were projected, negative relationships among nonpredicted leader behaviors were interpreted as being supportive of the hypothesis. Thus, for example, hypotheses which predicted positive relationships between specific satisfaction with leadership and people oriented leader behaviors were deemed to be partially supported by the presence of negative relationships with autocratic behaviors.

Situational Characteristics--Task Dependence

Hypothesis 7a. Across the independent sports of tennis, track and field, and swimming, the results of the pairwise correlations indicated significant ($p \leq .05$) positive linear relationships between satisfaction with specific leader behaviors and corresponding actual perceived leader behaviors in the dimensions of: (a) positive feedback, (b) social support, (c) training and instruction, and (d) democratic behavior. Autocratic

instruction, and (d) democratic behavior. Autocratic behavior was found to be significantly and negatively related to specific satisfaction. Positive feedback (r = .4790, r^2 = .2294, p = .0001), social support (r = .4434, r^2 = .1966, p = .0001), training and instruction (r = .3710, r^2 = .1376, p = .0001), and democratic behavior (r = .3056, r^2 = .0934, p = .0003) were each positively related to specific satisfaction. Autocratic behavior (r = -.3142, r^2 = .0987, p = .0002) was negatively related to specific satisfaction. Thus Hypothesis 7a and path goal theory (House, 1971) which suggested a relationship for independent sports between satisfaction with specific leader behavior and the corresponding actual perceived leader behavior in the people oriented dimensions of social support and democratic behavior was supported to the extent that those two leader behaviors were found to be significant. Autocratic behavior was found to be negatively related to specific satisfaction and thus adds additional support to Hypothesis 7a and path goal theory (House, 1971). However, two task oriented behaviors were also found to be significantly and positively related with specific satisfaction which is contrary to the predictions of House's (1971) path goal theory and Hypothesis 7a among independent sports participants.

Hypothesis 7b. For the interdependent sports including basketball and volleyball, the results of the pairwise correlations indicated significant ($p \leq .05$) positive linear relationships between specific satisfaction and the corresponding actual perceived leader behavior in the dimensions of: (a) positive feedback, (b) social support, (c) training and instruction, and (d) democratic behavior. Positive feedback ($r = .6885$, $r^2 = .4740$, $p = .0001$), social support, ($r = .6050$, $r^2 = .3660$, $p = .0001$), training and instruction ($r = .5958$, $r^2 = .3550$, $p = .0001$), and democratic behavior, ($r = .5420$, $r^2 = .2938$, $p = .0001$) were each positively related to specific satisfaction. Autocratic behavior ($r = -.1785$, $r^2 = .0319$, $p = .1108$) was found to be not significantly related to specific satisfaction.

Thus, Hypothesis 7b and path goal theory which suggested significant relationships for interdependent sports in the task oriented dimensions of training and instruction, positive feedback, and autocratic behavior was only partially supported to the extent that positive feedback, and training and instruction were significantly ($p \leq .05$) related to specific satisfaction. However, social support and democratic behavior were also found to be significantly related to specific satisfaction, and autocratic behavior was not a predictor at all which was

contrary to House's (1971) path goal theory and Hypothesis 7b among interdependent sports.

Baseball

Among male baseball players the results of the pairwise correlations indicated significant ($p \leq .05$) positive linear relationships existed between specific satisfaction and each of the actual perceived leader behavior dimensions of: (a) positive feedback, (b) social support, (c) training and instruction, and (d) democratic behavior. Positive feedback ($r = .5267$, $r^2 = .2774$, $p = .0014$), social support ($r = .5063$, $r^2 = .2563$, $p = .0022$), training and instruction ($r = .3994$, $r^2 = .1595$, $p = .0193$), and democratic behavior ($r = -.3830$, $r^2 = .1467$, $p = .0254$) were each positively related to specific satisfaction. Thus Hypothesis 7b, and the path goal theory, which suggested a relationship between general satisfaction and task oriented leader behaviors for athletes in interdependent sports were partially supported in this study in the inclusion of positive relationships with positive feedback and training and instruction, and a negative relationship with democratic behavior. The presence of social support and the absence of autocratic behavior were contrary to the predictions of Hypothesis 7b and path goal theory (House, 1971).

Situational Characteristics--Relative Gender

Hypothesis 8a. Across the teams which had female athletes and a female coach (basketball, volleyball, and track and field), the results of the pairwise correlations indicated significant positive linear ($p \leq .05$) relationships between specific satisfaction with leadership and the corresponding actual perceived leader behavior in each of the dimensions of: (a) positive feedback, (b) democratic behavior, (c) training and instruction, and (d) social support. Autocratic behavior was found to be negatively related to specific satisfaction. Positive feedback ($r = .5614$, $r^2 = .3152$, $p = .0001$), democratic behavior ($r = .5208$, $r^2 = .2712$, $p = .0003$), training and instruction ($r = .4919$, $r^2 = .2420$, $p = .0007$), and social support ($r = .4727$, $r^2 = .2234$, $p = .0021$) were each positively related to specific satisfaction. Autocratic behavior ($r = -.3315$, $r^2 = .1099$, $p = .0279$) was negatively correlated with specific satisfaction.

Thus Hypothesis 8a and the sex role congruency hypothesis (Nieva & Gutek, 1981) which suggested for female athletes with female coaches a relationship between specific satisfaction with leadership and the people oriented leader behaviors of social support and democratic behavior was only partially supported. Both social support and democratic behavior were found to be significant ($p \leq$

.05) predictors of satisfaction with leadership. Since the relationship between satisfaction with specific leadership and autocratic behavior was significant (p = .0279) and negative (r = -.3315) and this too gave support to Hypothesis 8a and the sex role congruency hypothesis. However, training and instruction, and positive feedback, both task oriented behaviors, were also found to be significantly related to specific satisfaction with leadership. The latter finding does not support Hypothesis 8a, nor does it support the sex role congruency hypothesis (Nieva & Gutek, 1981).

Hypothesis 8b. Across the teams which had female athletes and a male coach (swimming and tennis) the results of the pairwise correlations indicated significant positive relationships between specific satisfaction and actual perceived leader behaviors for each of the dimensions of: (a) social support, and (b) positive feedback. Autocratic behavior was found to be negatively related to specific satisfaction. Social support (r = .5151, r^2 = .2653, p = .0036) and positive feedback (r = .5133, r^2 = .2641, p = .0037) were both positively related to specific satisfaction. Autocratic behavior (r = -.3701, r^2 = .1370, p = .0441) was negatively related to specific satisfaction. Thus partial support was found for Hypothesis 8b and for the sex role congruency hypothesis (Nieva & Gutek, 1981)

which suggested a relationship between satisfaction with specific leadership and task oriented leader behaviors among female athletes with male coaches in the inclusion of positive feedback as a predictor of specific satisfaction with leadership. The absence of training and instruction, the negative relationship with autocratic behavior, and the presence of social support are contrary to Hypothesis 8b and the sex role congruency hypothesis (Nieva & Gutek, 1981).

Hypothesis 8c. Across the teams which had male athletes and a male coach (basketball, swimming, tennis, track and field, and volleyball) results of the pairwise correlations indicated four positive significant ($p \leq .05$) relationships between satisfaction with specific leadership and each of the actual perceived leader behavior dimensions of: (a) positive feedback, (b) social support, (c) democratic behavior, and (d) training and instruction. Autocratic behavior was found to be negatively related to specific satisfaction. Positive feedback ($r = .6549$, $r^2 = .4289$, $p = .0001$), social support ($r = .6283$, $r^2 = .3948$, p .0001), democratic behavior ($r = .4589$, $r^2 = .2106$, $p = .0001$), and training and instruction ($r = .4580$, $r^2 = .2098$, $p = .0001$) were each positively related to specific satisfaction. Autocratic behavior ($r = -.2269$, $r^2 = .0515$, $p = .0193$) was negatively related to specific satisfaction.

Hypothesis 8c and the sex role congruency hypothesis (Nieva & Gutek, 1981) which suggested a relationship between specific satisfaction with leadership and task oriented leader behaviors for male athletes with male coaches was partially supported because of the significance of training and instruction, and positive feedback as predictors of specific satisfaction. However, both people oriented leader behaviors were also significantly related to specific satisfaction and autocratic behavior was negatively related to specific satisfaction. The latter two findings were contrary to Hypothesis 8c and the sex role congruency hypothesis. Partial support, therefore, was found for the sex role congruency hypothesis (Nieva & Gutek, 1981).

Baseball

Among male baseball players the results of the pairwise correlations indicated significant ($p \leq .05$) positive linear relationships existed between specific satisfaction and each of the actual perceived leader behavior dimensions of: (a) positive feedback, (b) social support, (c) training and instruction, and (d) democratic behavior. Positive feedback ($r = .5276$, $r^2 = .2774$, $p = .0014$), social support ($r = .5063$, $r^2 = .2563$, $p = .0022$), training and instruction ($r = 3994$, $r^2 = .1595$, $p = .0193$)

and democratic behavior (r = .3830, r^2 = .1467, p = .0254) were each positively related to specific satisfaction. Thus, Hypothesis 8c, and the sex role congruency hypothesis, which suggested a relationship between specific satisfaction and task oriented leader behaviors for male athletes with male coaches, were partially supported in this study in the inclusion of positive relationships with positive feedback and training and instruction, and a negative relationship with democratic behavior. The presence of social support and the absence of autocratic behavior were contrary to the predictions of Hypothesis 8c and sex role congruency hypothesis (Nieva & Gutek, 1981).

Situational Characteristics--Specific Sport

Hypothesis 9. Across female and male basketball players, the results of the pairwise correlations indicated significant ($p = \leq .05$) positive linear relationships between specific satisfaction and each of the actual perceived leader behaviors in the dimensions of: (a) positive feedback, (b) social support, (c) training and instruction, and (d) democratic behavior. Positive feedback (r = .8356, r^2 = .6982, p = .0001), social support (r = .8224, r^2 = .6763, p = .0001), and training and instruction (r = .7413, r^2 = .5495, p = .0001) were each positively related to specific satisfaction. Democratic

behavior (r = .6549, r^2 = .4289, p = .0009) was the weakest significant predictor.

On the other had, across female and male volleyball players the results of the pairwise correlations indicated significant (p = .05) positive linear relationships between specific satisfaction and actual perceived leader behaviors in each of the dimensions of: (a) democratic behavior (b) positive feedback, (c) social support, and (d) training and instruction. One significant ($p \leq .05$) negative linear relationship was found to exist with autocratic behavior. Democratic behavior (r = .6812, r^2 = .4640, p = .0002), positive feedback (r = .6499, r^2 = .4224, p = .0006), social support (r = .5456, r^2 = .2917, p = .0058), and training and instruction (r = .4829, r^2 = .2332, p = .0168) were each positively related to specific satisfaction.

Partial support for Hypothesis 9 and path goal theory (House, 1971) which predicted stronger positive relationships for basketball than for volleyball between satisfaction with general leadership and task oriented leader behaviors was found to the extent that two task oriented leader behaviors (training and instruction and positive feedback) resulted in stronger linear relationships for basketball than for volleyball. However, this supportive factor is tempered by the fact that social

support also resulted in a stronger relationship for basketball than for volleyball. Democratic behavior accounted for a similar percentage of variability (r^2 = .4289 for basketball vs. r^2 = .4640 for volleyball) in both groups. Each of these latter confounding results run contrary to the predictions of path goal theory (House, 1971).

Member Characteristics--Gender

Hypothesis 10a. Across all female teams (basketball, swimming, tennis, track and field, and volleyball) the results of the pairwise correlations indicated significant (p = .05) positive linear relationships between specific satisfaction and actual perceived leader behaviors in each of the dimensions of: (a) positive feedback, (b) social support, (c) democratic behavior, and (d) training and instruction. Autocratic behavior was found to have a significant negative relationship with general satisfaction. Positive feedback (r = .5669, r^2 = .3214, p = .0001); social support (r = .4850, r^2 = .2352, p = .0001), democratic behavior (r = 4356, r^2 = .1897, p = .0001) and training and instruction (r = .3920, r^2 = .1537, p = .0006) were each positively related to specific satisfaction. Autocratic behavior (r = -.3261, r^2 = .1063,

$p = .0046$) was negatively related with specific satisfaction with leadership.

Thus Hypothesis 10a and the sex role congruency hypothesis, which predicted positive relationships between specific satisfaction with leadership and people oriented leader behaviors, was partially supported to the extent that social support and democratic behavior were found to be significantly related to specific satisfaction with leadership for female athletes. The fact that autocratic behavior was negatively related with specific satisfaction indicates further support for the sex role congruency hypothesis (Nieva & Gutek, 1981). However, training and instruction and positive feedback, both task oriented behaviors, were also found to be related to satisfaction which is contrary to the predictions of the sex role congruency hypothesis.

Hypothesis 10b. Across five male teams (basketball, swimming, tennis, track and field, and volleyball) the results of the pairwise correlations indicated significant ($p \leq .05$) positive linear relationships existed between specific satisfaction and each of the actual perceived leader behaviors in the dimensions of: (a) positive feedback, (b) social support, (c) democratic behavior, and (d) training and instruction. Autocratic behavior was found to be negatively related to specific satisfaction.

Positive feedback, (r = .6549, r^2 = .4289, p = .0001), social support (r = .6283, r^2 = .3948, p = .0001), democratic behavior (r = .4589, r^2 = .2106, p = .0001), and training and instruction (r = .4580, r^2 = .2098, p = .0001) were each positively related to specific satisfaction. Autocratic behavior (r = -.2269, r^2 = .0515, p = .0913) was negatively related to specific satisfaction.

Thus Hypothesis 10b and the sex role congruency hypothesis, which predicted positive relationships between specific satisfaction with leadership and task oriented leader behaviors, were partially supported to the extent that positive feedback and training and instruction were predictors of specific satisfaction with leadership among male athletes. However, social support and democratic behavior, both people oriented behaviors, were also significant ($p \leq .05$) predictors of satisfaction, and autocratic behavior was negatively related, a finding which runs contrary to the predictions of sex role congruency hypothesis (Nieva & Gutek, 1981).

Baseball

Among male baseball players the results of the pairwise correlations indicated one significant ($p \leq .05$) positive linear relationship existed between specific satisfaction and each of the actual perceived leader

behavior dimensions of: (a) positive feedback, (b) social support, (c) training and instruction, and (d) democratic behavior. Positive feedback ($\underline{r}$ = .5267, $\underline{r}^2$ = .2774, $\underline{p}$ = .0014), social support ($\underline{r}$ = .5063, $\underline{r}^2$ = .2563, $\underline{p}$ = .0022), training and instruction ($\underline{r}$ = ,3994, $\underline{r}^2$ = .1595, $\underline{p}$ = .0193) and democratic behavior ($\underline{r}$ = .3830, $\underline{r}^2$ = .1467, $\underline{p}$ = .0254) were each positively related to specific satisfaction.

Thus Hypothesis 10b, and the sex role congruency hypothesis, which suggested a relationship between specific satisfaction and task oriented leader behaviors for male athletes, were partially supported in this study in the inclusion of positive relationships with positive feedback and training and instruction, and a negative relationship with democratic behavior. The presence of social support and the absence of autocratic behavior were contrary to the predictions of Hypothesis 10b and sex role congruency hypothesis (Nieva & Gutek, 1981).

Member Characteristics--Readiness

Hypothesis 11a. Among athletes of low readiness (male volleyball) the results of the pairwise correlations indicated significant linear ($\underline{p} \leq .05$) relationships between specific satisfaction with leadership and the corresponding leader behavior in the dimensions of: (a) positive feedback, (b) democratic behavior, and

(c) social support. Positive feedback (r = .7595, r^2 = .5768, p = .0026), democratic behavior (r = .7314, r^2 = .5349, p = .0045), and social support (r = .5577, r^2 = .3110, p = .0477) were each positively related to specific satisfaction.

Thus Hypothesis 11a which suggested for athletes with low readiness a relationship between specific satisfaction with leadership and task oriented leader behaviors was partially supported. The significance of positive feedback, a task oriented leader behavior dimension, lends partial support to Hypothesis 11a. However, the significance of democratic behavior and social support as well as the absence of training and instruction, and autocratic behavior are contrary to the predictions of the situational leadership theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988).

Hypothesis 11b. Among athletes of moderate readiness (female volleyball, and female and male track and field) the results of the pairwise correlations indicated significant linear ($p \leq$ n.05) relationships between specific satisfaction with leadership and the corresponding leader behavior in the dimensions of: (a) positive feedback, (b) social support, (c) democratic behavior, and (d) training and instruction. Autocratic behavior was found to be negatively related to specific satisfaction. Positive feedback (r = 5018, r^2 = .2518, p = .0001); social

support (r = .4695, r^2 = .2204, p = .0001); democratic behavior (r = .4419, r^2 = 1953, p = .0001); and training and instruction (r = .4142, r^2 = .1716, p = .0001); were each positively related to specific satisfaction. Autocratic behavior (r = -.2994, r^2 = .0896, p = .0057) was negatively related with specific satisfaction.

Thus, Hypothesis 11b which suggested for athletes with moderate readiness a relationship between specific satisfaction and both people and task oriented leader behaviors was supported as well as situational leadership theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988) in the inclusion of positive relationships with positive feedback, social support, democratic behavior, and training and instruction. The negative relationship with autocratic behavior was contrary to the predictions of Hypothesis 11b and situational leadership theory as it pertains to athletes of moderate readiness.

Hypothesis 11c. Among athletes of high readiness (female and male basketball, swimming, and tennis) the results of the pairwise correlations indicated significant positive linear ($p \leq .05$) relationships between specific satisfaction with leadership and the corresponding leader behaviors in the dimensions of: (a) positive feedback, (b) social support, (c) training and instruction, and (d) democratic behavior. Autocratic behavior was found to

be negatively related. Positive feedback (r = .6463, r^2 = .4177, p = .0001), social support (r = .6286, r^2 = .3951, p = .0001), training and instruction (r = .5593, r^2 = .3128, p = .0001), and democratic behavior (r = .3727, r^2 = .3727, p = .0005), were each positively related to specific satisfaction. Autocratic behavior (r = -.2652, r^2 = .0703, p = .0154), was negatively related to specific satisfaction.

Thus Hypothesis 11c and situational leadership theory, which suggested for athletes with high readiness no significant relationships between specific satisfaction and any of the leader behavior dimensions, was not supported. The significance of all five dimensions is contrary to the predictions of Hypothesis 11c and the situational leadership theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988).

Baseball

Among male baseball players the results of the pairwise correlations indicated significant ($p \leq .05$) positive linear relationships existed between specific satisfaction and each of the actual perceived leader behavior dimension of: (a) positive feedback, (b) social support, (c) training and instruction, and (d) democratic behavior. Positive feedback (r = .5267, r^2 = .2774, p = .0014), social support (r = .5063, r^2 = .2563, p = .0022),

training and instruction (r = .3994, r^2 = .1575, p = .0193), and democratic behavior (r = .3830, r^2 = .1467, p = .0254) were each positively related to specific satisfaction. Thus Hypothesis 11c and the situational leadership theory, which suggested no relationships between specific satisfaction and any of the leader behaviors for athletes with high levels of experience received little support in this study for the sport of baseball. Only the absence of a relationship with autocratic behavior is supportive of this hypothesis. The inclusion of the remaining four leader behavior dimensions, (i.e., positive feedback, social support, training and instruction, and democratic behavior) is contrary to the predictions of Hypothesis 11c and situational leadership theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988).

Relationship Between Specific Satisfaction and the Corresponding Discrepancy Scores

Discrepancy theory (Yukl, 1971) predicted that specific satisfaction with leadership will increase as the discrepancy between preferred and actual perceived leader behaviors decreases. Thus, a negative relationship (i.e., lower discrepancy score with higher level of specific satisfaction with leadership) was expected.

All Situational and Member Characteristics

Hypothesis 12. Across all female teams and all male teams, except baseball, the results of the pairwise correlations indicated significant ($p \leq .05$) negative linear relationships existed between specific satisfaction with leadership and each of the discrepancy scores in the dimensions of: (a) democratic, (b) positive feedback, (c) social support, and (d) training and instruction. The discrepancy score for autocratic behavior was found to be positively related to general satisfaction. Democratic behavior ($r = -.5079$, $r^2 = .2580$, $p = .0001$), positive feedback ($r = -.4838$, $r^2 = .2438$, $p = .0001$), social support ($r = -.4204$, $r^2 = .1768$, $p = .0001$), and training and instruction ($r = -.3789$, $r^2 = .1435$, $p = .0001$) were negatively related to specific satisfaction. Autocratic behavior ($r = .1795$, $r^2 = .0322$, $p = .0165$) was positively related to specific satisfaction.

Thus Hypothesis 12 and discrepancy theory (Yukl, 1971) which predicted negative linear relationships between specific satisfaction with leadership and each of the leader behavior dimensions, was supported for all teams except baseball. In light of this finding, Yukl's (1971) discrepancy theory was supported.

Baseball

Among baseball players, the results of the pairwise correlations indicated a significant, ($p \leq .05$) relationship between specific satisfaction and the discrepancy score for the leader behavior dimension of positive feedback ($r = -.5176$, $r^2 = .2679$, $p = .0017$). Little support for Hypothesis 12 and Yukl's (1971) discrepancy theory which predicted negative relationships between specific satisfaction with leadership and each of the leader behavior dimensions, was found in the sport of baseball. The absence of negative relationships with training and instruction, social support, democratic behavior, and autocratic behavior were contrary to the predictions of Hypothesis 12 and discrepancy theory (Yukl, 1971).

CHAPTER 5

RESULTS

Discussion

The desire to increase leadership effectiveness has long been explored by researchers in business management (Gibb 1954, 1968; Stogdill, 1974). More recently, sport related research; e.g., Vos Strache (1979), Chelladurai (1979, 1981, 1984), Chelladurai and Carron (1982, 1983), Schliesman (1985, 1987); has been conducted in order to determine under which circumstances various coaching leader behaviors would be effective. As the present literature review (Chapter 2, pp. 41-82) indicates, conflicting results were reported. However, Chelladurai (1979) proposed the contingency model of leadership in athletics which represented an integration of: (a) path goal theory (House, 1971), (b) discrepancy theory (Yukl, 1971), and (c) adaptive-reactive theory (Osborn & Hunt, 1975). Support has been found for various aspects of the contingency model (Chelladurai, 1979) and is evident again in the present study. This study was conducted in order to test Chelladurai's, (1979) model as it pertains to path goal theory (House, 1971) and discrepancy theory (Yukl, 1971). Furthermore, this study tested the interaction between Chelladurai's (1979) model, the sex role congruency

hypothesis (Nieva & Gutek, 1981) and situational theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988). More specifically relationships were examined between dependent variables, i.e., satisfaction with leadership, and independent variables, i.e., leader behaviors, within the context of various situation and member characteristics.

The present chapter is divided into four sections: (a) relationship between general satisfaction and actual perceived leader behavior dimensions, Hypotheses 1-5; (b) relationship between general satisfaction and discrepancy scores, Hypothesis 6; (c) relationship between specific satisfaction and corresponding actual perceived leader behavior dimensions, Hypotheses 7-11; (d) relationship of specific satisfaction and corresponding discrepancy scores, Hypothesis 12; and (e) summary. All discussion is presented in the order and follows the specifications of the hypotheses (Chapter 1, pp. 9-26).

Relationship Between General Satisfaction and Actual Perceived Leader Behavior Dimensions

Situational Characteristics--Task Dependence

Hypothesis 1a. Path goal theory (House, 1971) predicts that leaders of groups performing tasks which have relatively low levels of ambiguity are more effective when using people oriented leader behaviors. In this study, sports deemed to have lower levels of ambiguity were the

independent sports of women's and men's swimming, tennis, and track and field. Pairwise and stepwise analyses were used to investigate the relationship between general satisfaction with leadership and each of the five leader behaviors of: (a) training and instruction, (b) social support, (c) positive feedback, (d) democratic behavior, and (e) autocratic behavior.

This study produced some support for path goal theory (Tables 2 and 3, pp. 98 and 100) in relationship with the contingency model (Chelladurai, 1979) in that social support and democratic behavior, both people oriented behaviors, were significantly ($p \leq .05$) related to general satisfaction. Social support also surfaced as part of a three variable model which was significantly ($p \leq .05$) related to general satisfaction. The fact that training and instruction, a task oriented behavior, was significant in the pairwise and stepwise analyses is consistent with the findings of Chelladurai and Carron (1982, 1983), but is not supportive of path goal theory (House, 1971). Training and instruction, as well as social support, were preferred by athletes at higher levels in both studies (Chelladurai & Carron, 1982, 1983). These results prompted researchers to conclude that athletes at higher levels of experience prefer leaders (coaches) who exhibit both task and people oriented leader behaviors. Given the preferences for

training and instruction found by Chelladurai and Carron (1982, 1983), it is consistent for this particular leader behavior dimension to be significantly related in the present study for college athletes in independent sports.

Positive feedback was also found to be significantly ($p \leq .05$) related to general satisfaction with leadership in stepwise analysis. While this has been categorized technically as a task oriented leader behavior (Chelladurai, 1979) it is possible that subjects may have interpreted several items in the LSS pertaining to positive feedback in a manner which suggested a people orientation even though this type of rewarding behavior is suggested to be (Chelladurai, 1979) performance based. For example, item number 28 which reads, "Express appreciation when an athlete performs well," may have triggered a response similar to the people oriented items associated with social support and democratic behavior.

A statistical explanation for positive feedback in the three variable model may lie in the pairwise correlations (Table 2, p. 98). The three variables involved in this analysis are actual perceived: positive feedback, social support, and democratic behavior. Correlations between these variables range from $r = .4204$ (positive feedback and social support) to $r = .4777$ (democratic behavior and social support) to $r = .3719$ (democratic behavior and

positive feedback). Since the relationships between all of these pairs was significant ($p \leq .05$), and since the relationship between democratic behavior and social support ($r = .4777$) was also significant, positive feedback may have been included in the stepwise analysis as the variable which contributed the greater percentage of variability.

Hypothesis 1b. Path goal theory (House, 1971) predicts that leaders of groups performing tasks which have relatively high levels of ambiguity are more effective when using task oriented leader behaviors. In this study, sports deemed to have higher levels of ambiguity were the interdependent sports of women's and men's basketball and volleyball. Men's baseball was analyzed separately.

This study produced partial support for path goal theory (Tables 4 and 5, pp. 102 and 104) in relationship to the contingency model (Chelladurai, 1979) in that positive feedback, and training and instruction, both task oriented behaviors, were significantly ($p \leq .05$) related to general satisfaction using pairwise correlations. Furthermore, stepwise analysis produced a significant ($p \leq .05$) two variable model comprised of positive feedback and training and instruction. However, the present study also produced pairwise correlations between general satisfaction with social support and democratic behavior. Pairwise and stepwise analysis for baseball indicated (Tables 6 and 7,

pp. 105 and 107) social support was the significant predictor of general satisfaction.

Thus, for the interdependent sports and for baseball, this study produced results which were consistent with the findings of Chelladurai and Carron (1982, 1983) in the inclusion of significant interactions with people oriented behaviors for interdependent sports. Overall, the results of this study show considerable support for Hypothesis 1b and path goal theory. In addition, the results produced significant relationships with people oriented behaviors as indicated by Chelladurai and Carron (1982, 1983).

Hypothesis 2a. The sex role congruency hypothesis (Nieva & Gutek, 1981) predicts that the gender of the coach and the gender of the athletes impact upon the effectiveness of leadership style. Specifically, general satisfaction with leadership was predicted to be related with leader behaviors which, in consideration of gender role stereotypes, were congruent with the gender of the leader. Thus, in the present study, female athletes whose coaches were female were predicted to produce a significant relationship between general satisfaction and people oriented leader behaviors, i.e., social support and democratic behavior. Pairwise and stepwise analyses of the data from female athletes with female coaches (Tables 8 and 9, pp. 109 and 111) indicated considerable support for the

sex role congruency hypothesis. Social support and democratic behavior were both significantly ($p \leq .05$) related with general satisfaction. Social support also appeared as the first in a significant ($p \leq .05$) two variable stepwise model. The fact that autocratic behavior was negatively related with general satisfaction provided further support for the sex role congruency hypothesis and for Hypothesis 2a for female athletes with female coaches.

Once again, though, the pairwise correlation of training and instruction was significant; it was also brought in as the second factor of a two variable model. This relationship also may be related to the experience factor found by Chelladurai and Carron (1982, 1983). Training and instruction as well as social support were preferred by athletes at higher levels in both studies (Chelladurai & Carron, 1982, 1983). These results prompted researchers to conclude that athletes at higher levels of experience prefer leaders (coaches) who exhibit both task and people oriented leader behaviors. Given the preferences for training and instruction found by Chelladurai and Carron (1982, 1983), it is consistent for this particular leader behavior dimension to be significantly related in the present study for college athletes in independent sports.

Hypothesis 2b. The sex role congruency hypothesis (Nieva & Gutek, 1981) predicts that for female athletes who have male coaches there would be a significant relationship between general satisfaction and task oriented leader behaviors, i.e., training and instruction, positive feedback, and autocratic behavior. Since analysis of data from the female athletes with male coaches (Tables 10 and 11, pp. 113 and 114) for the present study produced no significant pairwise or stepwise regression relationships between general satisfaction with leadership and the leader behavior dimensions, there was no support for the sex role congruency hypothesis.

Hypothesis 2c. The sex role congruency hypothesis (Nieva & Gutek, 1981) implies that for male athletes with male coaches there would be significant relationships between general satisfaction and task oriented leader behaviors, i.e., training and instruction, positive feedback, and autocratic behavior. Considerable support for the sex role congruency hypothesis was found for male athletes with male coaches (Tables 12 and 13, pp. 115 and 117) in the inclusion of significant ($p \leq .05$) relationships between general satisfaction and:
(a) positive feedback and (b) training and instruction. Stepwise analysis produced a significant ($p \leq .05$) two-variable model which consisted of positive feedback and

training and instruction. In contrast, social support and democratic behavior also produced significant pairwise correlations accounting for 23 and 25 percent of common variability respectively. Pairwise and stepwise analysis of the data from for baseball (Tables 6 and 7, pp. 105 and 107) indicated social support was the significant predictor of general satisfaction.

Thus, for the male athletes with male coaches the study produced results which were consistent with the findings of Chelladurai and Carron (1982, 1983) in the inclusion of significant interactions with people oriented behaviors for male athletes with male coaches. Overall, Hypothesis 2c shows considerable support for the sex role congruency hypothesis (Nieva & Gutek, 1981), plus some leanings toward the influence of people oriented behaviors as indicated by Chelladurai and Carron (1982, 1983).

Hypothesis 3. Path goal theory (House, 1971) predicts that leaders of groups performing tasks which have relatively high levels of ambiguity are more effective when using task oriented leader behaviors. In this study, the sport of basketball was judged, for various reasons (Chapter 1, pp. 24-25), to be more ambiguous than the sport of volleyball. Given that both sports are interdependent, and given the relative difference in ambiguity, it was predicted that within the sport of basketball there would

be a significantly stronger relationship, than within the sport of volleyball, between general satisfaction with leadership and task oriented leader behaviors.

Technically, the results of the present study support this prediction and path goal theory (Tables 14-17, pp. 120, 122, 124, 126) in that the pairwise relationships of general satisfaction with training and instruction ($\underline{r}^2$ = .5274) and positive feedback ($\underline{r}^2$ = .6150) for basketball were considerably higher than training and instruction ($\underline{r}^2$ = .2802) and positive feedback ($\underline{r}^2$ = .3756) for volleyball. Stepwise analysis also indicated positive feedback was part of a significant two variable model.

However, there is also evidence beyond the scope of Hypothesis 3 and in conflict with path goal theory, in that, basketball produced significant ($\underline{p} \leq .05$) pairwise correlations for democratic behavior and social support. The results of the analysis of the data from the volleyball players produced a significant negative pairwise correlation with autocratic behavior and a two variable stepwise regression model including autocratic behavior and training and instruction. Overall, support was found for Hypothesis 3 and for path goal theory (House, 1971). The existence of correlations with social support and democratic behavior for basketball were not in concert with path goal theory, but were consistent with the findings of

Chelladurai and Carron (1982, 1983). The negative pairwise and stepwise relationship with autocratic behavior for volleyball may have been due to the club status of the male volleyball team and to the negative findings of autocratic behavior among female athletes (Hypotheses 2a and 4a).

Hypothesis 4a. The sex role congruency hypothesis (Nieva & Gutek, 1981) predicts that the gender of the athletes impacts upon the effectiveness of leadership style. Specifically, general satisfaction with leadership was predicted to be related with leader behaviors which, in consideration of gender role stereotypes, were congruent with the gender of the followers. In this study, female athletes were predicted to show a relationship between general satisfaction with leadership and people oriented leader behaviors, i.e., social support and democratic behavior. Pairwise and stepwise analyses indicated considerable support (Tables 18 and 19, pp. 127 and 129) for the sex role congruency hypothesis. Social support and democratic behavior were both significantly ($p \leq .05$) correlated with general satisfaction. Social support also appeared as the first in a significant ($p \leq .05$) two variable stepwise regression model. The fact that autocratic behavior was negatively correlated with general satisfaction lends further support for the sex role congruency hypothesis and for Hypothesis 2a. Once again

training and instruction was a variable with a significant pairwise correlation to general satisfaction and the second factor of the two variable stepwise regression model. This finding may be related to the experience factor found by Chelladurai and Carron (1982, 1983).

Hypothesis 4b. The sex role congruency hypothesis predicts that with male athletes there will be correlations between general satisfaction and task oriented leader behaviors, i.e., training and instruction, positive feedback, and autocratic behavior. Considerable support for the sex role congruency hypothesis was found (Tables 12 and 13, pp. 115 and 117) in the inclusion of significant ($p \leq .05$) relationships of general satisfaction with: (a) positive feedback, and (b) training and instruction. Stepwise analysis produced a significant ($p \leq .05$) two-variable stepwise regression model which consisted of positive feedback and training and instruction. However, social support and democratic behavior also produced significant pairwise correlations accounting for 23 and 25 percent of the common variability with general satisfaction respectively. Pairwise and stepwise analysis for baseball (Tables 6 and 7, pp. 105 and 107) indicated social support as the significant predictor of general satisfaction.

Thus, for the male athletes, the study produced results which were consistent with the findings of Chelladurai and Carron (1982, 1983), i.e., the inclusion of significant interactions with people oriented behaviors for male athletes. Overall, the results of the data for male athletes show considerable support for Hypothesis 4b and the sex role congruency hypothesis (Nieva & Gutek, 1981) plus some leanings toward people oriented behaviors as indicated by Chelladurai and Carron (1982, 1983).

Hypothesis 5a. Situational leadership theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988) predicts that leaders of groups who are low in readiness are more effective when using task oriented leader behaviors. In this study male volleyball players were the only group who met the definition of low levels of readiness. This study produced partial support (Tables 20 and 21, pp. 135 and 135) for situational leadership theory in relationship with the contingency model (Chelladurai, 1979) in that positive feedback, was significantly ($p \leq .05$) correlated to general satisfaction. Autocratic behavior and training and instruction comprised a significant two variable model from stepwise regression analysis. Autocratic behavior was negatively related with general satisfaction and reduced the support for the hypothesis. Thus, partial support for situational leadership theory (Hersey and Blanchard, 1988) and

Hypothesis 5a was found among players of low readiness in this study.

Hypothesis 5b. Situational leadership theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988) predicts that leaders of groups who are moderate in readiness are more effective when using both task and people oriented leader behaviors. Female volleyball and female and male track and field athletes comprised the moderate readiness group. This study produced limited support (Tables 22 and 23, pp. 137 and 139) for situational leadership theory with the inclusion of pairwise correlations between general satisfaction and training and instruction ($\underline{r}^2$ = 1547) and social support ($\underline{r}^2$ = .0913). Stepwise regression analysis produced a significant one variable model consisting of training and instruction. Although there was a balance of tasks and people oriented leader behaviors which were correlated with general satisfaction, the percent of variability accounted for was very low. Therefore, only limited support was found for Hypothesis 5b and situational leadership theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988) as it pertains to groups of moderate experience.

Hypothesis 5c. Situational leadership theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988) predicts that leaders of groups who are high in readiness are more effective when using relatively low levels of task and people oriented leader behaviors.

Female and male basketball players, swimmers, and tennis players comprised the high readiness group. Male baseball players were analyzed separately with respect to high readiness. This study produced very little support (Tables 24 and 25, pp. 140 and 142) for situational leadership theory with the inclusion of pairwise correlations between general satisfaction and: (a) training and instruction, (b) social support, (c) positive feedback, and (d) democratic behavior. Furthermore training and instruction and democratic behavior comprised a significant ($p \leq .05$) two variable model. As a result of findings which included both task and people oriented leader behaviors there is little support for situational leadership theory for athletes with high readiness as defined in the present study.

In contrast, however, the results from baseball produced (Tables 6 and 7, pp. 105 and 107) pairwise and stepwise regression results in only one expected people oriented factor (social support, $r^2 = .1464$). This lack of variables related to satisfaction with leadership is evidence for baseball players which provides considerable support for situational leadership theory (Hersey and Blanchard, 1988) and for Hypothesis 5c.

The strongly conflicting results in baseball as compared with the remaining collective high readiness

groups, which were generated for Hypothesis 5c, suggest that perhaps the categorization of teams into readiness level was inaccurate. The combination of years of experience (12.47 yrs.) and large numbers of games typically played by baseball players may have placed that group in the high readiness category. The remaining teams (women's and men's swimming, tennis, and basketball) may rightfully be in the moderate readiness group given the years of experience (9.09-11.79 yrs), and given the fact that athletes in these three sports generally engage in fewer contests per season than do baseball players. If there is indeed reason to reclassify the three readiness categories, and if women's and men's swimming, tennis, and basketball are actually in the moderate readiness group, then the results generated in the present study would strongly support situational leadership theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988) in the inclusion of both task and people oriented leader behaviors.

Hypothesis 6. Discrepancy theory (Yukl, 1971) predicts that satisfaction with leadership increases as the discrepancy between preferred and actual perceived leader behaviors decreases.This study produced substantial support (Tables 26 and 27, pp. 145 and 147) of discrepancy theory (Yukl, 1971) as it relates to the contingency model of leadership for athletics (Chelladurai, 1979).

Support is found in the inclusion of negative pairwise correlations of general satisfaction with the discrepancy scores for democratic behavior, social support, training and instruction, and positive feedback. These results indicated that satisfaction with leadership increases as the actual perceived level of leader behavior increases relative to the level of preferred leader behavior. The discrepancy score for autocratic behavior was positively related with general satisfaction with leadership. This finding was not in support of discrepancy theory. The indication here is that across all sports except baseball satisfaction with leadership increased as the actual perceived level of autocratic behavior decreased.

Stepwise analysis produced further support for discrepancy theory (Yukl, 1971) with a significant ($p \leq .05$) three variable model including democratic behavior, training and instruction, and social support. Since a negative relationship (i.e., lower discrepancy score with higher level of general satisfaction with leadership) was expected no support was found for discrepancy theory (Yukl, 1971) for the sport of baseball (Tables 28 and 29, pp. 149 and 150).

Hypothesis 7a. Path goal theory (House, 1971) predicts that leaders of groups performing tasks which have relatively low levels of ambiguity are more effective when

using people oriented leader behaviors. In this study, sports deemed to have lower levels of ambiguity were the independent sports of women's and men's swimming, tennis, and track and field. Pairwise and stepwise analyses were used to investigate the relationship between general satisfaction with leadership and each of the five leader behaviors of: (a) training and instruction, (b) social support, (c) positive feedback, (d) democratic behavior, and (e) autocratic behavior. This study produced some support for path goal theory in relationship with the contingency model (Chelladurai, 1979) in that social support and democratic behavior, both people oriented behaviors, were significantly ($p \leq .05$) related to the respective specific satisfaction. The fact that actual perceived autocratic behavior was found to be negatively related with specific satisfaction with autocratic behavior lends further support for path goal theory (House, 1971).

The inclusion of training and instruction and positive feedback is not supportive of path goal theory. However, the significance of these task oriented leader behaviors is consistent with the research findings of Chelladurai and Carron, (1982, 1983) for athletes at higher levels of performance.

Hypothesis 7b. Path goal theory (House, 1971) predicts that leaders of groups performing tasks which have

relatively high levels of ambiguity are more effective when using task oriented leader behaviors. In this study, sports deemed to have higher levels of ambiguity were the interdependent sports of women's and men's basketball and volleyball. Men's baseball was analyzed separately.

For the independent sports, this study produced partial support for path goal theory in relationship to the contingency model (Chelladurai, 1979) in that positive feedback, and training and instruction, both task oriented behaviors, were significantly ($p \leq .05$) related to specific satisfaction using pairwise correlations. However, the present study also produced pairwise correlations between general satisfaction and the people oriented dimensions of social support and democratic behavior.

Analyses for baseball indicated results nearly identical to those for all other interdependent sports. Task oriented leader behaviors, i.e., positive feedback and training and instruction, and people oriented leader behaviors i.e., social support and democratic behavior, were both found to be significantly related with specific satisfaction. Thus, for the interdependent sports and for baseball, this study produced results which were partially supportive of path goal theory and consistent with the research of Chelladurai and Carron (1982, 1983).

Hypothesis 8a. The sex role congruency hypothesis (Nieva and Gutek, 1981) predicts that the gender of the coach and the gender of the athletes impact upon the effectiveness of leadership style. Specific satisfaction with leadership was predicted to be related with leader behaviors which, in consideration of gender role stereotypes, were congruent with the gender of the leader. In this study, female athletes whose coaches were female were predicted to have a strong relationship between the respective specific satisfaction and each people oriented leader behavior, i.e., social support and democratic behavior. Pairwise analysis indicated considerable support for the sex role congruency hypothesis. Social support and democratic behavior were both significantly ($p \leq .05$) related with the respective specific satisfaction. The fact that autocratic behavior was negatively related with specific satisfaction was also supportive of the sex role congruency hypothesis and Hypothesis 8a.

Once again, though, training and instruction and positive feedback had significant pairwise correlations. These relationships may be similar to the experience factor found by Chelladurai and Carron (1982, 1983).

Hypothesis 8b. The sex role congruency hypothesis (Nieva & Gutek, 1981) predicts that female athletes who have male coaches will produce correlations between

specific satisfaction and task oriented leader behaviors, i.e., training and instruction, positive feedback, and autocratic behavior. Pairwise analysis indicated limited support for the sex role congruency hypothesis. Positive feedback, a task oriented leader behavior was positively related with specific satisfaction with leadership. On the other hand social support was positively related and autocratic behavior was negatively related with specific satisfaction with leadership. The latter two results run contrary to the sex role congruency hypothesis and Hypothesis 8b. They are, however, consistent with the experience related research findings of Chelladurai and Carron (1982, 1983).

Hypothesis 8c. The sex role congruency hypothesis (Nieva & Gutek, 1981) predicts that male athletes with male coaches will produce correlations between specific satisfaction and task oriented leader behaviors, i.e., training and instruction, positive feedback, and autocratic behavior. Considerable support for the sex role congruency hypothesis was found in the inclusion of significant ($p \leq .05$) relationships between specific satisfaction and: (a) positive feedback and (b) training and instruction. However, social support and democratic behavior also produced significant pairwise correlations accounting for 39 and 21 percent of the variability respectively. The

fact that autocratic behavior was negatively related with specific satisfaction further served to weaken the amount of support for the sex role congruency hypothesis for male athletes. Pairwise analysis for baseball indicated training and instruction and positive feedback as significant predictors of specific satisfaction with leadership. Thus, partial support for the sex role congruency hypothesis was found in this study for baseball players.

However, social support and democratic behavior, two people oriented leader behaviors were also found to be significantly related with specific satisfaction. The inclusion of two people oriented behaviors is consistent with the experience related research of Chelladurai and Carron (1982, 1983). Overall, Hypothesis 8c shows considerable support for the sex role congruency hypothesis (Nieva & Gutek, 1981) plus some leanings toward people oriented behaviors as indicated by Chelladurai and Carron (1982, 1983).

Hypothesis 9. Path goal theory (House, 1971) predicts that leaders of groups performing tasks which have relatively high levels of ambiguity are more effective when using task oriented leader behaviors. In this study, the sport of basketball was judged, for various reasons (Chapter 1, pp. 13-14), to be more ambiguous than the sport

of volleyball. Given that both sports are interdependent and given the relative difference in ambiguity it was predicted that within the sport of basketball there would be a significantly stronger relationship than within the sport of volleyball between specific satisfaction with leadership and task oriented leader behaviors.

Technically, there is support for this hypothesis and path goal theory in that the relationship of specific satisfaction with training and instruction (r^2 = .5495) and positive feedback (r^2 = .6982) for basketball were considerably higher than with training and instruction (r^2 = .2332) and positive feedback (r^2 = .4224) for volleyball. Basketball and volleyball, however, produced significant ($p \leq .05$) pairwise correlations for democratic behavior and social support, both people oriented behaviors. Overall, support was found for Hypothesis 9 and for path goal theory (House, 1971). The existence of correlations with social support and democratic behavior for basketball and volleyball were not in concert with path goal theory but were consistent with the research of Chelladurai and Carron (1982, 1983).

Hypothesis 10a. The sex role congruency hypothesis (Nieva & Gutek, 1981) predicts that the gender of the athletes impacts upon the effectiveness of leadership style. Specific satisfaction with leadership was predicted

to be related with leader behaviors which, in consideration of gender role stereotypes, were congruent with the gender of the followers. In this study, female athletes were predicted to show a relationship between specific satisfaction with leadership and people oriented leader behaviors, i.e., social support and democratic behavior. Pairwise analysis indicated considerable support for the sex role congruency hypothesis. Social support and democratic behavior were both significantly ($p \leq .05$) related with specific satisfaction. The fact that autocratic behavior was negatively related with specific satisfaction lends further support for the sex role congruency hypothesis and for Hypothesis 10a. Training and instruction was significant as a pairwise correlation. This finding may be related to the experience factor found by Chelladurai and Carron (1982, 1983). Positive feedback, the task oriented leader behavior which was related with satisfaction, may have been significant due to the experience factor (Chelladurai & Carron, 1982, 1983), or possibly to the misinterpretation of LSS items as explained in Hypothesis 1a (p. 172).

Hypothesis 10b. The sex role congruency hypothesis (Nieva & Gutek, 1981) predicts that male athletes with male coaches will produce correlations between specific satisfaction and task oriented leader behaviors, i.e.,

training and instruction, positive feedback, and autocratic behavior. Considerable support for the sex role congruency hypothesis was found in the inclusion of significant ($p \leq .05$) relationships between specific satisfaction and (a) positive feedback and (b) training and instruction. However, social support and democratic behavior also produced significant pairwise correlations accounting for 39 and 21 percent of variability respectively. The fact that autocratic behavior was negatively related with specific satisfaction further served to weaken the amount of support for the sex role congruency hypothesis for male athletes.

Pairwise analysis for baseball indicated training and instruction and positive feedback as significant predictors of specific satisfaction with leadership. Thus partial support for the sex role congruency hypothesis was found in this study for baseball players. However, social support and democratic behavior, two people oriented leader behaviors were also found to be significantly related with specific satisfaction. The inclusion of two people oriented behaviors is consistent with the experience findings of Chelladurai and Carron (1982, 1983). Overall, Hypothesis 10b shows considerable support for the sex role congruency hypothesis (Nieva & Gutek, 1981), plus some

leanings toward people oriented behaviors as indicated by Chelladurai and Carron (1982, 1983).

Hypothesis 11a. Situational leadership theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988) predicts that leaders of groups who are low in readiness are more effective when using task oriented leader behaviors. This study produced partial support for situational leadership theory in relationship with the contingency model (Chelladurai, 1979) in that the task oriented dimension of positive feedback, was significantly ($p \leq .05$) related to specific satisfaction. The people oriented factors, social support and democratic behavior, on the other hand, were also related to specific satisfaction. The existence of two people oriented behaviors is consistent with the experience related research of Chelladurai and Carron (1982, 1983). Thus, partial support for situational leadership theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988) and Hypothesis 11a was found among male volleyball players in this study.

Hypothesis 11b. Situational leadership theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988) predicts that leaders of groups who are moderate in readiness are more effective when using both people and task oriented leader behaviors. This study produced support for situational leadership theory in relationship with the contingency model (Chelladurai, 1979) in that all five leader behaviors were related (autocratic

behavior was negatively related) with specific satisfaction. The existence of relationships between specific satisfaction and both people and task oriented behaviors is consistent with Chelladurai and Carron (1982, 1983) and situational leadership theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988). Thus, support for situational leadership theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988) and Hypothesis 11b was found among female volleyball players, and female and male track and field athletes.

Hypothesis 11c. Situational leadership theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988) predicts that leaders of groups who are high in readiness are more effective when using relatively low levels of task and people oriented leader behaviors. This study produced very little support for situational leadership theory with the inclusion of pairwise correlations between specific satisfaction and: (a) training and instruction, (b) social support, (c) positive feedback, (d) democratic behavior, and (e) autocratic behavior. As a result of findings which included both task and people oriented leader behaviors there is little support for situational leadership theory, high readiness as defined in the present study. Pairwise analysis for baseball indicated training and instruction, positive feedback, social support, and democratic behavior as significant predictors of specific satisfaction with

leadership. The existence of both people and task oriented leader behaviors is not supportive of situational leadership theory (Hershey & Blanchard, 1988) in this study for baseball players. If there is indeed reason to reclassify the three readiness categories and if women's and men's swimming, tennis, and basketball, and men's baseball are actually in the moderate readiness group, then the results generated in the present study would strongly support situational leadership theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988) in the inclusion of both task and people oriented leader behaviors.

Hypothesis 12. Discrepancy theory (Yukl, 1971) predicts that satisfaction with leadership increases as the discrepancy between preferred and actual perceived leader behaviors decreases. This study produced substantial support of discrepancy theory (Yukl, 1971) as it relates to the contingency model of leadership for athletics (Chelladurai, 1979). Support is found in the inclusion of negative pairwise correlations with democratic behavior, social support, training and instruction, and positive feedback. These results indicated that satisfaction with leadership increases as the actual perceived level of leader behavior increases.

No support was found for discrepancy theory (Yukl, 1971) for the sport of baseball as the only significant (p

$\leq$ .05) relationship was positive feedback. The discrepancy score for this variable was negatively related with specific satisfaction. Thus discrepancy theory, which predicts that satisfaction with leadership will increase as the congruency between actual perceived leader behaviors and preferred leader behaviors increases, was not supported in this study for the sport of baseball.

Summary

The purposes of this study were: (a) to test portions of Chelladurai's model (1979) which suggest that leadership antecedent factors (i.e., situation characteristics and member characteristics) influence the relationship between leader behavior and subordinate satisfaction, and (b) to test other related theories and one hypothesis in the context of Chelladurai's contingency model. The question is whether the nature of the relationship between leader behavior and satisfaction is modified by differences brought about by situation and/or member characteristics (Figure 1, p. 2). Chelladurai's model was evaluated in relation to the following theoretical or hypothetical frames of reference: (a) path-goal theory, House, 1971), (b) discrepancy theory, (Yukl, 1971), (c) the sex role congruency hypothesis, (Nieva & Gutek, 1981), and (d) situational leadership theory, (Hersey & Blanchard,

1988). Central to the investigation was the relationship between satisfaction with leadership and five actual perceived leader behavior factors or the discrepancy score for five leader behavior factors.

Following is a summary of the discussion which is divided into four parts: (a) path goal theory, (b) discrepancy theory, (c) the sex role congruency hypothesis, and (d) situational leadership theory. The four theories and the hypothesis listed were evaluated in relation with the contingency model of leadership for athletics (Chelladurai, 1979) and were each examined from more than one perspective. In general, there is considerable support for the notion that situation and member characteristics modify the relationship between leader behavior and subordinate satisfaction (Chelladurai & Carron, 1982, 1983; Chelladurai, 1984; Schliesman, 1985, 1987; Mitchel, 1986; and Dix, 1989). The results of this study provide information about the scope and nature of the impact which antecedent factors, i.e., situation and member characteristics, (Chelladurai, 1979) have upon the leader/follower relationship.

Path goal theory (House, 1971) predicts the effectiveness of leadership styles based on the relative ambiguity of the task which the group members must perform. This theory was tested in two ways. First (Hypotheses 1

and 7, pp. 10 and 18) independent sports (less ambiguous) were examined along with interdependent sports (more ambiguous). Second, (Hypotheses 3 and 9, pp. 13 and 21) two interdependent sports with relatively different levels of ambiguity (basketball, more ambiguous and volleyball, less ambiguous) were compared with each other.

When factoring in results from: (a) pairwise correlations, (b) stepwise regression, (c) relationships with general satisfaction, and (d) relationships with specific satisfaction a great deal of evidence from this study supports path goal theory. While it is true that the nonpredicted leadership style (i.e., task oriented for independent sports and people oriented for interdependent sports), was significantly related within satisfaction, an analysis of the $\underline{r}^2$ figures indicates that the relationships predicted by the path goal theory account, in most cases for a greater percent of variability. The significance of nonpredicted variables is also consistent with the findings of Chelladurai and Saleh (1978), Chelladurai and Carron (1982, 1983), and Schliesman (1985, 1987) who concluded that athletes at the college level have preferences for leadership styles which are both directive and considerate.

Discrepancy theory (Yukl, 1971) predicts that satisfaction with leadership increases as the difference between actual perceived and preferred leader behavior

decreases. This theory was evaluated across the remaining five sports together. Considerable support was drawn from this study with the analysis of pairwise correlation, stepwise regression, relationship with general satisfaction, and relationship with specific satisfaction. In the analyses of general satisfaction and specific satisfaction the results of the five sports of basketball, swimming, track and field, and volleyball indicated that satisfaction with leadership was significantly ($p \leq .05$) and negatively related to discrepancy scores for: (a) training and instruction, (b) social support, (c) positive feedback, and (d) autocratic behavior. These pairwise results plus the three variable model (including democratic behavior, training and instruction and social support) produced by stepwise analysis with general satisfaction are supportive of discrepancy theory. The results generated in the present study are consistent with those of Scholten (1978), Chelladurai (1984), and Mitchel (1986), each of whom found significant relationships between satisfaction with leadership and at least four leader behavior discrepancy scores.

Autocratic behavior was significantly and positively related with general satisfaction. This finding is not supportive of discrepancy theory (Yukl, 1971), but although statistically significant, it accounts for only a small

percentage of common variability (r^2 = .0351) with general satisfaction. It does indicate, however, that, among the sports other than baseball, satisfaction with leadership increases as the level of autocratic behavior decreases. The sport of baseball offered very little support for discrepancy theory as no significant relationships were found for general satisfaction and only one negative relationship was found between specific satisfaction and positive feedback.

The sex role congruency hypothesis (Nieva & Gutek, 1981) predicts the effectiveness of leadership styles on the basis of the gender of the leader and/or the gender of the follower. This theory was tested in two ways. First (Hypotheses 2 and 8, pp. 11 and 19), various follower/leader gender combinations (i.e., female athlete/female coach, female athlete/male coach, male athlete/male coach) were examined. Second (Hypotheses 4 and 10, pp. 14 and 22), the data from all female athletes were analyzed together and the data from all male athletes were analyzed together.

When factoring in results from: (a) pairwise correlations, (b) stepwise regression, (c) relationship with general satisfaction, and (d) relationships with specific satisfaction, considerable support for the sex role congruency hypothesis is evident. Female athletes

with female coaches not only responded significantly to people oriented leader behavior, but also indicated negative relationships with autocratic behavior.

Female athletes with male coaches responded with no significant relationships for general satisfaction but did result in positive relationships between positive feedback and social support and each respective specific satisfaction. The former, of course, supports the sex role congruency hypothesis (Nieva & Gutek, 1981). Actual perceived autocratic behavior was negatively related to specific satisfaction with autocratic behavior.

Male athletes with male coaches provided strong support for the sex role congruency hypothesis with the inclusion of positive relationships for training and instruction and positive feedback. Further support rests in the two variable model which also includes both training and instruction and positive feedback.

The results of the analysis of the data from the baseball players, also a sport in this study with male athletes and a male coach was supportive of the sex role congruency hypothesis. Training and instruction and positive feedback were related with specific satisfaction. While both people oriented leader behaviors were also related with specific satisfaction, they accounted for a smaller percent of variability than task oriented behavior.

These results were consistent with those of Longmuir (1972); Chelladurai (1978); Jugo and Vroom (1982); Chelladurai and Carron (1982, 1983); Schliesman (1985, 1987); and Dix (1989).

The results of the analysis for data collected from female athletes provided considerable support for the sex role congruency hypothesis with the inclusion of social support, democratic behavior and a negative relationship with autocratic behavior. Training and instruction and positive feedback, task oriented leader behaviors, were also related with general and specific satisfaction, but accounted for a lower percentage of common variability than either people oriented leader behaviors. Stepwise regression analysis produced a two variable model consisting of social support and training and instruction. Overall, the results of the data analysis for male athletes provided support for the sex role congruency hypothesis (Nieva & Gutek, 1981), while the results for the baseball players provided no support. A detailed summary appears above under male athletes with male coaches. Several of the findings in this study were not consistent with the sex role congruency hypothesis. In some cases, nonpredicted leadership styles, were significantly related to satisfaction with leadership i.e., task oriented leader behaviors for female athletes and coaches, and people

oriented leader behaviors for male athletes and coaches. However, an analysis of the r^2 figures indicates that, in nearly all instances, the relationships which were predicted by the sex role congruency hypothesis account for a greater percentage of common variability than the nonpredicted relationships. The occurrence of significant relationships between satisfaction with leadership and leader/behaviors which were not predicted by the sex role congruency hypothesis (Nieva & Gutek, 1981) is consistent with the experience findings of Chelladurai and Carron (1982, 1983) who concluded that athletes at the college level have preferences for leadership styles which are both directive and considerate.

In general, the sex role congruency hypothesis was strongly supported when the athletes and coaches were the same gender. For female athletes with a male coach specific satisfaction results, i.e., positive correlations with social support and positive feedback, and negative correlation with autocratic behavior, indicated that the gender of the follower may be a stronger factor than the gender of the leader. This finding is consistent with the findings of Kushell and Newton (1986); Stitt, Schmidt, Price, and Kipnis (1983); Denmark (1980); and Watson (1988).

Situational leadership theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988) predicts the effectiveness of leadership styles on the basis of readiness, i.e., years of experience in the current sport. This theory was tested (Hypotheses 5 and 11, pp. 16 and 24) by examining three levels of readiness (low, moderate, high). The results were conflicting and did not offer much support for situational leadership theory.

The data analysis for athletes of low readiness indicated limited support in that general satisfaction and specific satisfaction were both related with positive feedback, training and instruction was part of a two variable model related with general satisfaction. The findings that: (a) autocratic behavior was negatively related with general satisfaction, and (b) that specific satisfaction was related with social support and democratic behavior are contrary to the predictions of situational leadership theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988) for groups whose followers are low in readiness.

The results of the analysis of data for moderate readiness groups indicated considerable support for situational leadership theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988). Training and instruction and social support were positively and significantly ($p \leq .05$) related to both general and specific satisfaction. Positive feedback and democratic

behavior were positively related to specific satisfaction while autocratic behavior was negatively related with specific satisfaction. Collectively these results support situational leadership theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988) for groups of moderate readiness in the inclusion of both people and task oriented leader behaviors. The results are also consistent with Chelladurai and Saleh (1978); Chelladurai and Carron (1982, 1983); Chelladurai (1984); Horne and Carron (1985); Schliesman (1985, 1987); and Dix (1989).

High readiness groups, except for baseball, resulted in virtually no support for situational leadership theory. Pairwise correlations were found between both general and specific satisfaction with leadership and each of the leader behaviors of: (a) training and instruction, (b) social support, (c) positive feedback, and (d) democratic behavior. Stepwise regression analysis resulted in a two variable model including training and instruction and democratic behavior. Thus, both people oriented and task oriented leader behaviors were found to be significantly related to satisfaction with leadership. While these results do not support situational leadership theory, they are consistent with the research of Chelladurai and Saleh (1978); Chelladurai and Carron (1982, 1983); Chelladurai (1984); Horne and Carron (1985);

Schliesman (1985, 1987); and Dix (1989). Situational leadership theory predicted that high readiness groups respond to low levels of people and task oriented leader behavior. For specific satisfaction, baseball follows the same pattern as the other high readiness sports. That is, significant relationships exist between specific satisfaction and all leader behaviors except autocratic behavior. These results, too, are contrary to the predictions of situational leadership theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988).

However, baseball produced only one relationship (social support) with general satisfaction. This solitary variable is consistent with the predictions of situational leadership theory as it pertains to groups with high readiness. Considering the conflicting results for high readiness generated in this study, it is possible that the teams categorized as such were actually more appropriately placed in the moderate readiness group.

In conclusion, the contingency model of leadership for athletics (Chelladurai, 1979) predicts that satisfaction with leadership (general and specific) is related to: (a) specific types of actual perceived leader behaviors, and (b) the discrepancy between actual perceived and preferred leader behaviors. Furthermore, the relationships between satisfaction and leader behaviors are predicted to

be influenced by situational and member characteristics. The purpose of this study was to investigate the nature and scope of the influence which selected situational and member characteristics had upon the relationship between satisfaction with leadership and five leader behavior factors.

Considerable support for Chelladurai's (1979) contingency model of leadership for athletics (Figure 1, p. 2) was garnered from this study. Situational characteristics, i.e., independent vs. interdependent sports, and gender of athlete relative to gender of coach, were both found to be modifying factors. Relative ambiguity, a factor in path goal theory (House, 1971) was supported as a modifying agent for independent vs. interdependent sports. Gender of athlete relative to gender of coach, a tenant of the sex role congruency hypothesis (Nieva and Gutek, 1981) was supported to a lesser extent. Indeed the gender of follower (a member characteristic) may be the primary factor at work based on the results of this study. Member characteristics, i.e., gender of follower, and readiness, were found to be significant factors. Gender of the follower, also an integral factor in the sex role congruency hypothesis (Nieva & Gutek, 1981), as indicated above was strongly supported in this study as a factor which influences the

relationship between satisfaction with leadership and leader behavior. Readiness, a concept of situational leadership theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988), was supported to a lesser degree as a modifier of the satisfaction/leader behavior relationship. Indeed, the experience related findings of Chelladurai and Carron (1982, 1983) were more strongly supported within this study than Hersey and Blanchard's (1988) situational leadership theory. It is possible, however, that the readiness categories need to be redefined.

Across all situational and member characteristics, discrepancy theory (Yukl, 1971), was supported in this study. That is, for the most part, the level of satisfaction increased as the level of actual perceived leader behavior increased relative to the level of preferred leader behavior for the corresponding leader behavior dimension. One exception to the prediction of discrepancy theory (Yukl, 1971) was autocratic behavior which was related with greater general satisfaction as it was perceived less. Training and instruction, social support, positive feedback and democratic behavior were related with increased levels of satisfaction as they were perceived at higher levels relative to leader behavior preferences.

CHAPTER 6

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

Summary

The purposes of this study were: (a) to test portions of Chelladurai's model (1979) which suggest that leadership antecedent factors (i.e., situation characteristics and member characteristics) influence the relationship between leader behavior and subordinate satisfaction, and (b) to test other related theories and a hypothesis in the context of Chelladurai's contingency model. The question is whether the nature of the relationship between leader behavior and satisfaction is modified by differences brought about by situation and/or member characteristics (Figure 1, p. 2). Chelladurai's model was evaluated in relation to the following theoretical or hypothetical frames of reference: (a) path-goal theory, (House, 1971), (b) discrepancy theory, (Yukl, 1971), (c) the sex role congruency hypothesis, (Nieva & Gutek, 1981), and (d) situational leadership theory, (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988). Central to the investigation was the relationship between satisfaction with leadership and actual perceived leader behavior or the discrepancy score for leader behavior.

Subjects for this study were 73 female athletes and 141 male athletes from the same National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) Division I institution. The men's and women's sports which were represented in this study were: (a) tennis, (b) basketball, (c) volleyball, (d) swimming, and (e) track and field. The men's baseball team was also included. All of the sports teams competed at the NCAA, Division I level except men's volleyball which is a highly competitive club sport participating in national level United States Volleyball Association tournaments.

The dependent variables, i.e., general and specific satisfaction with leadership were measured by using forms of one and five questions respectively. The independent variables, i.e., preferred and actual perceived leader behaviors, were measured using the preferred and actual perceived forms of the Leadership Scale for Sports (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1980). The Leadership Scale for Sports (LSS) was used to measure five dimensions of leader behavior including: (a) training and instruction, (b) social support, (c) positive feedback, (d) democratic behavior, and (e) autocratic behavior.

In order to test the hypotheses proposed in this study pairwise correlation (Safer, 1985) and stepwise regression (Joyner, 1985) procedures were employed. Within the

framework of each hypothesis the correlations were run between the dependent variable, (general satisfaction with leadership, or satisfaction with specific leader behaviors) and five independent variables (the leader behavior dimensions--training and instruction, social support, positive feedback democratic behavior, and autocratic behavior). In all cases, the Pearson product moment (Safer, 1985) correlation technique was used to generate pairwise correlations for each combination of dependent and independent variables. Data for general satisfaction with actual perceived leader behavior and discrepancy scores for leader behavior were analyzed further using the stepwise regression solution, maximum $\underline{R}^2$ improvement (Joyner, 1985).

In the course of this study three theories [path goal theory (House, 1971), discrepancy theory (Yukl, 1971), and Hersey and Blanchard's (1988) situational leadership theory], and one hypothesis [Nieva & Gutek's (1981) sex role congruency hypothesis] were examined in the context of the contingency model of leadership for sports (Chelladurai, 1979). Chelladurai posited that situational and member characteristics would influence the relationships between satisfaction with leadership and leader behaviors. The present study found support for the notion that leadership is indeed situational in nature

(Stogdill, 1974; Hollander, 1958; Gibb, 1954, 1968; Chelladurai, 1979).

Within the framework of situational and member characteristics and the related theories/hypothesis, evidence indicated that ambiguity, relative gender, as well as readiness (situational characteristics), and gender of follower (member characteristic) were factors which influenced the relationship between satisfaction with leadership and: (a) actual perceived leader behaviors, and (b) discrepancy scores for leader behaviors. Ambiguity, readiness, and gender of follower were partially supportive of path goal theory (House, 1971), situational leadership theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988), and the sex role congruency hypothesis (Nieva & Gutek, 1981) respectively. Little support was found for the impact of relative coach/athlete gender on the relationship between satisfaction with leadership and: (a) actual perceived leader behaviors, and (b) discrepancy scores for leader behaviors.

The role of ambiguity, as implied in path goal theory (House, 1971) was such that coaches in sports with higher levels of ambiguity (in the present study, interdependent sports) would experience greater effectiveness employing task oriented leader behaviors. Conversely, coaches in sports with lower levels of ambiguity (in the present study, independent sports) would experience greater

effectiveness employing people oriented leader behaviors. The present study supported path goal theory to some degree, as did the work of Chelladurai and Saleh (1978), Chelladurai and Carron (1982, 1983), and Schliesman (1985, 1987).

Readiness, as posited in situational leadership theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988), was expected to influence the effectiveness of people or task oriented leader behaviors with respect to the level of readiness maintained by the followers. Leaders of low readiness followers were predicted to be more effective employing task oriented leader behaviors. Moderate readiness followers were predicted to respond to high levels of both people and task oriented leader behaviors. Leaders of high readiness followers were predicted to be most effective when using low levels of both people and task oriented behaviors. The present study resulted in partial support for situational leadership theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988), as did the work of Chelladurai and Saleh (1978), Chelladurai and Carron (1982, 1983), Chelladurai (1984), Horne and Carron (1985), Schliesman (1985, 1987), and Dix (1989).

Gender of the follower, as theorized in the sex role congruency hypothesis (Nieva & Gutek, 1981), was based on societal gender role stereotyping. Thus, female followers were expected to respond to people oriented leader

behaviors with higher levels of satisfaction. Conversely, male followers were predicted to have higher levels of satisfaction when subjected to task oriented leader behaviors. The present study supported this notion as did the work of Stitt et al. (1983), Denmark (1980), and Watson (1988).

Relative gender, another aspect of the sex role congruency hypothesis (Nieva & Gutek, 1981), was similarly founded in societal gender role stereotyping phenomena. Thus, followers were expected to express higher levels of satisfaction with leadership when perceiving gender appropriate, leader behaviors, i.e., people oriented from female leaders and task oriented from male leaders. Results from the present study did not support this aspect of the sex role congruency hypothesis (Nieva & Gutek, 1981). Instead, the gender of the follower was found to have greater impact upon the relationship between satisfaction with leadership and actual perceived leader behaviors.

Beyond the scope of the theories/hypothesis just summarized the present study indicated a consistent significant ($p \leq .05$) relationship between satisfaction with leadership and at least one nonpredicted leader behavior dimension. This trend is consistent with the notion that while certain situational and member characteristics may predominately be associated with one

leader behavior type or the other, athletes at high levels of competition experience higher levels of satisfaction when combinations of leader behavior types are employed (Chelladurai & Carron 1982, 1983).

Across all situational and member characteristic groupings, the relationship between satisfaction with leadership and discrepancy scores for leader behaviors, a consistent pattern of negative relationships was expected. That is, the closer together actual perceived behaviors and preferences for leader behaviors became, i.e., lower discrepancy score, the higher would be satisfaction with leadership. For the most part, this study supported the discrepancy theory of Yukl (1971). However, autocratic behavior was found to produce higher levels of satisfaction when it was perceived less relative to preferred levels of autocratic behavior. Thus, in the case of autocratic behavior, lower perceptions of this leader behavior dimension were better in terms of satisfaction with leadership.

Chelladurai (1979) predicted that member characteristics, situational characteristics, and coaching behavior relative to athlete preference for behavior were influential in determining optimal leader effectiveness. This study has supported the general basis of Chelladurai's theory and has clarified, to a degree the interaction of

path goal theory (House, 1971), discrepancy theory (Yukl, 1971), situational leadership theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988), and the sex role congruency hypothesis (Nieva & Gutek, 1981).

Conclusions

The purpose of this study was to test the contingency model of leadership for athletics (Chelladurai, 1979) and the interaction of four theories/hypotheses: path goal theory (House, 1971), discrepancy theory (Yukl, 1971), sex role congruency hypothesis (Nieva & Gutek, 1981), and situational leadership theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988). The results of the data suggested:

1. Independent sports, i.e., sports with relatively less ambiguity, generally indicated relationships between satisfaction with leadership and people oriented leader behaviors. However, to a lesser extent, some sensitivity was found for task oriented leader behaviors, particularly, training and instruction.

2. Interdependent sports, i.e., sports with relatively more ambiguity, generally indicated relationships between satisfaction with leadership and task oriented leader behaviors. However, to a lesser extent, some sensitivity was found for people oriented leader behaviors.

3. Female athletes who have female coaches and female athletes over all generally indicated relationships between satisfaction with leadership and people oriented leader behaviors. However, to a lesser extent, some sensitivity was found for task oriented leader behaviors, particularly training and instruction.

4. Female athletes who have male coaches indicated no relationships between general satisfaction and leader behaviors. In the relationships for specific satisfaction there was a slightly stronger tendency toward people oriented leader behaviors.

5. Male athletes who have male coaches and male athletes over all indicated relationships between satisfaction with leadership and task oriented leader behaviors. However, to a lesser extent, some sensitivity was found for people oriented leader behaviors.

6. Between the sports of basketball and volleyball, basketball, i.e., the sport with the greater relative ambiguity, indicated a stronger relationship between satisfaction with leadership and task oriented leader behaviors.

7. (a) The sport group classified as low in readiness indicated slightly stronger relationships between satisfaction with leadership and task oriented leader behaviors than with people oriented leader behaviors.

(b) The sport group classified as moderate in readiness indicated relationships between satisfaction with leadership and both people and task oriented leader behaviors.

(c) The sport group classified as high in readiness indicated relationships between satisfaction with leadership and both people and task oriented leader behaviors.

Due to conflicting results among the hypotheses investigating follower readiness it is suggested that there is a call for further study for: (a) a reclassification of years of experience; or (b) the experience related findings of Chelladurai and Carron (1982, 1983), i.e athletes at the collegiate level prefer both people and task oriented leader behaviors.

8. Across all sports except baseball, satisfaction with leadership increased for the most part as actual perceived leader behaviors increased relative to leader behavior preferences. Autocratic behavior was not related with specific satisfaction and was related to decreased general satisfaction as it increased relative to preferences for autocratic behavior. Training and instruction, social support, positive feedback and democratic behavior were related with increased levels of satisfaction as they were perceived at higher levels

relative to leader behavior preferences. In baseball, specific satisfaction increased as actual perceived positive feedback increased relative to preferred positive feedback.

Implications for Future Research

The results of this study have demonstrated that situational and member characteristics of followers can influence the relationship between satisfaction with leadership and leader behaviors as predicted in the contingency model of leadership for athletics (Chelladurai, 1971). The following suggestions are offered as recommendations for future research.

1. Research needs to be conducted with younger age groups to determine the impact of maturity on leader/follower relationships.

2. Research needs to be conducted which will investigate individual differences such as academic achievement, race, cultural backgrounds, and need for achievement.

3. Future research should continue to focus on the integration of theories relevant to the complex socio-phenomenon of leadership.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

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

Each of the following statements describe 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.

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

	ALWAYS	OFTEN	OCCASIONALLY	SELDOM	NEVER	
6. Plans relatively independent of the athletes.	___	___	___	___	___	6
7. Helps members of the group settle their conflicts.	___	___	___	___	___	7
8. Pays special attention to correcting athlete's mistakes.	___	___	___	___	___	8
9. Gets group approval on important matters before going ahead.	___	___	___	___	___	9
10. Tells an athlete when the athlete has done a particularly good job.	___	___	___	___	___	10
11. Makes sure that the coach's function in the team is understood by all athlete's.	___	___	___	___	___	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
19. Does personal favors for the athletes.	___	___	___	___	___	19

	ALWAYS	OFTEN	OCCASIONALLY	SELDOM	NEVER	
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 he athletes' efforts are coordinated.	___	___	___	___	___	32

	ALWAYS	OFTEN	OCCASIONALLY	SELDOM	NEVER	
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 BEHAVIOR FORM
(Chelladurai & Saleh, 1980)

Each of the following statements describe 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

		ALWAYS	OFTEN	OCCASIONALLY	SELDOM	NEVER	
6.	Plan relatively independent of the athletes.	___	___	___	___	___	6
7.	Help members of the group settle their conflicts.	___	___	___	___	___	7
8.	Pay special attention to correcting athlete's mistakes.	___	___	___	___	___	8
9.	Get group approval on important matters before going ahead.	___	___	___	___	___	9
10.	Tell an athlete when the athlete has done a particularly good job.	___	___	___	___	___	10
11.	Make sure that the coach's function in the team is understood by all athlete's.	___	___	___	___	___	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
18.	Encourage athletes to make suggestions for ways to conduct practices.	___	___	___	___	___	18
19.	Do personal favors for the athletes.	___	___	___	___	___	19

	ALWAYS	OFTEN	OCCASIONALLY	SELDOM	NEVER	
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 he athletes' efforts are coordinated.	___	___	___	___	___	32

		ALWAYS	OFTEN	OCCASIONALLY	SELDOM	NEVER	
33.	Let the athletes work at their own speed.	___	___	___	___	___	33
34.	Keep aloof from the athletes.	___	___	___	___	___	34
35.	Explain how each athlete's contribution fits into the total picture.	___	___	___	___	___	35
36.	Invite the athletes home.	___	___	___	___	___	36
37.	Give credit when it is due.	___	___	___	___	___	37
38.	Specify in detail what is expected of athletes.	___	___	___	___	___	38
39.	Let the athletes decide on plays to be used in a game.	___	___	___	___	___	39
40.	Speak in a manner which discourages questions.	___	___	___	___	___	40

APPENDIX C

DEGREE OF SATISFACTION
(Chelladurai, 1979)

How satisfied are you with the leadership you received?

(CIRCLE ONE)

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

APPENDIX D

SPECIFIC LEADERSHIP SATISFACTION
(Schliesman, 1985, 1987)

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

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.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
1. How satisfied are you with the training and instruction you received from your coach?	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	1.
2. How satisfied are you with the social support you received from your coach?	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	2.
3. How satisfied are you with the positive feedback you received from your coach?	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	3.
4. How satisfied are you with your role in the team decision making process?	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	4.
5. How satisfied are you with the degree of authority exercised by your coach?	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	5.

APPENDIX E

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

Please circle or state the most appropriate response for each question.

A. What is your sport?

1. Baseball
2. Basketball
3. Swimming
4. Tennis
5. Track and Field
6. Volleyball

B. What is your sex?

1. Female
2. Male

C. What sex is your coach?

1. Female
2. Male

D. How old are you? ____ years

E. How many years have you participated in your primary sport on a competitive organized basis (i.e., including a coach, regularly scheduled practices, contests, presence of officials)?
____ years

F. Please circle the sex of the head coach with whom you worked at each level of competitive organized participation.

Age Level	Sex of Coach
5 years	1. Female 2. Male
6	1. Female 2. Male
7	1. Female 2. Male
8	1. Female 2. Male
9	1. Female 2. Male
10	1. Female 2. Male
11	1. Female 2. Male
12	1. Female 2. Male
13	1. Female 2. Male
14	1. Female 2. Male
15	1. Female 2. Male
16	1. Female 2. Male
17	1. Female 2. Male
18	1. Female 2. Male
19	1. Female 2. Male
20	1. Female 2. Male
21	1. Female 2. Male
22	1. Female 2. Male
23	1. Female 2. Male
24	1. Female 2. Male
25	1. Female 2. Male
Other	1. Female 2. Male

APPENDIX F

Informed Consent

I understand the purpose of this research is to further explain the relationship between leader behaviors and follower satisfaction in sports.

I understand that I will be askeed to complete five (5) questionnaires and that the total time will be about 30 minutes.

I understand that all my scores will remain completely confidential and only group data will be used in reporting the results. And, I understand that only a subject number will be used.

I understand that my participation in this study is strictly voluntary, and that I have not be coerced in any way. And, I am willing to participate in this study.

Your Signature_____ Date _____

Witness _____ Date _____

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VITA

Earl Steven Schliesman was born in Poynette, Wisconsin, on January 9, 1951. While attending Poynette High School, Earl participated in football, curling, and track and field, earning letters in each sport and serving as captain of the football team his senior year. Of greater significance, however, was Earl's involvement in Future Teachers of America (President), National Honor Society (Vice President), and Yearbook Staff (Managing Editor). Earl also served as Junior Class Treasurer, Senior Class President, and graduated in May 1969.

At the University of Wisconsin-LaCrosse, Earl majored in English, played football, served as a senior resident assistant, was president of the LaCrosse Chapter of Blue Key National Honor Fraternity Awards, selected to Who's Who Among American Colleges and Universities. He graduated with honors in May 1973.

During an eleven year secondary education career at Onalaska, Wisconsin, Earl taught English and History, and served as English Department chair. Also during this time Earl served as head track and field coach, and assistant football coach. The summer months often found him back in the classroom as he earned his Master's degree in English Education in 1980.

In June 1984, Earl, his wife Nancy, and his two-year-old son, Aaron, moved to Knoxville, Tennessee. One month later his daughter, Kristina, was born as he pursued a Master's degree in Physical Education at The University of Tennessee-Knoxville. He graduated in August 1985, after having been initiated to Phi Kappa Phi, honor society.

Starting in August 1985, Earl has been employed by The University of Tennessee Athletics Department where he currently serves as Associate Director of Academic Support. He is a member of the National Association of Athletic Academic Advisors. Earl will receive the Doctor of Philosophy degree with a major emphasis in Motor Behavior/Sport Psychology in December 1990.