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The Relationship of Coaching Leadership and Athletes Satisfaction



指導教授：何立安 博士  
Advisor: Professor Andy Li-An Ho, Ph.D.

研究生：賈斯托  
Graduate Student: Pido, Gustl B.

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## The Relationship of Coaching Leadership and Athletes Satisfaction

研究生：賈斯托 (Gustl Betita Pido)

經考試合格特此證明

口試委員：  
陳正寧  
張育懷  
何立安

指導教授：何立安

所長：陳正寧

口試日期：中華民國 103 年 12 月 30 日

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Student: Gustl B. Pido

Advisor: Professor Andy Li- An Ho

## ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to determine the preferences of athletes to their coaches' coaching leadership style, to find out the athletes' satisfaction, and to investigate the differences in athletes' satisfaction among the different demographic factors, and lastly, to examine the relationship of coaching leadership style between coaching style and athlete satisfaction. The Revised Leadership Scale for Sports developed by Zhang, Jensen and Mann (1997) and the Athlete Satisfaction Questionnaire (Chelladurai & Riemer 1997) were used. The result of this study showed that there is a significant relationship of coaching leadership style and athlete satisfaction. Specifically, the democratic behavior and situational consideration coaching leadership styles are significant predictors to athletes' satisfaction. The results of this study regarding athletes' satisfaction and demographic factors show that there is a significance difference on athletes' satisfaction in terms of age. The findings of this study suggest that the coaches should provide democratic behavior and situational consideration and allow athletes to participate in the formulation of team goals, practice methods, and game strategies in order to increase the levels of satisfaction and decrease quitting among athletes. The results of this study

can serve as a benchmark for sports coaching, sport psychology, sport management and others sports related study.

*Keywords: coaching, leadership behavior, athlete satisfaction, democratic behavior, situational consideration*



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# CHAPTER I

## INTRODUCTION

### *1.1 Research Background*

Athlete satisfaction is an important variable in sports psychology. It represents “a positive affective state resulting from a complex evaluation of the structures, processes, and outcomes associated with the athletic experience” (Chelladurai & Riemer, 1997, p. 135). the role of coaches is to help the athletes to realize and reach their potential. In order to reach their potential, athletes must sustain a high level of motivation and satisfy them over the years of training and competition. Coaching is an important leadership competency and it has been found to have important effects on performer’s attitudes (Smith & Smool, 1997). Coaches may use different tactics and motivational techniques to encourage athletes, each athlete may response in particular coaching leadership. It is easy to point examples of a great leader, but it is a lot more difficult to determine what makes them such great leaders (Weinberg & Gould, 2003). Horn (1992) suggested that athlete outcomes should also serve as consequences of leadership behavior in addition to performance and satisfaction.

Chelladurai & Riemer (1998) also proposes that group performance and member satisfaction are dependent upon the congruency of required, preferred, and perceived leader behaviors. Each of the components of leader behaviors play a significant role in determining the outcome of the interaction between the leaders and subordinates. Therefore, the leader must take into account the situational demands, member preferences, and his/her perceived behavior when attempting to alter individual, motivation, group performance and member’s satisfaction.

Ideally, the coach should be a motivator, give a quality of training and instruction, understanding, joy and support and leading to athletes’ satisfaction among the members of the team. According

to Brian Mackenzie (2003), coaches motivate the athlete wish and provide them effective training and improve athlete performance. Asiah and Rosli (2008) stated that the athlete in sport teams are satisfied with their teammates sense of fair play, sportsmanlike behavior, teamwork and shared the same goals. On the other hand, many coaches have become the main source of stress, burnout, demotivation, dissatisfaction and poor performance in sports.

The researcher believes that coaches play a major role in their coaching behavior can create a great impact of athlete's satisfaction. They also serve as the main model for imitation and inspiration to their athletes. Thus, it is on this ground that the researcher found it necessary to study the coaching leadership behavior on athletes' satisfaction that is significantly correlated to them.

## **1.2 Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of this study was to identify athlete satisfaction and seek the relationship between coaching leadership style and athlete satisfaction. In addition, this study was designed to determine:

1. To determine the preferences of athletes to their coaches' coaching leadership style
2. To find out the athletes' satisfaction;
3. To investigate the differences in athletes' satisfaction among the different demographic factors;
4. To examine the significant relationship of coaching leadership style on athlete satisfaction.

### 1.3 Hypotheses:

The following hypotheses were developed for further investigation on the purpose of this study:

1. The individual performance satisfaction is significantly related to six subscale of coaching leadership style of training and instruction, democratic behavior, social support, situational consideration, positive feedback and autocratic behavior.
2. The training and instruction satisfaction is significantly related to the six subscale of coaching leadership style of training and instruction, democratic behavior, social support, situational consideration, positive feedback and autocratic behavior.
3. The personal treatment satisfaction is significantly related to the six subscale coaching leadership style of training and instruction, democratic behavior, social support, situational consideration, positive feedback and autocratic behavior.
4. Team performance satisfaction is significantly related to the six subscale of coaching leadership style of training and instruction, democratic behavior, social support, situational consideration, positive feedback and autocratic behavior.
5. The team integration satisfaction is significantly related to the six subscale of coaching leadership style of training and instruction, democratic behavior, social support, situational consideration, positive feedback and autocratic behavior.
6. The strategy satisfaction is significantly related to the six subscale of coaching leadership style of training and instruction, democratic behavior, social support, situational consideration and positive feedback and autocratic behavior.
7. The overall athlete satisfaction is significantly related to six subscale of coaching leadership style of training and instruction, democratic behavior, social support, situational consideration and positive feedback and autocratic behavior.

8. There is a significant difference in athletes' satisfaction among the different demographic factors.

#### ***1.4 Significance of the Study***

The significance of this study is to understand how coaches' leadership style is related to athletes' satisfaction. The essence of this study was to determine the problems influencing athlete's satisfaction. This research identified the coaching leadership behavior and athlete satisfaction. It can benefit the following individuals and organizations:

*Coaches* can benefit from the results of this study by providing them with insights on their coaching leadership and therefore, sustain healthy behavior, attitudes and discard negative coaching like demotivation and dissatisfaction of their athletes.

*Athletes* can benefit from this study by becoming aware of their coaches' behavior towards their training attitudes and hence, gain a better understanding of their coaches' perspective.

*Sports Psychology* professionals can benefit from the result of this study by providing them with suggestions on psychological interventions for the coaches and teach them a better understanding of their coaching obligations. They may integrate in their counseling programs in-depth discussions on coaching leadership, motivation and athlete's satisfaction.

*Educational and Sports Institutions* may benefit from the result of the study because they can use the findings of this study as their bases in curriculum planning and implementation.

*Future researchers* can also benefit from the study, especially if they decide to engage in studies relating to coaching leadership behavior and their role to their athletes.

## 1.5 Scope and Limitations

The current study was to analyze the relationship between coaching leadership style on athlete satisfaction and aimed to look into the details of the respondents' preferred coaching leadership behavior. It focused on the following coaching leadership behavior: democratic behavior, positive feedback, social support and situational consideration, autocratic behavior and the athletes' satisfaction.

Although this study expands our knowledge of the role of some variables in affecting athlete satisfaction, it must be tempered by certain limitations.

1. The limitation was the heterogenous sample consisting of various respondents and can freely answer.
2. The study was restricted only to athletes in colleges, university and national athletes.
3. The results of this study cannot be generalized to all athletes as a whole, given that one hundred respondents is not only sufficient to make a sweeping conclusion.
4. The present study focused only on coaching leadership and athlete satisfaction.

## 1.6 Definitions of Terms

This section contains the definition of terms as they are conceptually and operationally used in the study.

*Democratic Behavior* refers to the coaching behavior that allows athletes greater participation in decisions with group goal, practice methods, competitions and strategies.

*Autocratic Behavior* refers to coaching behavior which involves independent decision-making by a coach and stresses personal behavior authority

*Social Support* refers to coaching behavior giving important concern for the personal welfare of individual athletes, behavior positive group atmosphere and warm interpersonal relations with members.

*Training and Instruction* refers to coaching behavior aimed to improve athletes' performance by explaining and emphasizing the techniques and tactics of the sport, clarifying the relationship among the members.

*Positive Feedback* refers to coaching behavior which reinforces an athlete by express appreciation when an athlete performs well, recognizing and rewarding good behavior.

*Situational consideration behaviors* refers to coaching behavior aimed at considering situational factors such as time, competition, environment, maturity states, individual, age, gender, skill levels and health conditions.

*Training and Instruction Satisfaction* refers to athletes' satisfaction with the training and instruction provided by the coach.

*Personal Treatment Satisfaction* refers to athletes' satisfaction on giving important recognition, friendliness and loyalty of a coach.

*Team Performance Satisfaction* refers to athletes' satisfaction with his or her team's level of performance.

*Individual Performance* refers to an athletes' own performance. Task performance includes absolute performance, improvement in performance, and goal achievement.

## CHAPTER II

### LITERATURE REVIEW

The following materials were considered to be pertinent to the study's line of inquiry. Over the years, many studies have been conducted with regard to coaching leadership and athletes satisfaction, and the researcher made every attempt to highlight some of the most recent and most remarkable among them. In order to clearly define their relations to this study, variables and concepts are hereto presented in topical form.

#### 2.1 Theories of Leadership

##### 2.1.1 Situational and Contingency Leadership Theories

A leadership focused on the behavioral and situational factors of effective leadership. Situational factors such as the leader's personality, task requirements, and the needs, attitudes and expectations of members influence the effectiveness of the leader. Several prominent leadership models utilized this approach including the contingency theory (Fiedler, 1967), the situational leadership theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1977) the path-goal theory (House, 1971), and adaptive-reactive leadership theory (Osborne & Hunt, 1975).

##### 2.1.2 Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Theory

Situational leadership theory proposed that leaders should vary their behaviors according to the member's maturity. Hersey and Blanchard (1977), classified leader behaviors along two dimension the initiating structure and consideration. Initiating structure, termed task behavior, described one-way directional communication from the leader to the member. Consideration termed relationship behavior, described two-way directional communication from the leader when providing social-emotional support for the member. Member maturity or readiness referred



to the ability and willingness of members to take responsibility for directing their behavior in relation to a specific task.

Maturity level ranged from “low” to “moderately low” to “moderately high” to “high”. Hersey and Blanchard (1977) suggested that the orientation of the leader’s behavior should change based on the maturity level of the member. A low maturity level prompted a high task/low relationship response from the leader. High task/low relationship leader behavior refers to one-way communication, or “telling”, to define the roles of members. A member with a moderately low maturity level required a high task/high relationship behavior from the leader. High task/high relationship leader behavior included defining member roles and allowing two way communications to provide social-emotional support to get members to believe in decisions. A low task/high relationship leader behavior was necessary for members with moderately high maturity levels. Low task/high relationship leader behavior referred to a sharing of the decision making between the leader and member, which allowed members to “participate” with facilitating leader behavior. Finally, members with high maturity levels dictate a low task/low relationship leader behavior. Low task/low relationship leader behavior referred to the leader “delegating” responsibilities to members.

### 2.1.3 Fiedler’s Contingency Theory

According to Fiedler’s (1967), contingency theory posited that effective group performance was dependent upon the appropriate match of the leader’s personality and the situation. Personality orientation of the leader is centered on a task or interpersonal style. Situational factors that influence leader effectiveness included leader- member relations, degree of task structure, and power-position of the leader. Leader-member relations referred to the quality of the relationship between the leader and member. The leader’s influence over the

members was enhanced through a strong relationship. Task structure referred to how clearly the goals and methods to achieve the goals were stated and understood. As the structure of tasks increases for the group, so does the leader's influence over the members. Power-position of the leader referred to control over rewards and sanctions, authority over group members, and support provided from the organization. The leader's influence over the members was in direct proportion to the power possessed by the leader over the members.

#### 2.1.4 The House's Path-Goal Theory

According to the path-goal theory of leadership (House, 1971), postulated that the eventual performance and satisfaction of group members were highly influenced by the appropriateness of leader behaviors in relation to member's needs, desires, and characteristics of the task. House (1971), believes that the function of the leader was to provide coaching, guidance, and personal support to members if necessary. The path-goal theory proposed that group members preferred a highly structured regime when presented with ambiguous, varied, and interdependent tasks. Initiating structure and close supervision from the leader helped clarify the path-goal relationship and increased the coordination, satisfaction, and performance of the group members. Should the members not be able to make valid judgments about situational requirements because of their characteristics, the leader must take action and decide for the members.

#### 2.1.5 Osborne and Hunt's Adaptive-Reactive Leadership Theory

Osborne & Hunt (1975) suggested distinctions between adaptive and reactive leader behaviors. Adaptive behaviors were dictated by situational requirements and reflected the leaders' efforts to adapt to the conditions and requirements of the wider organizational system. These behaviors were controlled by formal structure and organizational size. Reactive behaviors were

reactions to member needs and preferences and were only utilized at the discretion of the leader. Osborne and Hunt (1975) assumed that members responded mainly to the reactive behaviors of the leader, which were constrained and controlled by situational factors.

#### 2.1.6 Yukl's Discrepancy Model of Leadership

According to (Yukl, 1971), was developed discrepancy model of leadership to explain the relationship between leader behavior and subordinate satisfaction with the leader. Yukl proposed a system of three distinct leader behavior dimensions: Consideration, Initiating Structure, and Decision-Centralization. Consideration refers to the degree to which a leader acts in a warm and supportive manner and shows concern and respect for his/her subordinates, while Initiating Structure represents the degree to which a leader defines and structures his/her own role and those of his/her subordinates toward goal attainment (Halpin & Winer, 1957; Hemphill & Coons, 1957). Decision-Centralization refers to the average degree of subordinate participation in the various decision-making procedures used by a leader. In his discrepancy model, Yukl proposed that subordinate satisfaction was a function of the difference between a subordinate's preferences and actual experiences. A low discrepancy between preferences and experiences would result in a higher degree of satisfaction. Therefore, leader behavior would result in subordinate satisfaction if the leader's behavior matched the preferences of the subordinate.

#### 2.2 Leadership behavior

Leadership has been defined in terms of individual traits, leader behavior, interaction patterns, role relationships, follower perceptions, influence over followers, influence on task goals, and influence on organizational culture (Yukl & Van Fleet, 1992). Leadership is defined as the use of non-coercive and symbolic influence to direct and coordinate the activities of the members of an organized group toward the accomplishment of group objectives Jago (1982).

Leadership is an important component of overall effectiveness because it is seen as the force that energizes and directs group behavior. During the 20th century, researchers have utilized several approaches to studying leadership including the trait approach, behavioral approach, power and influence approach, and situational approach.

Recent theories including transformational and charismatic leadership incorporate elements from prior approaches. Legendary basketball coach John Wooden wrote, “A leader, particularly a teacher or coach has a most powerful influence on those he or she leads, perhaps more than anyone outside of the family therefore, it is the obligation of that leader, teacher or coach to treat such responsibility as a grave concern” (Wooden & Jamison, 1997, p. 111). Wooden’s reverence for leadership reflects the impact that leadership has on follower behavior. Given the centrality of leadership to the behavior of people in groups, it is important to define the impact of leadership on attitudes such as motivation, commitment, and satisfaction. Since leadership affects attitudes, and attitudes drive behavior, leadership can be viewed as a catalyst for behavior change among athletes. In general, coaches seem to use both behavioral and transformational methods of leadership. They also use different types of leadership methods depending on the situation or needs of the players (Giacobbi et al, 2002).

### *2.2.1 Leadership Behavior in Sports*

The leadership describes leader behavior in terms of required, preferred, and perceived leadership behavior (Chelladurai, 1978). Required leader behavior includes the situational constraints on behavior such as organizational rules, regulations, policies, goals, formal structure, group task, and social and cultural norms. Preferred leader behavior incorporates the type of behavior athletes would like to receive from their coaches. Perceived leadership behavior describes what is actually done by the leader to influence member performance and satisfaction.

In the Multidimensional Model of Leadership (MML), perceived leadership behavior is interpreted by the athlete perceptions of the coach's behavior.

The study Asiah, Mohd Pilus and Rosli, Saadan. (2009) has showed that the athletes preferred training and instruction leadership styles in universities hockey team. Based on the results obtained there was a moderate correlation between coaching leadership styles and athlete satisfaction in universities hockey team. The Multidimensional Model of Leadership includes member satisfaction and group performance as consequences of leader behavior. Since leader behavior is comprised of required, preferred, and perceived behavior, satisfaction and/or performance could be limited by any one of the three states of leader behavior. Therefore, the MML posits that a high congruency between required, preferred, and perceived leadership behavior will lead to increased member satisfaction and group performance. Differences in preferred coaching leadership behaviors have also been noted between male and female athletes. Peng (1997) found that male and female basketball players significantly differed in their preferences for democratic behavior (females preferred more democratic behavior) and situation consideration behavior (females preferred more situation consideration behavior), but not in training and instruction, autocratic, social support, and positive feedback behaviors. The author suggested the gender composition of the team may be considered a situational factor that may affect the preference of subjects for specific coaching behaviors.

The study of Jambor and Zhang (1997) examined the differences in leadership behaviors between male and female coaches and among different coaching levels. The results indicated significant differences between the coaching levels (junior high, high school, and college), yet no significant differences between male and female coaches and no significant interactions between gender and coaching level. High school coaches indicated a higher degree of democratic

behaviors when compared to their college coaching counterparts. Junior high school coaches were significantly lower in training and instruction behaviors than were high school and college coaches. Finally, junior high school coaches reported significantly less social support behaviors than did high school and college coaches. The results of the aforementioned studies support the inclusion of the separate dimensions of leadership behavior within the MML.

Perceived leadership behavior as assessed by the sport participant has shown to be quite different from required leader behavior described by the athletic coach. Horne and Carron (1985) found that Canadian coaches rated themselves higher on training and instruction, democratic behavior, social support, and positive feedback than did their athletes. Further support for these findings was provided by Salminen, Liukkonen and Telama (1990). In their study of Finnish athletes and coaches, the coaches perceived themselves to be more instructive, socially supportive, and rewarding, but less autocratic than their athletes. In the study by Gordon (1986), discovered that coaches who perceived themselves to be autocratic also perceived themselves to be benevolent. However, the athletes perceived the autocratic coaches to be less benevolent.

The contingency and situational theories focused on behavioral and situational factors, research has not provided conclusive support for these theories in the sport setting. The literature suggested that investigations of leadership in the sport environment required a multiple factor approach. In response, a Multidimensional Model of Leadership (Chelladurai, 1978, 1993; Chelladurai & Carron, 1978) was synthesized and extended to the athletic context. This model is based on past leadership theories including Fiedler's (1967) contingency model of leadership effectiveness, Evans' (1970) and House's (1971; House and Dressler, 1974) path-goal theory of leadership, Osborn and Hunt's (1975a) adaptive-reactive theory of leadership, and Yukl's (1971)

discrepancy model of leadership. Chelladurai's Multidimensional Model of Leadership incorporates the leader, follower, and situational context dimensions of leadership, which coincides with Hollander's (1978) assertion that the leadership process is best understood as the occurrence of mutually satisfying transactions among leaders and followers within a particular situational context. In other words, interactions between leaders, followers, and situations must be thoroughly studied to truly identify the locus of leadership.

According to the Multidimensional Model of Leadership (Figure 2-1), situational characteristics (i.e. team goals, team structure, group task and associated technology, social norms, cultural values, and government regulations), leader characteristics (i.e. personality, ability, experience, etc.), and member characteristics (i.e. gender, age, ability, etc.) are antecedents of leader behavior. Furthermore, leader behavior can be classified as required, preferred, or perceived, and the impact of these three factors determines the levels of performance and satisfaction. The consequences of the leader's perceived behavior include performance and satisfaction, but those consequences are mediated by the required and preferred behavior of the leader. In addition, a feedback loop is proposed to exist between performance and satisfaction outcomes and perceived leader behavior, meaning that eventual performance and satisfaction may alter perceived leader behavior.

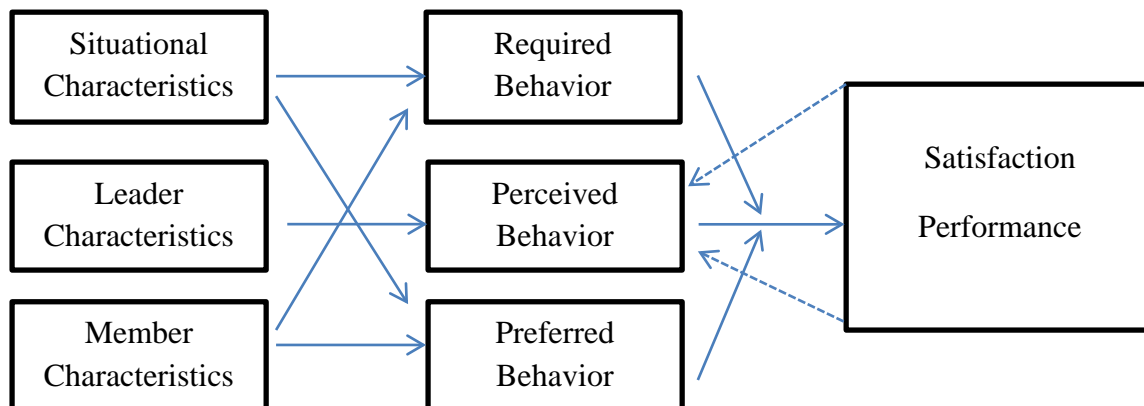


Figure 2-1 The Multidimensional Model of Leadership (Chelladurai, 1999)

Adapted from: Chelladurai, P. (1999). *Human Resource Management in Sport and Recreation*.

(p. 163).

### 2.2.3 Athlete Maturity

Serpa (1990) discovered that younger female basketball players in Portugal preferred more social support and democratic behavior, while older players preferred more autocratic behavior. Other studies have shown that more experienced players preferred more positive feedback (Erle, 1981) and autocratic and social support (Chelladurai & Carron, 1983) when compared to less experienced players. The ability level of athletes has also shown to impact sport leadership.

One study of 399 young Finnish athletes indicated that high-ability athletes perceived their coaches to be more autocratic and less democratic, rewarding, and socially supportive when compared to low-ability athletes (Liukkonen & Salminen, 1990). Garland and Barry (1988) found that more able players, as compared to the less able players, perceived their coaches to emphasize more training and instruction, social support, and positive feedback. In addition, more able players perceived their coaches to be more participative and less autocratic in nature. Schubiger (1993) examined the perceived and preferred coach leader behaviors of high school and college football players.

The results indicated that college players perceived a significantly greater amount of social support and training and instruction behaviors than the high school players. Furthermore, the collegiate players reported a higher preference for social support behavior when compared to their high school counterparts. As Chelladurai (1993) noted, it appears that “as athletes gain experience and/or ability, they seem to prefer their coaches to be more autocratic and socially



supportive. That leads to the concept of the coach as the benevolent autocrat (p. 652).” A study has identified coaching efficacy as a predictor of leadership style in intercollegiate athletics (Sullivan & Kent, 2003). Coaching efficacy has been defined as “the extent to which coaches believe they have the capacity to affect the learning and performance of their athletes” (Feltz, Chase, Moritz, & Sullivan, 1999, p. 765).

The authors examined an international sample of 224 coaches and found coaching efficacy to account for up to 42% of the variance in leadership style. These results support the consideration of coaching efficacy as a predictor of leadership style. The availability of essential resources, such as coaching and parental support, can significantly influence the ability to engage in the required amounts of high quality training. Another factor that appears to influence the acquisition of expertise is the relative age. First demonstrated in calendar year (Barnsley & Thompson, 1985) as in school, many sports group children by age to equalize evaluation and competition (Barrow & McGee, 1971). However, the presence of the relative age effect suggests that categorizing children by age can create training inequalities and reduced opportunities for younger children.

In sport the relative age was first discussed in ice-hockey where children are organized into leagues according to the calendar year. Barnsley, Thompson, and Barnsley (1985) conducted analyses of birth dates for players in the Ontario Hockey League (OHL), Western Hockey League (WHL), and National Hockey League (NHL) during the 1982-83 season. Month of birth for all players was then compared to the frequency of male births in Canada and data was arranged by birth quarter (Quarter 1: January-March, Quarter 2: April-June, Quarter 3: July-September, Quarter 4 October-December). Results revealed that the majority of players were born earlier in the year; NHL players were twice as likely and WHL and OHL players four times

more likely to be born within the first quarter of the year than the last. The prevalence of older players at the elite levels of hockey led to a follow-up study (Barnsley and Thompson, 1988) to examine minor hockey participation patterns and level of hockey participation at representative or house levels. Researchers compared birth quarters of players with the hockey league as a Mite (under 10), Pee wee (ages 11-12), Bantam (ages 13-14), Midget (ages 15-16), Juvenile (ages 17-18), or Junior (ages 19-20) player.

Findings showed that from Pee wee through Juvenile, more players involved in hockey were born in the first quarter of the year. Moreover, players born earlier in the year were more likely to participate in hockey at the top tier levels compared to players born during the later months of the year. The relative age effect has been supported in other sports including Major League baseball (Thompson et al., 1991), Junior football (Barnsley et al., 1992), tennis and swimming (Baxter-Jones and Helms, 1994), and soccer (Dudink, 1994; Helsen et al., 1998; Verhulst, 1992). Two main explanations have been offered to account for the relative age effect. Barnsley and colleagues (Barnsley and Thompson, 1988; Barnsley et al., 1985) hypothesized that older players were bigger, stronger, faster, and better coordinated than the younger players and thus experienced more success and rewards in hockey and were more likely to remain involved. Younger peers were thought to experience failure and frustration and withdraw from hockey.

A second hypothesis proposed that older players were more likely to be selected to higher competitive representational teams where they would receive improved coaching, facilities, and ice time when compared with their peers. This second hypothesis has clear implications for the development of elite athletes given the necessity of resources in the attainment of expertise (Ericsson et al., 1993). Unfortunately, the organization of many sports and the disparity in skill

level amongst same-aged youth facilitates the selection of older players to high-level training and resources while the potential of younger athletes can be overlooked. Research on the relative age effect suggests that the development of elite athletes is based in part on age differences and unequal access to training opportunities. Alternative methods of grouping children for competition and advancement in sport require examination.

#### *2.2.4 Gender Differences*

Male and female athletes prefer different coaching styles (Windsor, 2005). Across six Division-I universities, 62 female and 49 male soccer players were sampled. It was found that male soccer players on the collegiate level preferred coaches who utilize an autocratic style of coaching and conversely female collegiate soccer players preferred a democratic style and more positive feedback than males (Windsor, 2005). These results indicate that male and female athletes may be satisfied with different coaching styles, and that coaches of male athletes may not be able to utilize the same coaching styles when coaching female athlete has also been examined within the context of perceived leadership. Serpa, Pataco and Santos (1991), examined 87 male handball players from the 1988 World Championships and Serpa and Antunes (1989), studied 80 elite female volleyball players participating in the Portuguese National Championship, both studies reported similar results. Athletes perceived their respective coaches to emphasize training and instruction, and rewarding behavior, while placing the least emphasis on democratic behavior.

However, other studies have provided contradictory results. For example, Liukkonen and Salminen's (1990), study of 399 young Finnish athletes indicated that female coaches were perceived to be more democratic and socially supportive than male coaches. Furthermore, Salminen, Liukkonen, and Telama (1990) found that female coaches perceived themselves to be

more instructive, supportive, and rewarding than Finnish male coaches. Mondello and Janelle (2001) noted that coaches of male teams exhibited significantly higher levels of positive reinforcement than coaches of female teams. The preliminary findings of these studies suggest the level of competition may influence perceived leadership since the coaches of elite male and female players seem to exhibit similar behaviors.

Gender is an individual difference found to be a significant determinant of preferred leadership. Chelladurai and Saleh (1978) sampled 160 physical education students and found that males preferred more autocratic and supportive leadership behavior than their female counterparts. Similarly, Riemer and Toon (2001) examined collegiate tennis players and found female athletes to only prefer more social support behavior when they were coached by males. In addition, Terry (1984) found males to prefer more autocratic behavior than females in a sample of competitive elite athletes. Erle (1981), completed a similar study using a sample of 335 male and female intramural and intercollegiate hockey players. The results indicated that males preferred more training and instruction, autocratic behavior and social support from their coaches than the females. However, female players preferred more democratic leadership behavior from their coaches when compared to the male players.

### **2.3 Athletes Satisfaction**

Coaches have different coaching leadership styles. Athletes on a team might not prefer the coach's coaching style. When players are not satisfied with the coach's coaching style then problems with team unity may arise and athletes may quit the team (McClain, 2005; Wilson, 2007). Coaching style might be the key to keeping the sports team in harmony. The coach, as the center, the leader and teacher of the team, he or she must find a way to manage the team and maintain unity. The role of the coach is important to the success of the team (Jacob, 2006;

McClain, 2005). Although many studies can be found in the academic literature regarding job satisfaction few studies have specifically examined athlete satisfaction as a separate construct.

The team integration was the most important subscale influencing athlete satisfaction in universities hockey team (Asiah & Rosli, 2009). Athlete satisfaction is a positive affective state resulting from a complex evaluation of the structures, processes, and outcomes associated with the athletic experience (Chelladurai & Riemer, 1997). The level of an athlete's satisfaction is determined by the discrepancy between what is wanted by the athlete and the perception of what is received within the psychological, physical, and environmental domains. Furthermore, Chelladurai and Riemer (1997) suggested that athlete satisfaction may prove to be the ultimate measure of organizational effectiveness of an athletic program based on the following unique features of athletics.

First, the measures of performance in athletics are deficient and/or contaminated by such factors such as luck, an opponent's extraordinary performance, a referee's mistake, and so on. Second, activities engaged in during the pursuit of excellence cannot be solely judged by measures of wins and losses since every contest results in a winner and a loser. Third, the win-loss records pertain only to the periods of performance (i.e. the actual competitions), which does not encompass the total athletic experience. Therefore, the authors concluded, "It is imperative that evaluation of an athletic program and its coaches should be based on athlete satisfaction in addition to measures of performance such as win- loss records" (Chelladurai & Riemer, 1997).

### *2.3.1 Team member satisfaction*

In 1978, Chelladurai studied the leadership preferences and perceptions of 216 university- level male athletes in basketball, track and field and wrestling. Using the team as the subjects of analysis, he found that the congruence between perceived and preferred autocratic

and positive feedback behaviors influenced satisfaction with the coach in a curvilinear fashion. Therefore, the members were less satisfied when the coach's perceived behavior deterred from the preferred behavior in either direction. Chelladurai (1984) later reanalyzed the data with the individual as the unit of analysis and found that the discrepancy between a member's preferences and his/her individual perceptions of coaching behavior was associated with member satisfaction with leadership, team performance, and overall involvement. It is also important to note that the effects of the discrepancies were more pronounced on satisfaction with leadership than on the other facets of satisfaction.

These findings were later supported by the work of Horne and Carron (1985), who found that discrepancies in training and instruction, social support, and positive feedback were significant predictors of satisfaction with leadership. Schliesman (1987) analyzed collegiate track and field athletes and found perceived democratic behavior and social support to be positively related to general satisfaction with leadership. In this particular study, perceived democratic behavior and social support were slightly better predictors of satisfaction with general leadership than the corresponding discrepancy scores. Weiss and Friedrichs (1986) studied the relationship of university basketball players' perceptions of their coaches' behavior on both the individual and team levels of analysis. At the individual level, the collective leadership variables contributed to athlete satisfaction, but only the perceived democratic behavior and social support dimensions were statistically significant. At the team level of analysis, perceived leadership was predictive of team satisfaction, with positive feedback as the most predictive factor of team satisfaction.

### 2.3.2 Facets of Athlete Satisfaction

An early study identified two facets of athlete satisfaction as satisfaction with personal outcome and satisfaction with leadership (Chelladurai et al., 1988). However, Chelladurai and Riemer (1997) also created a comprehensive classification of the facets of athlete satisfaction. The classification scheme incorporates team and individual outcomes, team and individual processes, and social processes. Team outcomes are further classified into task and social outcomes. The task outcomes include team performance, team goal attainment, team performance improvement, team maturity and group integration. Team performance is often measured by winning percentages or even point differentials. Team goal attainment refers to the accomplishment of predetermined team goals over a set period of time.

Team performance improvement may be measured via improvements in overall winning percentage, league rankings, or perceptions of performance improvement. Team maturity refers to the growth and development of the team members in terms of health, fitness, ability, mastery of skills, tactics, and strategies of the sport. Group integration refers to a state characterized by a sense of solidarity shaped by (a) congruent orientations toward the group's purposes and processes, (b) understanding and acceptance of strategies and tactics, (c) recognition and respect for each other's strengths and contributions toward the group purposes, and (d) a collective determination to put forth the best efforts toward that end. Interpersonal harmony is considered to be a social outcome and refers to the degree to which members of the team get along well as a group and provide social support to each other.

The individual outcomes are also further categorized into task and social outcomes. The task outcomes include personal performance, personal goal attainment, personal performance improvement, personal growth, individual task role, and personal immersion. Personal

performance, goal attainment, and performance improvement are similar to the previously mentioned team task outcomes except that they function on an individual level. Personal growth refers to individual psychological and mental growth including increased understanding of the strategies and tactics of the sports, developing psychological and social skills to be successful in athletics. Individual task role includes the contributions an athlete makes to his or her team along with the function of the athlete's role in the group's task efforts. Personal immersion refers to the extent to which the athlete is satisfied with personal involvement with the sport.

The social outcomes include belongingness, friendship, and the social role. A sense of belonging to the group and feeling of acceptance are included in the belongingness social outcomes factor. Friendship reflects the affinities developed with individual members of the team. Finally, social role includes the roles played by individuals in the social network or structure within the group. The team processes are broken down into task and social processes. Strategy selection, mobilization, deployment, practice, competition tactics, equitable treatment, ethics, team effort and coordination, facilities/equipment, budget, ancillary support, and community support comprise the task processes.

Strategy selection refers to the extent to which the athlete is satisfied with the coach's selection of specific sport strategies. Mobilization refers to the extent talented athletes are recruited as members of the team. Deployment is the effectiveness of the coach in using the available talent in a coordinated manner to achieve success in athletic competitions. Practice refers to the extent to which athletes perceive practice sessions to be appropriate and effective. Competition tactics refer to the extent to which athletes are satisfied with tactical adjustments that are made during the process of competition. Equitable treatment involves the athlete's perception of equity in the distribution of resources, the procedures adopted in such distributions,



and the fairness system in general. The athletes' reaction toward the management of ethical dilemmas is incorporated into the ethics dimension. Team effort and coordination refers to the extent to which an athlete perceives his or her teammates to be putting forth their best efforts in a coordinated manner for the success of the team.

The facilities/equipment factor measures the extent to which athletes are provided with appropriate facilities and equipment. Direct monetary support is encompassed within the budget dimension. Ancillary support includes medical support, academic counseling, game management, and so forth. The implicit and explicit support from the community (i.e. students, faculty/staff, and fans) is defined within the community support factor. The social processes include decision participation and loyalty support. Decision participation refers to the extent to which the coach engages the athletes in decision-making relevant to the team and its performance. Loyalty support refers to an athlete's satisfaction with the loyalty demonstrated by the coach and/or administration toward the team as a whole. The individual-oriented processes are dichotomized into task and social processes. The task processes include ability utilization, training/instruction, positive feedback, personal inputs, team contribution, recognition, financial support, and family support. Ability utilization is concerned with how the coach uses the abilities of an individual athlete.

Training/instruction refers to the extent to which a coach engages in training and instruction, which has been identified as the most significant dimension of leader behavior assessed by Chelladurai and Saleh's (1980) Leadership Scale for Sports. Positive feedback is the provision of reinforcements for successful performance of tasks assigned to individual athletes during games and practice sessions. Personal input refers to the satisfaction an athlete has with the effort he or she has put forth during practice sessions and competitions. The possibility that

team members may serve to train and instruct the individual athlete, offer positive feedback, and help other athletes to understand how his or her effort fits in with the rest of the team's efforts is included within the team contribution dimension. Recognition refers to the extent to which an athlete is satisfied with the recognition that he or she received from the coach, teammates, and others with respect to what he or she contributes to the task processes. An athlete's satisfaction with the amount of his or her individual scholarship is included within the financial support facet.

Family support reflects the degree to which an athlete is satisfied with the amount of family support he or she receives regarding athletic endeavors. The social processes include social support and loyalty support. Social support is described as coaching behavior characterized by concern for the individual athlete that is supportive in nature. Loyalty support refers to one's satisfaction with the level of loyalty the coach and/or teammates demonstrate toward the athlete as an individual. Chelladurai and Riemer's (1997) classification of the facets of athlete satisfaction provide the foundation for further research in this area. The scheme was presented in two viewpoints. The first paradigm regrouped the facets of athlete satisfaction based on the agents who control the processes leading to the desired outcomes.

Table 2 Controlling agent of athlete satisfaction

<b>Self</b>	<b>Coaches</b>	<b>Team/ Teammates</b>	<b>Administration</b>	<b>Family/ Community</b>
Individual performance	Ability utilization	Team performance	Facilities	Community support
Personal goal attainment	Training and instruction	Team goal attainment	Budget	Family support
Performance Improvement	Positive Feedback	Performance improvement	Ancillary Support	
Personal immersion	Strategy selection	Team maturity	Compensation	
Personal growth	Mobilization	Group integration	Team loyalty Support	
Personal	Deployment	Team		

inputs		effort coordination
Task role	Practice	Team contribution
Social role	Competitions	Friendship
	tactics	
	Equitable	Belongingness
	treatment	
	Ethics	Interpersonal
		harmony
	Decision	Recognition
	participation	
	Recognition	Social support
	Social Support	Individual
		loyalty support
	Individual	
	loyalty support	
	Team	loyalty
	supports	

### 2.3.3 Athlete Satisfaction and Research

The Athlete Satisfaction Questionnaire (Riemer & Chelladurai, 1998) was developed to measure the facets of satisfaction identified previously by Chelladurai and Riemer (1997). The Athlete Satisfaction Questionnaire (ASQ) is a 56-item questionnaire that contains 15 dimensions of athlete satisfaction. These subscales include individual performance, team performance, ability utilization, strategy, personal treatment, training and instruction, team task contribution, team social contribution, ethics, team integration, personal dedication, budget, medical personnel, academic support services, and external agents. Respondents complete the ASQ by using a seven point Likert scale.

Using a sample of 614 Canadian university athletes (basketball, hockey, and volleyball), the researchers reported Cronbach alpha coefficients ranging from .78 to .95 ( $M = .88$ ), and 12 of the 15 subscales were higher than .85. All internal consistency coefficients were much higher than the value of .70 suggested by Nunnally and Bernstein (1994). Subscales measuring the

constructs of “Desire to Quit” and “Team Commitment” (Rierner & Chelladurai, 1997) along with the Negative Affectivity Scale (Levin & Stokes, 1989) were used to assess criterion validity. The results of the correlation analysis supported the predictive validity of the ASQ.

Chelladurai and Rierner’s (1997) classification of the facets of athlete satisfaction has received a modest amount of attention in the literature despite its recent introduction. Two of the studies measured the impact of leadership upon satisfaction. The first study measured the practice of transformational leadership among Malaysian high school coaches and its impact athlete satisfactions with individual performances (Yusof, 2002). The author administered the Transformational Leadership Behavior Inventory and the ASQ to 162 subjects (soccer = 94; netball = 62; 6 = no sport indication). The results indicated that transformational leadership behaviors of the soccer and netball coaches were significantly related to player satisfactions. In addition, athletes were more likely to be satisfied with their performances if they were in good academic standing, and if they had a local Malaysian coach.

The second study investigated the MML congruency hypothesis, and the member characteristics hypothesis relating to ability and gender (Rierner & Toon, 2001). A total of 148 NCAA Division I and II tennis players completed measures assessing leadership behavior and athlete satisfaction. The results indicated that athlete satisfaction was not dependent on the congruence between preferred and perceived leadership behavior. In addition, the athlete’s level of ability did affect preferences for leadership behavior. Furthermore, while athlete gender was responsible for some variance in preferences for autocratic behavior and positive feedback behavior, the gender of the athlete’s coach had a significant effect on the athlete’s preferences for social support behavior.

Another related study involving tennis players examined the motivational climate and goal orientations as predictors of perceptions of improvement, satisfaction, and coach ratings (Balaguer, Duda, & Crespo, 1999). The authors examined 219 competitive (intermediate = 70; advanced = 124; professional = 25) Spanish tennis players. The results indicated that the players' reported satisfaction with their competitive results for the year and current level of play was negatively associated with a perceived ego- involving climate and positively associated with perceptions of a task- involving atmosphere. Therefore, tennis coaches should try to create an environment that is more task- involving and less ego- involving enhancing athlete satisfaction.

#### *2.3.4 Relationship between Leadership and Satisfaction*

Studies examining the relationship between leadership and satisfaction have defined satisfaction in terms of satisfaction with one's job and leader. Job satisfaction is the overall attitude an individual has toward his or her job. Research has supported that leadership is a general determinant of job satisfaction as a job characteristic (Bateman & Strasser, 1984; Glisson & Durick, 1988). Specific studies examining leadership behaviors have also determined that job satisfaction is positively related to consideration and initiating structure leadership behaviors (Downey, Sheridan, & Slocum, 1975; Dubinsky, Childers, Skinner, & Gencturk, 1988; Halpin & Winer, 1957; House, Filley, & Kerr, 1971; Hunt & Liesbscher, 1973; Osborn & Hunt, 1975b; Szilagyi & Keller, 1976; Teas, 1983; Teas & Horrell, 1981; Yunker & Hunt, 1976). The leader can also serve as the target of follower satisfaction. Research has shown that leader behavior can have a profound and consistent influence on several facets of subordinate satisfaction (Bass, 1985; Vroom & Yago, 1988). Other studies have indicated that transformational leadership can have significant add-on effects to transactional leadership in predicting subordinate satisfaction

with the leader (Bass, 1985; Hater and Bass, 1988; Koh, Steers, & Terborg, 1995; Waldman, Bass, & Einstein, 1987).

In a sport setting, the studies of Horne & Carron (1985), Sherman et.al (2000), and Ramzaninezhad & Keshtan (2009) showed that the variables predicting athlete satisfaction between athlete perceptions and preferences for positive feedback, training and instruction, and social support. Preferred and perceived positive feedback behaviors predicted athlete performance perceptions. Rune, Gareth and Derek (2008) stated that positive feedback, training & instruction and democratic behaviour relation to success. The reward power of coach has relatively strong positive relationship with players' satisfaction (Turman, 2006; Mohammad, Hashem and Hadis, 2012). Supported study of Serpa and Antunes (1989) coaches to emphasize training and instruction, and rewarding behavior to sport performance.

The results showed that there is significance relationship between coach's leadership styles and team success, and the coaches of successful teams exhibited higher levels of democratic and social support behaviors and lower level of autocratic (Echas and Krane, 1993). Pease and Kozub (1994); Alfreman (2005); Fathi (2005); Dexter (2002); Wester & Weiss (1991); Moradi (2004); Range (2002); Moradi (2004); Bennet and Manuel (2000) found that coaches place more emphasis on training and instruction while expressing a lower preference for autocratic behaviour. Chelladurai (1990) also proposes that group performance and member satisfaction are dependent upon the congruency of required, preferred, and perceived leader behaviors. When the preferred coaching style is utilized player are more apt to respond with higher levels of performance (Howard, 2005) effective coaching style related to wining.

In the study by Schliesman (1987), the forty male university level track and field athletes and found a significant positive linear relationship between leadership discrepancy scores

(preference and perceptions) and satisfaction with leadership. These results supported the findings of Friedrichs (1984) who noted the same significant relationship in a sample of 251 male collegiate basketball players. In a survey of 34 athletic directors and 142 head coaches, Davis (2002) discovered a significant association between head coaches' perception of the leadership style of their respective athletic directors and their level of satisfaction. Asiah & Rosli (2009) recent study shown that there is a significant relationship on athlete preferred coaching leadership styles are democratic and positive feedback is the most have impact on athlete satisfaction among universities hockey team. The results of the above studies support the existence of a relationship between leadership behavior and satisfaction.



## CHAPTER III

### METHODOLOGY

#### 3.1 Research Design

The study use descriptive correlational design and collected data without any change or manipulated in the environment. It provided natural occurrences like behaviors, attitudes and other characteristics of a particular group.

#### 3.2 Samples

The participants of the study consisted of college, university and national athletes. The study included one hundred respondents. The researcher made use of convenience sampling technique as the most appropriate technique for the study within the set time frame of this study. The respondents of this study were voluntarily participated.

#### 3.3 Instrumentation

The researcher used a questionnaire consisted of three section parts. The first part was the demographic information of respondent, the second part was coaching leadership behavior and the last was athlete satisfaction.

##### 3.3.1 Demographic Questionnaire

A demographic questionnaire was administered which incorporated the following items: age, gender, educational level, playing experience, athlete classification, type of sports.

##### 3.3.2 Revised Leadership Scale for Sports

Zhang, Jensen, and Mann's (1997) Revised Leadership Scale for Sports (RLSS) was utilized to assess preferred and perceived leadership behavior. However, in the current study, only the athletes' preference version for the study since all research questions pertained to



athlete's preferences. The RLSS is a 60-item questionnaire that contains the following subscales: Training and Instruction, Democratic Behavior, Autocratic Behavior, Social Support, Positive Feedback and Situation Consideration. Training and Instruction reflects the coach's ability to improve the performance level of the athlete. The extent to which the coach permits participation by the athletes in decision making is termed Democratic Behavior. Autocratic Behavior indicates the extent to which a coach keeps apart from the athletes and stresses his or her authority in dealing with them. The Social Support factor refers to the extent to which the coach is involved in satisfying the inter-personal needs of the athletes. The Positive Feedback factor represents the coach's expressions of appreciation and willingness to compliment the athletes for their performance and contribution. The Situational Consideration behaviors includes proper coaching behaviors aimed at considering the situational factors (i.e. time, individual, environment, team, and game), setting up individual goals and clarifying ways to reach the goals, differentiating coaching methods at different stages, and assigning an athlete to the right game position. Respondents usually complete the RLSS by using a five point Likert scale, which signifies "always", "often", "occasionally", "seldom", and "never", but a seven point Likert scale was utilized in the present study to allow for the use of a standard seven point response for all survey instruments.

### 3.3.2 Athlete Satisfaction Questionnaire

Riemer & Chelladurai, (1998), developed Athlete Satisfaction Questionnaire measure the facets of satisfaction identified previously by Chelladurai and Riemer (1997). The Athlete Satisfaction Questionnaire (ASQ) is a 56- item questionnaire that contains 15 dimensions of athlete satisfaction. These subscales include 1.) individual performance 2.) team performance 3.) ability utilization 4.) strategy 5.) personal treatment 6.) training and instruction, 7.) team task

contribution 8.) team social contribution 9.) ethics 10.) team integration 11.) personal dedication, 12.) budget 13.) medical personnel 14.) academic support services 15.) external agents. Respondents complete the ASQ by using a seven point Likert scale.

The format of this questionnaire allows researchers to include those dimensions of satisfaction most salient for a particular situation (Rierner & Chelladurai, 1998; Rierner & Toon, 2001). For this study, satisfaction was assessed using six of the ASQ's 15 subscales. Rierner and Chelladurai (1998) reported internal consistency estimates (Cronbach's alpha) ranging from .78 to .95 (mean = .88). Rierner and Chelladurai also provided initial evidence of construct validity for the ASQ by using confirmatory factor analyses and the item-to-total correlations to confirm the construct validity of the scale. Correlations between the ASQ (Rierner & Chelladurai, 1998) subscales and the subscales measuring the constructs of "Desire to Quit" and "Team Commitment" (Chelladurai & Rierner, 1997) and the Negative Affective Scale (Levin & Stockes, 1989) provide evidence for the criterion-related validity. The questionnaire can found at the indices. For this study the researcher only used the six subscales of fifteen of athletes' satisfaction including: 1.) individual performance 2.) team performance 3.) team integration 4. strategy 5.) personal treatment 6.) training and instruction, for the reason that the six subscale conceptualize coaching behavior (Chelladurai & Rierner, 1997).

### ***3.4 Research Procedure***

To fulfill the research objectives in identifying the demographic factors, athlete's satisfaction and whether relationships were observed among them, the following steps were observed in conducting this research is shown in Figure 3.1.

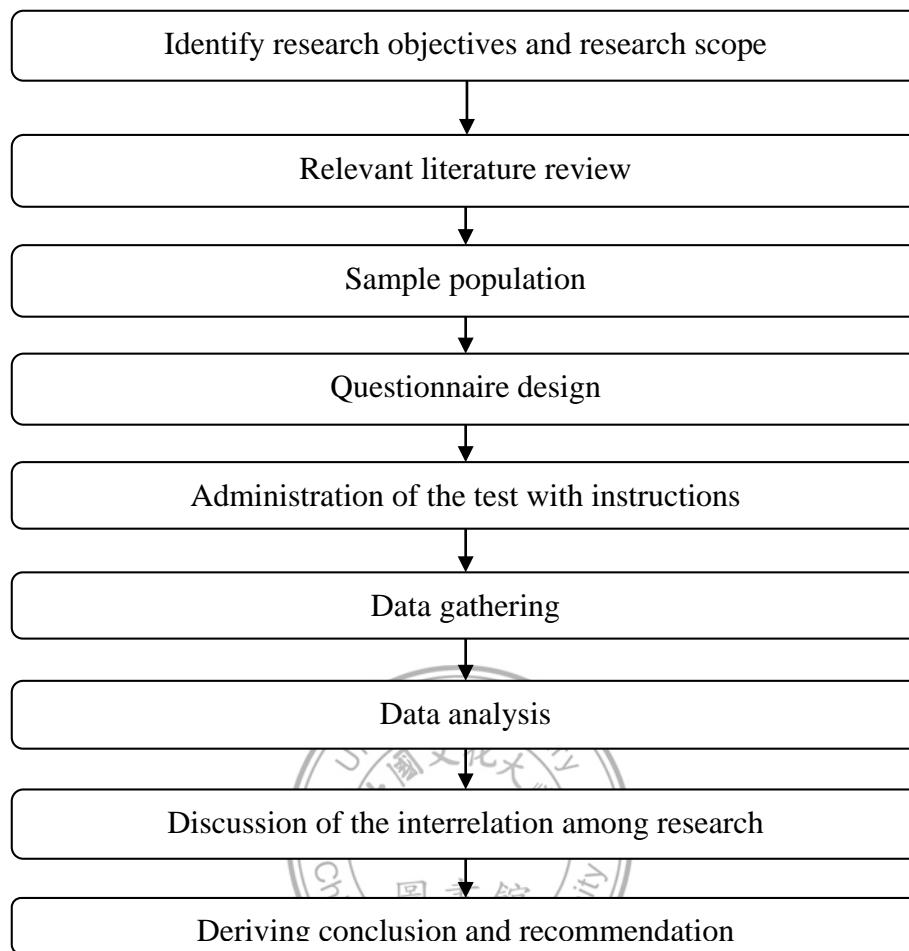


Figure 3-1 Research flow

### ***3.5 Data Analysis***

The data collected in this study was analyzed and treated by using the following statistical techniques:

In determining the preferences of athletes in coaches' leadership behavior and athletes' satisfaction, the descriptive statistical analysis was used to illustrate the means and standard deviation of each variable.

The study employed multiple regression analyses as a main analytical tool. Regression Analyses were utilized to determine the relationship of coaching leadership behavior on athlete's

satisfaction. The coaching leadership behaviors were set as the independent variables while the athlete satisfaction as dependent variable. In additional, in determining whether significant differences exist in the athletes' satisfaction of the respondents according to the demographic factors, the Factorial Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used. SPSS 18.0 software was used in the analysis.



## CHAPTER IV

### RESULTS

In this chapter, the results and findings of the study are discussed. Tabular forms are clearly present the observed and analyzed data. Discussions of the tables were all made to discuss the figure.

#### 4.1 Demographic Profile

Table 1 Respondents' Profile

Profile	Description	Percentage (%)
Gender	Male	52
	Female	48
Age	15-19	33
	20-24	38
	25-29	16
	30-35	7
	36 above	6
Year Level	Freshmen	12
	Sophomore	25
	Juniors	19
	Seniors	44
Type of Sports	Individual	68
	Team Sports	32
Athlete Classification	Student Athlete	56
	National Athlete	44
Playing Experience	3- Below	8
	3-5	15
	6-10	38
	11-15	23
	16- Above	16

Table 1 shows the respondent's profile according to demographic factors including age, gender, year level, types of sports, athlete classification and playing experience. It can be observed that the majority of respondents belong to age group of 15 to 24. This is because the respondents are from college or university level. Also, most of them are on their senior level and engaged to individual sports types of sports. Lastly, most of the respondents have long years of playing experience which implied that they have been involved in sports even during their early years.

#### 4.2 Descriptive Statistics of Coaching Leadership Style

Table 2 Result of Coaching Leadership Style Preferred

	Mean	Std. Deviation
Training and Instruction	4.43	.46
Situational Consideration	4.39	.44
Positive Feedback	4.37	.40
Social Support	4.20	.48
Democratic Behavior	4.18	.52
Autocratic Behavior	3.77	.76

Table 2 Indicates that the athletes preferred training and instruction with the highest mean score (M= 4.43, SD = .46) followed by situational consideration (M = 4.39, SD = .44), positive feedback coaching behavior (M= 4.37, SD = .40), social support (M = 4.20, SD = .48), democratic coaching behavior (M = 4.18, SD =.52) and autocratic (M = 3.77, SD = .76).

## 4.2 Descriptive Statistics of Athletes Satisfaction

Table 3 Results of Athletes Satisfaction

	Mean	Std. Deviation
Team Integration	5.93	.86
Personal Dedication	5.91	.85
Ability Utilization	5.84	.87
Individual Performance	5.84	.92
Strategy	5.83	.86
Ethics	5.82	.85
Team Social Contribution	5.76	.96
Team Task Contribution	5.78	.95
Personal Treatment	5.78	.99
Training and Instruction	5.77	.89
Team Performance	5.74	1.00
Medical Personnel	5.50	1.08
Academic Support	5.47	1.06
External Agent	5.29	1.05
Budget	5.16	1.25

Table 3 shows that Team Integration ( $M = 5.93$ ,  $SD = .86$ ) was the subscale with the highest score in athletes satisfaction followed by personal dedication ( $M = 5.91$ ,  $SD = .85$ ), ability utilization ( $M = 5.84$ ,  $SD = .87$ ), individual performance ( $M = 5.84$ ,  $SD = .92$ ), Strategy ( $M = 5.83$ ,  $SD = .86$ ), ethics ( $M = 5.82$ ,  $SD = .85$ ), team social contribution ( $M = 5.76$ ,  $SD = .96$ ), team task contribution ( $M = 5.78$ ,  $SD = .95$ ), personal treatment ( $M = 5.78$ ,  $SD = .99$ ), Training and Instruction ( $M = 5.77$ ,  $SD = .89$ ), Team Performance ( $M = 5.74$ ,  $SD = 1.00$ ), Medical Personnel, ( $M = 5.50$ ,  $SD = 1.08$ ), Academic Support ( $M = 5.47$ ,  $SD = 1.06$ ) and external agent ( $M = 5.29$ ,  $SD = 1.05$ ) and ( $M = 5.16$ ,  $SD = 1.25$ ).

#### 4.4 Multiple Regression Analysis

What are the coaching leadership styles that are considered as predictors to athletes' satisfaction? To determine this, a multiple regression was performed between the dependent variables (Athlete Satisfaction) and independent variables (Coaching leadership behavior).

As show in Table 4 Multiple regression analysis was used to test the coaching leadership style (democratic behavior, situational consideration, positive feedback, training and instruction, social support, autocratic behavior) to predict athlete satisfaction (individual performance, team performance, personal treatment, team integration, strategy and training instruction). All six predictors variable were entered into the regression analysis for each subscale of athletes' satisfaction.

Table 5 Summary of Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Individual Performance



Variable	<i>B coefficient</i>	<i>SE b</i>	<i>β coefficient</i>
Training and Instruction	.039	.343	.043
Autocratic Behavior	.136	.135	.112
Positive Feedback	-0.36	.400	-.015
Social Support	-.465	.279	-.244
Democratic Behavior	.739	.296	.417**
Situational Consideration	.487	.421	.230

\*\* p < .01

According to the result of regression analysis, it was found that among the six coaching leadership style, democratic behavior was the only significant predictor for individual performance satisfaction ( $\beta=0.417$ ,  $p<.01$ ). The other five predictors (situational consideration,



autocratic behavior, training and instruction, social support and positive feedback) failed to add significant accounted variance of athletes' individual performance satisfaction.

Table 6 Summary of Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Team Performance

Satisfaction			
Variable	<i>B coefficient</i>	<i>SE b</i>	<i>β coefficient</i>
Training and Instruction	-.726	.384	-.351
Autocratic Behavior	.169	.151	.128
Positive Feedback	.182	.448	.072
Social Support	-.085	.312	-.041
Democratic Behavior	.6320	.331	.322
Situational Consideration	.716	.471	.311

According to the result of regression analysis, there are no statistical significant predictors for team performance satisfaction.

Table 7 Summary of Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Strategy Satisfaction

Variable	<i>B coefficient</i>	<i>SE b</i>	<i>β coefficient</i>
Training and Instruction	-.130	.314	-.074
Autocratic Behavior	.201	.124	.177
Positive Feedback	.225	.366	-.104
Social Support	-.110	.255	-.062
Democratic Behavior	.494	.271	.301

Situational Consideration	.716	.385	.365
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According to the result of regression analysis, there are no statistical significant predictors for strategy satisfaction.

Table 8 Summary of Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Personal Treatment

Satisfaction			
Variable	<i>B coefficient</i>	<i>SE b</i>	<i>β coefficient</i>
Training and Instruction	-.126	.352	-.062
Autocratic Behavior	.174	.138	.133
Positive Feedback	-.212	.410	-.085
Social Support	-.043	.286	-.021
Democratic Behavior	.236	.303	.125
Situational Consideration	1.238	.431	.548***

\*\*\* p < .001

According to the result of regression analysis, it was found that among the six coaching leadership behavior style, situational consideration was the only significant predictor for personal treatment satisfaction ( $\beta=0.548$ ,  $p<.001$ ). The other five predictors (democratic behavior, autocratic behavior, training and instruction, social support and positive feedback) failed to add significant accounted variance of athletes' personal treatment satisfaction.

Table 9 Summary of Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Training and Instruction

Satisfaction

Variable	<i>B coefficient</i>	<i>SE b</i>	<i>β coefficient</i>
Training and Instruction	-.236	.336	-.129
Autocratic Behavior	.230	.132	.197
Positive Feedback	-.176	.391	.079
Social Support	-.053	.273	-.029
Democratic Behavior	.145	.289	.086
Situational Consideration	.640	.412	.316

According to the result of regression analysis, there are no statistical significant predictors for training and instruction satisfaction.

Table 10 Summary of Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Team Integration

Satisfaction

Variable	<i>B coefficient</i>	<i>SE b</i>	<i>β coefficient</i>
Training and Instruction	-.285	.311	-.161
Autocratic Behavior	.084	.122	.074
Positive Feedback	.517	.362	.239
Social Support	-.140	.252	-.079
Democratic Behavior	.277	.268	.168
Situational Consideration	.690	.382	.351

According to the result of regression analysis, there are no statistical significant predictors for team integration satisfaction.

Table 11 Summary of Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Overall Athlete Satisfaction

Variables	<i>B coefficient</i>	<i>SE b</i>	<i>β coefficient</i>
Training and Instruction	-1.226	1.542	-.139
Autocratic Behavior	.924	.606	.164
Positive Feedback	-.030	1.796	-.003
Social Support	-.674	1.253	-.076
Democratic Behavior	2.280	1.329	.278
Situational Consideration	3.913	1.890	.400*

\*  $p < .05$

According to the result of regression analysis, it was found out that among the six coaching leadership behavior style, situational consideration coaching style was the only significant predictor for overall satisfaction ( $\beta=0.400$ ,  $p<.05$ ). The other five predictors (training and instruction, democratic behavior, autocratic behavior, social support and positive feedback) failed to add significant accounted variance of athletes' overall satisfaction.

Table 12 ANOVA Computation for Differences in Demographic Factors and Athlete Satisfaction of Respondents

	Mean Square	F value	P value
Age	57.525	3.335	.023
Gender	21.072	1.222	.278
Year Level	27.601	1.600	.211
Types of Sports	16.524	.958	.336

Athletes Classification	17.768	1.030	.318
Playing Experience	14.953	.867	.495

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The above table shows that only age (p value 0.023) was significant to athletes' satisfaction. Result of post hoc revealed that the age group five (36 and above) is significantly higher in satisfaction followed by age group three (25 to 29), age group four 30 to 35 and the lowest satisfaction observe at the age group one (15 to 19) and two (20 to 24). The significant differences were not observed in terms of gender (p value 0.278), year level (p value 0.211), types of sports (p value 0.336), athletes' classification (p value 0.318) and athlete classification (p value 0.495).



## CHAPTER V

### DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The purpose of this study was to determine the preferences of athletes to their coaches' coaching leadership style, to find out the athletes' satisfaction, to investigate the differences in athletes' satisfaction among the different demographic factors, and lastly, to examine the significant relationship between coaching leadership style and athlete satisfaction.

Based on the result showed on descriptive statistics, the training and instruction was the subscale with the highest score followed by situational consideration, positive feedback, social support, democratic behavior and autocratic behavior. The study by Asiah Mod Pilus and Rosli Saadan (2009), which showed that the athletes preferred training and instruction leadership styles in universities hockey team. Coaches have different coaching leadership styles, and when players are not satisfied with the coaching style, problems with team unity may arise and athletes may quit the team (McClain, 2005; Wilson, 2007). Coaching style might be the key to keep the sports team in harmony.

The current study also showed that there is a significant relationship on athlete satisfaction especially with the democratic behavior and situational consideration coaching leadership style, although the study by Horne & Carron (1985); Sherman et.al (2000) and Ramzaninezhad & Keshtan (2009) showed that the variables predicting athlete satisfaction are positive feedback, training and instruction and social support. The result of the current study was partially supported by Asiah Mod Pilus and Rosli Saadan (2009) and Peng (1997) who found that there is a significant relationship on coaching leadership styles on democratic and positive feedback and athletes' satisfaction.

The results of the study by Echas and Krane (1993) revealed that there is significant relationship between coach's leadership styles on athlete satisfaction and team success. The coaches of successful teams exhibited higher levels of democratic and social support behaviors and lower level of autocratic behavior. Studies done by Pease and Kozub (1994); Alfremam (2005); Fathi (2005); Dexter (2002); Wester & Weiss (1991); Moradi (2004); Range (2002); Moradi (2004); Bennet and Manuel (2000) found that coaches place more emphasis on training and instruction while expressing a lower preference for autocratic behavior. When the preferred coaching style is utilized player are more apt to respond with higher levels of performance, (Howard, 2005) effective coaching style is related to wining.

Schliesman (1987) analyzed collegiate track and field athletes and found perceived democratic behavior and social support to be positively related to general satisfaction with leadership. The study of Horne and Carron (1985) Sherman et.al (2000) and Ramzaninezhad & Keshtan (2009) showed that the variables predicting athlete satisfaction were discrepancy between athlete perceptions and preferences for positive feedback, training and instruction, and social support. Jacob (2006) expressed that an effective coaching style is related to winning. Asiah and Rosli (2008) stated the athlete in sports teams are satisfied with their teammates sense of fair play, sportsmanlike behavior, teamwork and shared the same goals. The coach, being the center of the team, a leader and teacher, must find a way to manage the team and maintain unity.

The results of this study regarding athletes' satisfaction and demographic factors show that there is a significance difference on athletes' satisfaction in terms of age (p value of .023). The significant differences were not observed in terms of gender, year level, types of sports, athletes' classification and playing experience. In terms of age, it can be an indication that athletes of varying age groups significantly differ in athletes' satisfaction. This may be attributed

to the different developmental milestones that athletes are experiencing. As explained by Erikson's (1993), athletes in the early adulthood stages are confronted with issues that are much different from those athletes in the middle age and old age stages.

The findings of this study suggest that the coaches should provide democratic behavior and situational consideration and allow athletes to participate in the formulation of team goals, practice methods, and game strategies in order to increase the levels of satisfaction and decrease quitting among athletes. The role of the coach is important to the success of the team (Jacob, 2006; McClain, 2005). The results of this study also indicate that the coach plays an important role in influencing the athlete psychological, physical and social dimension on sports life of athletes.

## RECOMENDATIONS

With these results, the researcher recommends the following measures to be done in order to further the purposes of this study.

- A. **Inclusion of more respondents.** Since the present study only made use of one hundred respondents, it is recommended that more respondents should be included in future studies which may provide more valuable results
- B. **Use of demographic factors.** The study focused on the coaching leadership. Future studies can delve into other factors like age, gender, individual characteristics, societal factors such as religion, technology, and government roles/interventions can be analyzed to determine their influences on athletes' satisfaction.



C. **Development of programs and services for athletes.** Results of this study can be a springboard for the development of programs and services of Sports Department in colleges and universities. Results can also be used for counseling purposes.



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## APPENDICES

### Questionnaire

Dear Respondent:

The following survey questionnaire is to investigate **The Relationship Coaching Leadership and Athletes Satisfaction**. We sincerely invite you to spend a few minutes to complete the questionnaire and return to us at your earliest convenience. No personal information will be made public. Please answer with confidence and take your time to fill out this questionnaire as accurately as possible. Your help is crucial to this research. We deeply appreciate your kind cooperation.

Thank you,

Truly Yours,



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Dr. Andy Li-An Ho

Assistant Professor

Department of Physical Education

& Graduate Institute of Sport

Coaching Science

Chinese Culture University-Taiwan

-----  
Gustl B. Pido

Graduate Student

Department of Sports Coaching Science

Chinese Culture University-Taiwan

Before you will answer this questionnaire, we would like to sincerely appreciate your time and efforts to answer the following questions. Your answer will be treated in strict confidential. For our information would you please indicate the following questions.

**Personal Information**

**Name:** \_\_\_\_\_ (optional)

**Gender**             Male             Female

**Age**                 15-19             20-24             25-29             30-35             36 above

**Year Level**         Freshman     Sophomore     Junior             Senior

**Type of Sports**             Individual             Team Sports

**Athlete Classification**     Student Athletes     National Athletes

**Playing Experiences**       3-below     3-5     6-10     11-15     16- above





REVISED LEADERSHIP SCALE FOR SPORT  
(Zhang, Jensen, & Mann, 1995)

(ATHLETES' PREFERENCE VERSION)

Directions: Each of the following statements describes a specific behavior that a coach may exhibit. For each statement there are five alternative answers, as follows: 5 means 'always' (100% of the time); 4 means 'often' (75% of the time); 3 means 'occasionally' (50% of the time); 2 means 'seldom' (25% of the time); and 1 means 'never' (0% of the time). Please indicate your preference by circling the appropriate space. Answer all items even if you are unsure of a response. For athlete's preference version, 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 rights or wrong answers. Your spontaneous and honest response is important for the success of this evaluation.



- Example: I prefer my coach to like each athlete on the team. 1 2 3 4 5
- I prefer my coach to/ my coach:
1. Coach to the level of the athletes. 1 2 3 4 5
  2. Encourage close and informal relationship with the athletes. 1 2 3 4 5
  3. Make complex things easier to understand and team. 1 2 3 4 5
  4. Put the suggestions made by the team members into operation. 1 2 3 4 5
  5. Set goals that are compatible with the athletes' ability. 1 2 3 4 5
  6. Disregard athletes' fears and dissatisfactions. 1 2 3 4 5
  7. Ask for the opinion of the athletes on strategies for specific competition. 1 2 3 4 5

- |  |   |   |   |   |   |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 8. Clarify goals and the paths to reach the goals for the athletes.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9. Encourage the athletes to make suggestions for ways to conduct practices.                                     | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10. Adapt coaching style to suit the situation.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 11. Use alternative methods when the efforts of the athletes are not working well in practice or in competition. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12. Pay special attention to correcting athletes' mistakes.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 13. Let the athletes try their own way even if they make mistakes.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 14. See the merits of athletes' ideas when differ from the coach's.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 15. Show 'O.K. 'or' Thumbs Up' gesture to the athletes.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 16. Remain sensitive to the needs of the athletes.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 17. Stay interested in the personal well-being of the athletes.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 18. Pat an athlete after a good performance.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 19. Explain to each athlete the techniques and tactics of the sport.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 20. Congratulate an athlete after a good play.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 21. Refuse to compromise on a point.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 22. Use a variety of drills for a practice.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 23. Stress the mastery of greater skills.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 24. Alter plans due to unforeseen events.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 25. Let the athletes set their own goals.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 26. Look out for the personal welfare of the athletes.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 27. Use objective measurements for evaluation.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 28. Plan for the team relatively independent of the athletes.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 29. Tell an athlete when the athlete does a particularly good job.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

- |  |   |   |   |   |   |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 30. Get approval from the athletes on important matters before going ahead.          | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 31. Express appreciation when an athlete performs well.                              | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 32. Put the appropriate athletes in the line-up.                                     | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 33. Encourage the athletes to confide in the coach.                                  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 34. Prescribe the methods to be followed.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 35. Dislike suggestions and opinions from the athletes.                              | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 36. Conduct proper progressions in teaching fundamentals.                            | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 37. Supervise athletes' drills closely.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 38. Clarify training priorities and work on them.                                    | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 39. Possess good knowledge of the sport.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 40. Fail to explain his/her actions.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 41. Encourage an athlete when the athlete makes mistakes in performance.             | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 42. Praise the athletes' good performance after losing a competition.                | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 43. Put an athlete into different positions depending on the needs of the situation. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 44. Assign tasks according to each individual's ability and needs.                   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 45. Recognize individual contributions to the success of each competition.           | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 46. Present ideas forcefully.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 47. Let the athletes decide on plays to be used in a competition.                    | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 48. Perform personal favors for the athletes.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 49. Compliment an athlete for good performance in front of others.                   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 50. Give the athletes freedom to determine the details of conducting a drill.        | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 51. Get input from the athletes at daily team meetings.                              | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 52. Clap hands when an athlete does weft.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

- |  |   |   |   |   |   |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 53. Give credit when it is due.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 54. Help the athletes with their personal problems.                                | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 55. Ask for the opinion of the athletes on important coaching matters.             | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 56. Reward an athlete as long as the athlete tries hard.                           | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 57. Let the athletes share in decision making and policy formulation.              | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 58. Visit with the parents/guardians of the athletes.                              | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 59. Keep aloof from the athletes.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 60. Increase complexity and demands if the athletes find the demands are too easy. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |



Athlete Satisfaction Questionnaire (ASQ)

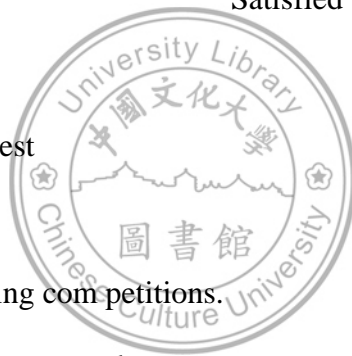
Harold A. Riemer, Ph.D.

Department of Kinesiology & Health Education

The University of Texas at Austin

In this section, please indicate how satisfied you are with each of the following aspects of your sport.

I am satisfied with:	Not at all	Moderately	Extremely
	Satisfied	Satisfied	Satisfied
1. How the team works to be the best	1	2	3 4 5 6 7
2. My social status on the team.	1	2	3 4 5 6 7
3. The coach's choice of plays during competitions.	1	2	3 4 5 6 7
4. The competence of the medical personnel.	1	2	3 4 5 6 7
5. The degree to which I do my best for the team	1	2	3 4 5 6 7
6. The degree to which I have reached my performance goals during the season.	1	2	3 4 5 6 7
7. The degree to which my abilities are used.	1	2	3 4 5 6 7
8. The extent to which all team members are ethical.	1	2	3 4 5 6 7
9. The extent to which teammates provide me with instruction.	1	2	3 4 5 6 7
10. The funding provided to my team.	1	2	3 4 5 6 7
11. The media's support of our program.	1	2	3 4 5 6 7



- |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 12. The recognition I receive from my coach.                          | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 13. The team win/loss record this season.                             | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 14. The training I receive from the coach during the season.          | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 15. The tutoring I receive.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 16. My dedication during practices.                                   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 17. My team mates' sense of fair play.                                | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 18. The academic support services provided.                           | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 19. The amount of money spent on my team.                             | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 20. The degree to which teammates share the same goal.                | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 21. The fairness with which the medical personnel treats all players. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 22. The friendliness of the coach towards me.                         | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 23. The guidance I receive from my team mates.                        | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 24. The improvement in my performance over.                           | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 25. The instruction I have received from the coach this season.       | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 26. The level to which my talents are employed.                       | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 27. The role I play in the social life of the team.                   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 28. The support from university community.                            | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 29. The tactics used during games.                                    | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 30. The team's overall the performance this season.                   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 31. Coach's choice of strategies during games.                        | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 32. My enthusiasm during competition.                                 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 33. My teammates' sportsman like' behavior.                           | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 34. Team member's dedication to work together toward team goals.      | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

- |  |   |   |   |   |   |   |   |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 35. The coach's teaching of the tactics and techniques of my position.           | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 36. The constructive feedback I receive from my team mates.                      | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 37. The degree to which my team mates accept me on a social level.               | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 38. The extent to which my role matches my potential.                            | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 39. The extent to which the team is meeting its goals for the season.            | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 40. The fairness of the team's budget.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 41. The improvement in my skill level.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 42. The level of appreciation my coach shows when I do well.                     | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 43. The medical personnel's interest in the athletes.                            | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 44. The personnel of the academic support services<br>(i.e., tutors counselors). | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 45. The supportiveness of the fans.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 46. How the coach made adjustments during competitions.                          | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 47. My coach's loyalty towards me.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 48. My commitment to the team.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 49. The amount of time I play during competitions.                               | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 50. The extent to which the team mates play as a team.                           | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 51. The local community's support.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 52. The promptness of medical attention.   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 53. Coach's game plans.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 54. The degree to which my role on the team matches my preferred role.           | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 55. The extent to which the coach is behind me.                                  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 56. The manner in which coach combines the available talent.                     | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |



## Scoring Key for the **Athlete Satisfaction Questionnaire:**

**INDIVIDUAL PERFORMANCE** - this subscale seeks to measure an individual's satisfaction with his-her own task performance. Task performance includes absolute, performance, improvement in performance and goal achievement.

ITEMS: 6. 24 and 41.

**TEAM PERFORMANCE** - This facet refers to an individual's satisfaction with his/her team's level of performance. Task performance includes absolute performance, goal achievement, and implies performance improvement.

ITEMS: 13. 30 and 39.

**ABILITY UTILIZATION** - Satisfaction with how the coach uses and 'or maximizes the individual athlete's talent and/or abilities.

ITEMS: 7. 26. 38. 49 and 54.

**STRATEGY** - Satisfaction with the strategy and tactical decision made by the coach.

ITEMS: 3. 29. 31.46. 53 and 56.

**PERSONAL TREATMENT** - Satisfaction with those coaching behaviors which directly affect the individual, yet indirectly affect team development. It includes social support and positive feedback.

ITEMS: 12. 22. 42. 47 and 55

**TRAINING AND INSTRUCTION** - Satisfaction with the training and instruction provided by the coach.

ITEMS: 14. 25 and 35





TEAM TASK CONTRIBUTION - Satisfaction with those actions by which the group serves as a substitute for leadership for the athlete.

ITEMS: 9. 23 and 36

TEAM SOCIAL CONTRIBUTION - Satisfaction with how team mates contribute to the athletes as a person.

ITEMS: 2. 27 and 37

ETHICS - Satisfaction with the ethical positions of team mates.

ITEMS: 8. 17 and 33

TEAM INTEGRATION - This facet refers to the athlete's satisfaction with member's contribution and coordination of their efforts toward team's task.

ITEMS: 1. 20. 34 and 50

PERSONAL DEDICATION - Athlete's satisfaction with his/her own contribution to the team.

ITEMS: 5. 16. 32 and 48

BUDGET - Satisfaction with the amount of money provided to the team by the athletic department.

ITEMS: 10. 19 and 40

MEDICAL PERSONNEL - Satisfaction with team's medical personnel.

ITEMS: 4. 21 .43 and 52.

Academic support- Satisfaction with the academic support services provide to the athletes

Item: 15. 18 and 44

External Agents- Satisfaction with those agents/elements outside the organization that may contribute to the team

Item: 11. 28. 45 and 51



Scoring Key for Revised Leadership Scale for Sports (Zhang, Jensen & Mann, 1995)

<i>Training and Instruction</i>	<i>Democratic Behavior</i>	<i>Social Support</i>
3	4	2
12	7	16
19	9	17
22	13	26
23	14	33
27	25	48
36	30	54
37	47	58
38	50	
39	51	
	55	
	57	

<i>Positive Feedback</i>	<i>Situational Consideration</i>	<i>Autocratic Behavior</i>
15	1	6
18	5	21
20	8	28
29	10	34
31	11	35
41	24	40
42	32	46
45	43	59
49	44	
52	60	
53		
56		

