

AN EXAMINATION OF DIVISION LEVEL AND PLAYER POSITION ON THE
PREFERRED LEADERSHIP BEHAVIORS OF NCAA MEN'S SOCCER ATHLETES

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ABSTRACT

BLAKE S. GRIFFIN: An Examination of Division Level and Player Position on the Preferred Leadership Behaviors of NCAA Men's Soccer Athletes
(Under the direction of Barbara Osborne)

This study examined the preferred leadership behaviors of NCAA men's soccer athletes based on the Multidimensional Model of Leadership. The purpose of this study was to determine and explore the differences in NCAA men's intercollegiate soccer players' preferences for leadership behavior based on division level and player position. The Multidimensional Model of Leadership was used as the conceptual framework in order to measure player preference through the Leadership Scale for Sports. The five leadership behaviors measured were: Training and Instruction, Democratic Behavior, Autocratic Behavior, Social Support, and Positive Feedback. A 3x4 totally between subjects ANOVA was conducted to assess differences in player preferences according to division level and player position. Results indicated that there were no significant differences in preferred leadership behaviors of NCAA men's soccer athletes according to their division level or playing position.

DEDICATION

To my parents, William C. Griffin and Diane S. Griffin for their love and support of me throughout this project and throughout my entire life, I love you both more than you can imagine. To my brother, Evans T. Griffin, who I will always look up to, thank you. To Courtney A. Wirth, for her support and encouragement over the past four years and throughout this project, you are my rock.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
LIST OF FIGURES.....	viii
LIST OF TABLES.....	ix
Chapter	
I. INTRODUCTION.....	1
Introduction.....	1
Purpose of the Study.....	3
Research questions.....	3
Definition of terms.....	4
Assumptions.....	7
Limitations.....	8
Delimitations.....	8
Significance of study.....	9
II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE.....	10
Introduction.....	10
The MDML and its Theoretical Foundations.....	11
Research on the MDML.....	16
MDML Research on the Consequences of Leadership.....	17
MDML Research on Factors Affecting Preferred Leadership.....	21

Summary.....	29
III. METHODOLOGY.....	30
Introduction.....	30
Subjects.....	30
Instrument.....	31
Procedures.....	32
Data analysis.....	33
IV. RESULTS.....	35
Descriptive Statistics.....	36
Division x Position Totally Between Subjects ANOVA.....	43
V. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS.....	45
Summary.....	45
Discussion	45
Conclusions.....	49
Recommendations for Future Research.....	50
APPENDICES.....	52
REFERENCES.....	56

LIST OF TABLES

Tables	Page
1. Means and standard deviation for Training and Instruction.....	38
2. Means and standard deviation for Democratic Behavior.....	39
3. Means and standard deviation for Autocratic Behavior.....	40
4. Means and standard deviation for Social Support.....	41
5. Means and standard deviation for Positive Feedback.....	42
6. Analysis of Variance: Preferred Leadership Dimensions for Division and Position	44

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Page
1. Multidimensional Model of Leadership.....	14
2. Model of Leadership extrapolated from the MDML and utilized for this study.....	15

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Soccer is the most popular game in the world, and as such has been the topic of a vast library of research. Scientific studies have been performed on almost every facet of the game and across every level of play (Reilly & Williams, 2003; Spinks, Reilly, & Murphy, 2001). However, despite the fact that soccer coaches hold one of the most valuable roles within the team, the complex process of coaching soccer is not always fully understood, even by coaches (Borrie & Knowles, 2001 [in Reilly & Williams 2003]). Coaches may serve a number of different roles and must perform a variety of tasks in order to facilitate team and individual goals (Martin, 1985; Borrie & Knowles, 2003). One of the most fundamental roles a coach, in any sport, takes on is the role of leader. By its very nature, the position of the coach is a position of leadership.

The concept of leadership has been studied in numerous contexts using multiple theories. In the athletic context, Chelladurai's (1978) multidimensional model of leadership (MDML) has been used widely to study leadership as it applies to the many aspects of sport. The MDML operates on the premise that athletic performance and team member satisfaction are a function of the congruence of required, actual, and preferred leader behaviors. In essence, the model rests on the assumption that for the fundamental goals of athletic performance and athlete satisfaction to be optimized the behaviors

required of the leader, the leader's actual (or perceived) behaviors, and the leader behaviors preferred by the athletes should be the same. Inconsistent behaviors would, therefore, lead to various suboptimal levels of performance and satisfaction. Additionally, the MDML posits that the antecedents of the three leadership behaviors (required, actual, and preferred) are comprised of situational characteristics, leader characteristics, and member characteristics (Chelladurai, 1990).

At its core, the MDML can be viewed as being a theoretical framework for studying variables associated with the age-old athletic adage of a team and its coach being on the same page (Burtrand, 2000). Over the years, that phrase has been used to describe either the presence or absence of congruity in team sports. In order for a team or an individual to perform to their potential, athletes must be *on the same page* as other athletes, coaches must be *on the same page* as other coaches, and athletes and coaches must be *on the same page* as each other. This is especially true, as the MDML hypothesizes, in terms of athletes and coaches being on the same page in terms of leadership.

The need for coaches and athletes to be on the same page in soccer is vital. Understanding their athletes' preferences for leadership behavior is a key component of being an effective coach and understanding how to properly motivate, manage, and interact with players. While significant differences have been found in preferred leadership behaviors of student-athletes based on gender and type of sport played, the results have been conflicting and somewhat inconclusive (Beam et al, 2004). Additionally, few studies have investigated the differences in preferred leadership within teams based on positions and across competition levels in a single sport. While soccer

research has studied the different physical (Bloomfield, 2007), physiological (Vescovi, Brown, & Murray, 2006; Gil et al, 2007), and psychological (Reeves, 1983) differences of soccer players per their positions, few (Cakioglu, 2003) have addressed the preferences for leadership among soccer players.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to determine and explore the differences in NCAA men's intercollegiate soccer players' preferences for leadership behavior based on division level and player position. The MDML was used as the conceptual framework in order to measure player preference through the Leadership Scale for Sports (LSS).

Research Questions

This study will be guided by the following questions:

1. Do NCAA Division I, II, and III men's soccer players express significantly different preferences for leadership behaviors?
 - a. Null Hypothesis: There is no difference in preferred leadership across division level.
 - b. Alternate Hypothesis: There are differences in preferred leadership across divisions level.
2. Do NCAA men's soccer players express significantly different preferences for leadership behaviors based on the player's designation within the team as forward, mid-field, defender, or goalie?
 - a. Null Hypothesis: There are no differences in preferred leadership among NCAA men's soccer players according to position (forward, mid-field, defender, goalie).

- b. Alternate Hypothesis: There are differences in preferred leadership among NCAA men's soccer players according to position (forward, mid-field, defender, goalie).
3. For each position, are there differences in preferred leadership behaviors depending on division level?
 - a. Null Hypothesis: For each position, there are no differences in preferred leadership behaviors according to division level.
 - b. Alternate Hypothesis: For each position, there are differences in preferred leadership behaviors according to division level.
4. For each division level, are there differences in preferred leadership behaviors according to position of play?
 - a. Null Hypothesis: For each division level, there are no differences in preferred leadership behaviors dependent on player position.
 - b. Alternate Hypothesis: For each division level, there are differences in preferred leadership behaviors dependent on player position.

Definition of Terms

1. Autocratic Behavior (AB) – Coaching behavior that involves independent decision-making and stresses personal authority (Chelladurai, 2007).
2. Democratic Behavior (DB) – Coaching behavior that allows greater participation by the athletes in decisions pertaining to group goals, practice methods, and game tactics and strategies (Chelladurai, 2007).
3. Positive Feedback Behavior (PF) – Coaching behavior that reinforces an athlete by recognizing and rewarding good performance (Chelladurai, 2007).

4. Social Support Behavior (SS) – Coaching behavior characterized by a concern for the welfare of individual athletes, positive group atmosphere, and warm interpersonal relations with members (Chelladurai, 2007).
5. Training and Instruction Behavior (TI) – Coaching behavior aimed at improving athletes’ performance by emphasizing and facilitating hard and strenuous training; instructing them in the skills, techniques, and tactics of the sport; clarifying the relationship among the members; and structuring and coordinating the members’ activities (Chelladurai, 2007).
6. National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) – The NCAA is a voluntary organization, through which 1,051 active member colleges and universities govern their athletics programs. The purpose of the NCAA is to govern competition among member institutions in a fair, safe, equitable and sportsmanlike manner, and to integrate intercollegiate athletics into higher education (NCAA, 2009).
7. NCAA Division I – A level of NCAA intercollegiate athletics comprised of institutions sponsoring at least seven male/mixed and seven female sports (or six male/mixed and eight female), including two team sports per gender and not more than two emerging sports. Teams participating in Division I must play the minimum number of contests in each sport against other Division I institutions and at least fifty percent of all additional games against Division I institutions. Division I institutions must also provide a minimum of fifty percent of the maximum scholarships in 14 sports.

8. NCAA Division II - A level of NCAA intercollegiate athletics comprised of institutions sponsoring at least five male/mixed and five female sports, including two team sports per gender or four male/mixed and six female sports with at least two team sports for each gender. Division II institutions must provide a minimum of fifty percent of the maximum scholarship equivalencies in four sports (at least two women's).
9. NCAA Division III - A level of NCAA intercollegiate athletics comprised of institutions sponsoring at least five male and five female sports, including at least three team sports per gender and having one sport per gender per season. Division III institutions do not provide athletic scholarships or financial aid to student-athletes.
10. Leadership – The behavioral process of influencing individuals and groups toward set goals (Barrow, 1977).
11. Multidimensional Model of Leadership (MDML) – A theory of leadership where group performance and member satisfaction are considered to be a function of the congruence among required leader behavior, actual/perceived leader behavior, and preferred leader behavior. Additionally, the antecedents of the three states of leader behaviors are situational, leader, and member characteristics (Chelladurai, 1990).
12. Leadership Scale for Sports (LSS) – A scale developed in conjunction with the multidimensional model of leadership to test the constructs of the model. The scale consists of 40 items representing five dimensions of leader behavior: 1)

- training and instruction, 2) democratic behavior, 3) autocratic behavior, 4) social support, 5) positive feedback/rewarding behavior (Chelladurai, 2007).
13. Forward – A player who begins play closest to the center circle and operates mainly in the opposing team’s defensive third of the field.
 14. Mid-fielder – A player who operates mainly in the middle third of the field between the defenders and forwards.
 15. Defender – A player who operates mainly in the defending third of the field behind the mid-field and forwards.
 16. Goalkeeper – A player positioned directly in front of the goal who is allowed to use his hands within the 18-yard box.
 17. Head College Soccer Coach – The person, by designation, who oversees the complete operations of an intercollegiate soccer program, including, but not limited to, training/teaching/mentoring team members, recruiting prospective student-athletes, caring for the welfare of current team members, developing practice schedules, game day preparation, travel plans, team spokesperson, and university/athletic department liaison (Masur, 2003).
 18. Athlete Satisfaction Questionnaire – A 15-dimension, 56-item questionnaire used to measure the most salient aspects of athletic participation, performance, leadership, the organization, and the athlete (Riemer & Chelladurai, 1998).

Assumptions

1. The participants answered the questionnaire accurately and honestly.
2. Subjects had enough knowledge to understand the items on the questionnaire.
3. All data collected were compiled from all subjects in the same manner.

4. The sample is representative of the entire population of NCAA collegiate male soccer players.
5. It is assumed that head coaches will forward the link to the players' survey to all of the student-athletes on their team.
6. It is assumed that the age of student-athletes will not affect the player's preferences for leadership behaviors.

Limitations

1. Subjects may have misinterpreted the LSS, which could have skewed the data collected.
2. Subjects completing the LSS were volunteers and may not be representative of the entire population.
3. There may be other factors and antecedents that affect player preferences for leader behavior that this study does not account for.
4. Only male soccer players were surveyed: it is possible that female soccer players would have different preferences for leadership behaviors. Gender is a variable that is beyond the scope of this study.
5. Head coaches may not forward the players' survey to all student-athletes on their team.
6. Student-athletes may not be open and honest in answering the survey for fear that the coach would be privy to the information.
7. The passive nature of the data collection may lead to an inferior sample size that could affect the outcome of statistical analysis.

Delimitations

1. Only NCAA men's soccer athletes in Division's I, II, and III were used for the study.
2. The subject pool used for this study only involved players from selected conferences in the Eastern and Southeast United States.

Significance of the Study

Ultimately, only the coach is able to determine his leadership style and the leadership behaviors he will use. However, in order for college soccer coaches to maximize the potential of their teams and their athletes, it may be beneficial for the athletes to be receptive of the coach's behaviors. While a coach may have to use certain leadership behaviors according to the particularities of the situation or the individual, it is important for a soccer coach to understand the preferences of the athletes. A coach should be aware of the coaching preferences of his athletes in order to optimize the athletes' performance and satisfaction. According to Chelladurai and Carron (1978), if a coach adapts his behavior to match the preferences of his athletes, both athlete satisfaction and group performance may be enhanced. Thus, it is crucial for the coach to understand what situational and member characteristics affect the coaching preferences of his athletes. The significance of this study, therefore, is a better understanding of two of those factors, competition level and player position. Understanding of these factors may contribute to a better understanding of how to effectively lead a soccer team to optimal athletic outcomes.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

“People are fascinated with the idea of leadership, and they seek more information on how to become effective leaders.” (Northouse, 2001, pg. 1). Literature abounds on the topic of leadership, and as with many topics scholars have attempted through the course of leadership research to define the term. As Bass and Stodgill write, “there are almost as many different definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept.” (1990, p.11). However, as this study is based on the Multidimensional Model of Leadership (MDML) developed by Packianathan Chelladurai (1978), as discussed below, leadership will be defined as “the behavioral process of influencing individuals and groups toward set goals” (Chelladurai and Saleh, 1980; Barrow, 1977, p. 232).

This study is largely rooted in preferred leadership behavior, therefore, this review of literature will be focused on those studies. Accordingly, this review will begin by briefly summarizing the MDML, which serves as the basis for multiple studies of leadership behavior in the athletic context, and for the research that is the inspiration for the present study. Next, the review of literature will present a focused review of athletic research based on the MDML dealing with the consequences of leadership in order to

elaborate on the versatility of research involving the theory. Finally, the review of literature will present research involving preferred leadership behavior in the athletic context.

Leadership has been researched in great depth over the past century. A multitude of books have researched and presented various leadership theories and their application to multiple societal contexts (Northouse, 2001; Bass and Stodgill, 1990; Yukl, 1998; Hughes, Ginnett, and Curphy, 1999). Drawing from this research scholars and researchers have recounted the evolution of various leadership theories and their applications to the development of the MDML in numerous dissertations, theses, and scholarly studies (Tsai, 2007; McMillin, 1990; Chelladurai and Carron, 1978; Chelladurai, 2007 [in Tenenbaum/Eckland]; Crust and Lawrence, 2006; Chelladurai and Saleh, 1978; Cakioglu, 2003; Santesteban, 2007; Hall, 2008; Andrew, 2004; Lindauer, 2000; Barrow, 1977; Case, 1980, Chelladurai, 1984, Pinckley, 2007; Masur, 2003; Martin, 1985, Weiss and Friedrichs, 1986). Overviews and summaries of the history and evolution of leadership theories have been undertaken by more adept and senior scholars and will not be attempted in this study (Chelladurai, 1990, 1993; Chelladurai and Riemer, 1998; Horn, 2002, 2008; Crust and Lawrence, 2006).

The MDML and its Theoretical Foundations

According to Chelladurai (1984), the MDML is a synthesis of leadership models such as the contingency theory (Fiedler, 1967), the path-goal theory (Evans, 1970; House, 1971; House & Dessler, 1974), and the adaptive-reactive theory (Osborne & Hunt, 1975). One of the main problems that leadership researchers found when attempting to apply general theories of leadership to sports settings was the failure of those theories to

consider the unique characteristics of sports teams (Chelladurai, 1984; Crust and Lawrence, 2006). In response to this problem, Chelladurai developed the MDML in order to provide for a framework for the study of leadership in athletics (Chelladurai, 1984; McMillin, 1990). The MDML accounts for the unique environment of sports and the importance of the coach in enhancing the motivational state of the team and its athletes (McMillin, 1990). Because the motivational state is critical to effective athletic performance and satisfaction, research on leadership in sports contributes to the understanding of performance and satisfaction (McMillin, 1990; Chelladurai and Saleh, 1980).

In the MDML, Chelladurai proposed that there are multiple dimensions to leader behavior and three different facets of leader behavior that must be considered (Beam, Serwatka, and Wilson, 2004). The facets of leader behavior that should be considered are: a) actual (or perceived) leader behavior, b) leader behavior preferred by members, and c) required leader behavior (Chelladurai, 2007). The basic tenet of the MDML is that performance and member satisfaction (or team performance and player satisfaction) are functions of the degree of congruence among the three facets of leader behavior (Chelladurai, 1990, McMillin, 1990). Additionally, Chelladurai (1978, 1990) suggested that various antecedents categorized as situational, leader, and member characteristics may influence the three behaviors. For example, actual (or perceived) leader behavior is directly related to the leader's personal characteristics such as the leader's personality, ability, and experience (Chelladurai, 1990). Additionally, a leader's actual behavior is indirectly related to requirements of a particular situation (or required behavior) such as the goals of an organization and to the preferred behavior of subordinates (Chelladurai,

1990; McMillin, 1990). Preferred leader behaviors are related to the individual characteristics of the group members and the situational characteristics (Chelladurai, 1990). Individual characteristics, such as need for achievement, need for affiliation, cognitive structure, and competence, may affect an individual's preference for leadership behaviors such as coaching and guidance, social support, and feedback (Chelladurai, 1990). Additionally, situational characteristics such as organizational expectations, and in the context of collegiate athletics levels of competition affect leadership behavior preferences of athletes (Beam, Serwatka, and Wilson, 2004). Finally, required leader behavior is related, similarly to a member's preferred leader behavior, to both situational and member characteristics. Therefore, required leader behavior is influenced by both the "parameters of the organization and its environment" (such as the level of competition and type of sport, social norms, cultural values, and government regulations) and member characteristics (such as level of maturity) (Chelladurai, 1990, p. 329).

According to the MDML, the three aspects of leader behavior jointly affect performance and satisfaction. Chelladurai (1978) hypothesized that certain consequences of congruence in leader behaviors would have differing affects on performance and satisfaction. In essence, the congruence of leader behaviors in the MDML results in one of five outcomes of performance and satisfaction. First if the actual, preferred, and required behavior are all congruent, meaning the leader's actual behavior is in line with both a member's preference of leader behavior and their perception of what the behavior is, both performance and satisfaction are enhanced and the outcome may be classified as ideal. Second, if none of the leader behaviors are congruent, neither performance nor satisfaction is enhanced and a chaotic situation ensues. Third, if the leader's actual

behavior is incongruent with the required and preferred leader behaviors, neither performance nor satisfaction is enhanced and the coach is in danger of being removed from his/her position. Fourth, if preferred leader behavior is incongruent with required and actual behaviors, performance would be enhanced at the expense of player satisfaction. Fifth, if required leader behavior is incongruent with actual and preferred leader behaviors, performance would suffer at the hands of improved player satisfaction (Chelladurai and Carron, 1978).

Figure 1. Multidimensional Model of Leadership (Adapted from “Leadership in sports: A review” by P. Chelladurai, in *International Journal of Sport Psychology*, 1990, 21, 328-354).

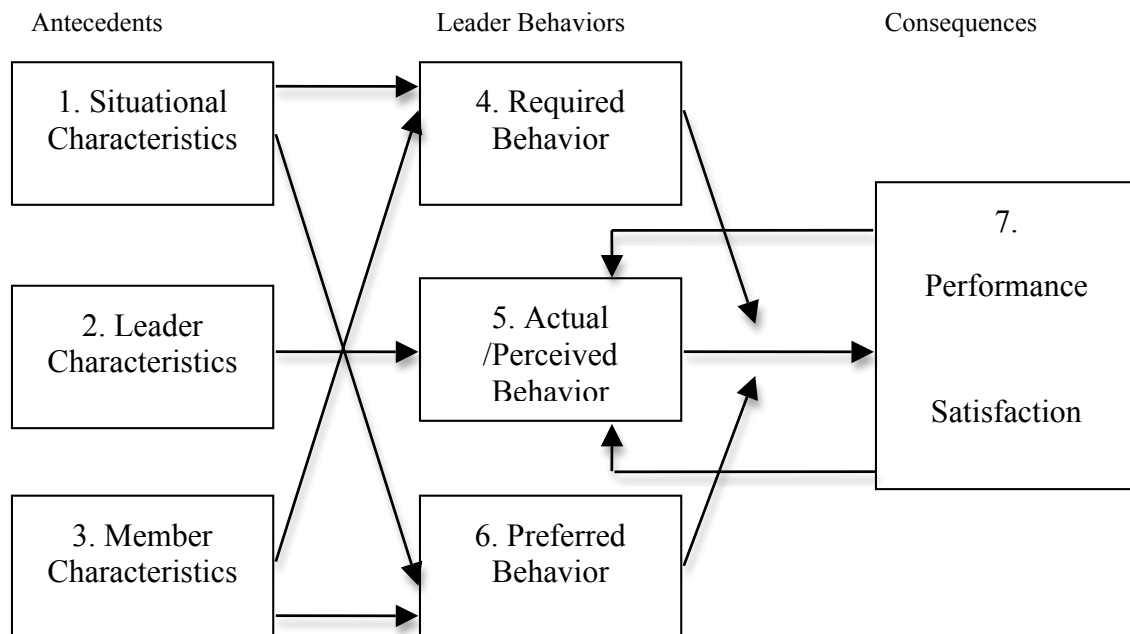
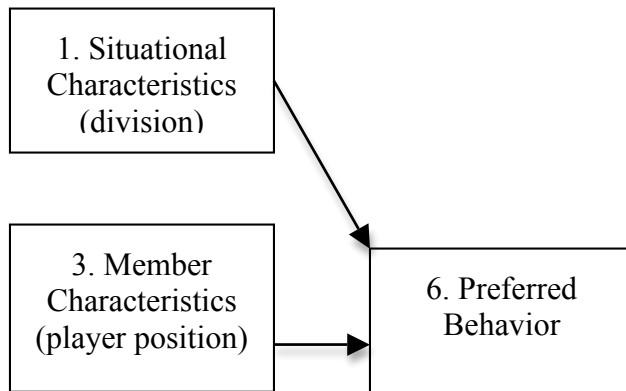


Figure 2. Model of Leadership extrapolated from the MDML and utilized for this study.



In order to test the MDML, Chelladurai and Saleh (1978) developed the Leadership Scale for Sports (LSS). The LSS is a 40-item questionnaire that measures five different dimensions of a coach's leadership style (Chelladurai, 2007; Horn, 2008). These dimensions are autocratic behavior, democratic behavior, training and instruction behavior, positive feedback behavior, and social support behavior (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1978 1980; Chelladurai & Riemer, 1998; Zhang, Jensen, & Mann, 1997) Accordingly, there are three different versions of the LSS. The LSS may be used to measure either 1) the athletes' preferences for specific leader behaviors, 2) the athletes' perceptions of their coach's behavior (used to measure the facet of actual leader behavior), and 3) the coaches' self-evaluation of their own behavior (Chelladurai, 1984, 2007; Horn 2008). Research using the LSS to test the relationship between satisfaction and performance and leadership behavior has shown that the leadership dimensions that are usually positively associated with athlete satisfaction and performance are the LSS subscales of democratic behavior, social support, positive feedback, and training and instruction, while autocratic behavior is tied to low levels of satisfaction (Horn, 2008, pg. 257). Following two stages

of development and subsequent research, the LSS indicated adequate test-retest reliability as well as good internal consistency and reliability (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1980; Chelladurai, 1990). A considerable amount of research on the effects of coaching leadership has subsequently utilized the LSS since its development in 1978 (Horn, 2008).

It is important to note that while the majority of research based on the MDML has utilized the LSS, Zhang, Jensen, and Mann (1997) modified and revised the LSS to include a sixth dimension, situational consideration. However, according to Zhang, Jensen, and Mann (1997) the study was conducted to improve the measurement properties of the LSS and “usage of the revised LSS makes no difference from the original scale.” (1997, pg. 118). Chelladurai, in an examination of the Revised Leadership Scale for Sports (RLSS) (2007, pg. 122-23) also discussed the lack of research comparing the RLSS to the LSS. Chelladurai noted (2007) that because five of the six dimensions in the RLSS are the same as the LSS, internal consistency estimates did not improve and the five dimensions in the LSS could subsume the substance of the situational consideration dimension in the RLSS. Chelladurai (2007) suggested that, without research employing both the RLSS and the LSS to determine which instrument is superior, use of the shorter, 40-item LSS would be more efficient. This logic serves as the basis for use of the LSS over the RLSS in this study. Accordingly, this review of literature does not distinguish between studies utilizing the RLSS over the LSS, however, note is made of use of the RLSS.

Research on the MDML

A considerable amount of research has been conducted using the theoretical framework of the MDML (Horn, 2008). Although this research is summarized in greater

detail elsewhere (Chelladurai, 1990, 2007; Chelladurai & Riemer, 1998), an examination of these studies will lend itself to the logic behind the current study.

According to Chelladurai (1990), research on the MDML can be categorized into two groups: 1) research dealing with the factors affecting the athletes' perceived and/or preferred leader behaviors, and 2) research dealing with the consequences of leadership. As this study is focused on the first of these two categories, in particular the factors affecting NCAA men's soccer players' preferred leader behaviors, MDML research dealing with the consequences of leadership will be addressed first and in a limited manner. The remainder of the literature review will focus on research dealing with factors affecting preferred leader behavior.

MDML Research on the Consequences of Leadership

Research on the consequences of leadership based on the MDML have centered largely on the congruency hypothesis as it relates to the congruence between preferred and perceived leadership behavior and the outcomes of satisfaction and performance. In general, research on the congruency hypothesis has shown that the LSS leadership dimensions of democratic behavior, social support, positive feedback, and training and instruction are most commonly positively associated with athletes' levels of satisfaction (Horn, 2008). On the other hand, autocratic behavior has been associated with low levels of athlete satisfaction (Horn, 2008). Research on the consequences of leadership have also been conducted by isolating the facets of either preferred or perceived leadership and studying the relationship between the isolated leadership behavior facet and outcomes such as performance and/or satisfaction (Weiss & Friedrichs, 1986; McMillin, 1990; Santesteban, 2007), player/coach burnout and anxiety level (Price & Weiss, 2000), team

cohesion (Pease & Kozub, 1994; Shields et. al., 1997), intrinsic motivation (Amorose & Horn, 2000, 2001), and emotional response (Tsai, 2007).

Chelladurai's (1978) initial study in development of the MDML examined the congruence of leadership preferences and perceptions of Canadian basketball, track and field, and wrestling athletes. The study found that congruence in preferred and perceived leadership in the dimensions of autocratic behavior and positive feedback affected athletes' satisfaction with the coach. The study also reported that athletes were more satisfied with their coach when training and instruction exceeded their preferences (Chelladurai, 1990). Results also showed that the congruence relationship between required and perceived leader behavior with performance was not supported (Chelladurai, 1990). In a follow up study utilizing the same data, Chelladurai (1984) examined the relationship between the discrepancy between preferred and perceived leadership and athletes' satisfaction. Chelladurai used the LSS to assess the five preferred and perceived leadership behaviors of training and instruction, democratic behavior, autocratic behavior, social support, and positive feedback. The study used an instrument that measured satisfaction with individual performance, team performance, leadership, and overall involvement with a single question for each subscale. Results associated with the basketball players showed the discrepancy in each of the five leadership behavior dimensions was significantly related to satisfaction with leadership. The study also found that none of the discrepancies in leadership behavior was related to satisfaction with individual performance, however, positive feedback was significantly and negatively related to satisfaction with team performance. Discrepancy scores were also not related to satisfaction with overall involvement.

As part of their study of compatibility in Canadian coach-athlete relationships in volleyball, basketball, track and field, and swimming, Horne and Carron (1985) found three significant predictors of satisfaction with leadership. The researchers found that “variables predicting athlete satisfaction were discrepancy between athletes’ perceptions and preferences on the LSS dimensions of training, reward, and social support.” (p. 137). Examination of the difference between coaches’ and athletes’ perceptions of coaches’ leader behaviors also showed that there were significant discrepancies between coach and athlete perceptions of training and instruction, democratic behavior, social support, and positive feedback, while there was no significant difference in the two groups’ perceptions of autocratic coaching behavior (Horne & Carron, 1985).

Of relative methodological importance to the instant study, Riemer and Chelladurai (1995) investigated 1) the differences between offensive and defensive football players in preferred leadership, perceived leadership, and satisfaction with leadership, 2) the relationships between the congruence of preferred and perceived leadership and satisfaction with leadership, and 3) the relative dominance of perceived leadership in these relationships. The study used the LSS and a one question 7-point Likert scale to evaluate the player’s satisfaction with the coach’s leadership behavior. Results of the study showed that defensive players preferred and perceived more democratic, autocratic and social support behaviors than offensive players. The results also showed that congruence between preferred and perceived leadership in social support behavior was important to enhancing athlete satisfaction. Additionally, perceived leadership in the dimensions of positive feedback and training and instruction were

stronger indicators of satisfaction with leadership than either preferred leadership or the congruence of preferred leadership in these dimensions (Riemer & Chelladurai, 1995).

More recently, Riemer and Toon (2001), using the LSS, examined congruence between preferred and perceived leadership behavior, gender, and ability in NCAA Division I and II tennis teams. The results showed that athlete satisfaction, as measured by the Athlete Satisfaction Questionnaire (ASQ) was not dependent on congruence between preferred and perceived leadership behavior. The study showed that gender was responsible for some variances in athletes' preferences for autocratic behavior and positive feedback, with males preferring more autocratic behavior than females and females preferring more positive feedback than males. Also, athletes with a male coach preferred more social support than athletes with female coaches. Additionally, in terms of ability, as measured by division level, Division II tennis players preferred more positive feedback behavior than Division I athletes (Riemer & Toon, 2001).

Cakioglu (2003) investigated the relationship among preferred and perceived leadership, the congruence of preferred and perceived leadership, and satisfaction with leadership in Turkish collegiate soccer players. Cakioglu also examined the differences among player's positions in preferred leadership, perceived leadership, and satisfaction with leadership. The results of the study, which utilized the LSS and the ASQ, showed athlete satisfaction was not dependent on congruence between preferred and perceived leadership behavior. The results also illustrated that player position did not affect an athlete's preference for leadership behavior, perception of leadership behavior, or satisfaction with leadership.

Andrews (2004) examined the effect of congruence of leadership behavior on motivation, commitment, and satisfaction of college tennis players across NCAA divisions I, II, and III. Using the RLSS and the ASQ to measure leadership behavior and satisfaction, the study showed that preferred and perceived autocratic behavior congruence predicted individual performance satisfaction. Also, congruency between preferred and perceived behavior for the dimensions of training and instruction as well as autocratic behavior were significant predictors of personal treatment satisfaction. Autocratic behavior congruency also influenced team performance satisfaction and training and instruction satisfaction. The results also indicated that neither gender nor ability level affected preferred leadership behavior (Andrews, 2004).

MDML Research on Factors Affecting Preferred Leadership

Because of the nature of the MDML, research using this theoretical framework have taken on a variety of forms. Testing the congruency hypothesis has been a popular research technique, as has examining the congruence of leader behaviors against leadership outcomes or examining a single facet of leader behavior in relation to leader outcomes. As discussed above, preferred leader behaviors are related to the individual characteristics of the group members and situational characteristics (Chelladurai, 1990). Since the inception of the MDML, researchers have explored the effects of individual characteristics, such as gender, age, experience and maturity, motivation, and cognitive structure, on leadership preferences of athletes (Walsh, 2004). Additionally, research has explored the situational characteristics of type of sport, level of competition, organizational goals, and cultural differences (Walsh, 2004). This study, therefore, focuses on the individual characteristic of player position and the situational

characteristic of division level. The remainder of this review of literature will provide examples of characteristics researched in relation to leadership preferences and conclude with discussion of studies that give context to the factors of division level and player position.

Research Involving Gender

Chelladurai and Saleh (1978) examined 80 male and 80 female college physical education students to study the effects of sex, task dependence (individual versus team sports), and task variability (closed or open) in sports on preferred leadership. Sports with low task variability were characterized as closed or open based on the degree of environmental changes in the sport and the extent to which the athlete must respond to the challenges. For example, task variability is low and therefore closed in a task such as high jumping since the environment in which the task is performed is relatively stable. On the other hand, basketball requires an open form of behavior since the environment is unstable and unpredictable. The study was conducted using sex, task dependence, and task variability of the preferred sport as the independent variables and preferred leader behavior as the dependent variable. Although the study used a precursor to the LSS, the researchers measured the same five dimensions of leader behavior (training, autocratic, democratic, supportive, and rewarding behaviors) (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1978).

Results of Chelladurai and Saleh's (1978) study showed that athletes in team sports preferred more training behavior than athletes in individual sports. Also, athletes in closed sports preferred more training behavior than athletes in open sports. In terms of autocratic behavior, males preferred greater preference for autocratic leader behavior than did females. On the other hand, females preferred more democratic behavior than males.

Males also preferred more supportive behavior than females, however, there were no significant findings for differences in rewarding behaviors (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1978). Subsequent studies have shown comparable as well as contrasting results related to gender differences and preferred leader behaviors (Terry & Howe, 1984; Terry, 1984; Sherman et. al., 2000; Bolkish & Terry, 2001).

Erle (1981) examined the effects of organizational goals and individual member characteristics (gender, past competitive experience, and motivations) on leadership preferences of male and female university intramural and intercollegiate hockey players. Results showed that males preferred training and instruction more than females. Athletes with high task motivation preferred more training and instruction, while athletes with high affiliation motivation and extrinsic motivation preferred more social support. The results showed a significant difference in preferred coaching behaviors between competitive levels of the players. Specifically, athletes with more experience preferred more positive feedback.

Sherman et. al. (2000) examined the similarities and differences in coaching preferences between predominantly single-gender sports (Australian football and netball) and dual-gender sports (basketball) in Australia. The study utilized the LSS and found that Australian athletes, in general, most preferred positive feedback followed in descending preferred order by training and instruction, democratic behavior, social support, and autocratic behavior. Results of the study also suggested that gender did not account for significant differences in athletes' preferences for coaching behavior across the three sports.

Lindauer (2000) examined the preferences for coaching behaviors of male and female athletes in individual and team sports at a single institution. Using the RLSS, Lindauer found that leadership preferences differed between individual and team sport athletes and between males and females. Results showed significant differences between individual and team sport athletes in preferences for democratic behavior and positive feedback (Lindauer, 2000). Additionally, the results showed significant differences between male and female athletes in preferences for autocratic behavior and social support (Lindauer, 2000).

Recently, Windsor (2004) investigated the preferred coaching behaviors of male and female NCAA Division I soccer players. The study utilized the LSS to obtain leadership preferences of 111 collegiate athletes. The results of a multivariate analysis of variance indicated that training and instruction was the most preferred leader behavior for both male and female soccer players. Additionally, autocratic behavior was the least preferred leader behavior for soccer players. Results of a follow-up ANOVA showed a statistically significant difference in gender and autocratic behavior, suggesting that male and female soccer players differ in their preference for autocratic leader behavior. Specifically, male soccer players preferred more autocratic behavior than female soccer players. Accordingly, no other significant differences in leadership preferences were found between genders. Windsor's study supports the findings of Sherman et. al (2000), as the findings of the two studies showed little difference in leader preferences between genders. These studies suggest that there is a high level of similarity in coaching preferences between genders in certain athletic contexts.

Research Involving Culture

Chelladurai et al (1988) studied the differences between Japanese and Canadian male college athletes in preferred leader behavior, perceived leader behavior, satisfaction with leadership and personal outcome, and the relationships between leader behaviors and satisfaction. Chelladurai used the LSS and a pre-ASQ instrument to gather data. Results showed that a) Japanese athletes preferred more autocratic and social support behaviors while Canadian athletes preferred significantly more training and instruction; b) Japanese athletes perceived higher levels of autocratic behavior while Canadian athletes perceived higher levels of training and instruction, democratic behavior, and positive feedback; and c) Canadian athletes expressed significantly more satisfaction with leadership and personal outcome than Japanese athletes (Chelladurai et al, 1988).

In a similar study, Bolkiah & Terry (2001) used the LSS to investigate the cross-cultural differences in coaching preferences between athletes in Brunei Darussalam and Great Britain. Results of the study showed that, in general, athletes in the study preferred their coach to display training and instruction behavior and rewarding behavior more often than democratic and social support behavior. Results also showed that athletes, in general, seldom preferred their coach to use autocratic behavior. Additionally, the study found that Bruneian athletes preferred more training and instruction, democratic, and social support behavior than the British athletes. However, no differences in coaching preferences were found in relation to type of sport across the two cultures (Bolkiah & Terry, 2001).

Research Involving Competition Level

Chelladurai and Carron (1983) used the LSS to examine the relationship between preferences for leadership behavior and athletic maturity. The study defined maturity based on the level of athlete. The researchers sampled high school midget, high school junior, high school senior and university level basketball players to assess the relationship between the variables. Results showed preference for training and instruction decreased from midget to junior to senior high school levels, and increased at the university level. Results also illustrated that athletes' preferences for social support increased from high school midget level through to university level.

Beam, Serwatka, and Wilson (2004) examined the differences of NCAA Division I and II athletes' preferred leadership behavior based on gender, competitive level, task dependence, and task variability. This study surveyed of 400 male and female student-athletes from NCAA Divisions I and II and used the RLSS to collect data. The study first hypothesized that differences in preferred leader behaviors between genders would occur based on Chelladurai's (1980) suggestion that member characteristics influenced preferred leader behavior. Next, the study hypothesized that differences in preferred leader behaviors would occur across NCAA divisions. This hypothesis was based on Chelladurai's (1980) assumption that situational characteristics influence preferred leader behaviors. Finally, the study hypothesized that, based on prior research (Chelladurai & Carron, 1983; Chelladurai & Saleh, 1978; Riemer & Chelladurai, 1995; Terry, 1984; Terry & Howe, 1984), differences in preferred leader behavior would occur among the variables of task dependence and task variability.

Using the six dimensions of the RLSS as the dependent variables and gender, competition level, task dependence, and task variability as independent variables, a total of 408 were surveyed to collect. The results of the statistical analyses using multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) and univariate analyses of variance (ANOVA) showed that there were statistically significant differences in the variables of gender, task dependence, and task variability. Based on the statistical analyses, results of the study suggested that an athlete's preferred leadership behaviors were influenced by gender and task dependence and task variability of their sport. In terms of gender, results showed that male student-athletes had significantly greater preferences for autocratic and social behaviors while female athletes had significantly greater preferences for situation consideration and training and instruction (although it is important to remember that the dimension of situation consideration is the additional dimension incorporated by the RLSS and is not a separate dimension in the LSS). Additionally, there was a significant gender by task variability interaction for autocratic and democratic behaviors. Results also showed that independent sport athletes had significantly greater preferences for democratic, positive feedback, situational consideration, and social support behaviors. However, there were no significant differences found in preferred leadership behaviors across competition levels. (Beam, Serwatka, & Wilson, 2004).

Research Involving Playing Position

As discussed above, as part of a larger study, Riemer and Chelladurai (1995) investigated the differences between offensive and defensive football players in preferred leadership. Results of the study showed that defensive players reported higher preferences than offensive players for democratic ($M = 3.23$ vs. 2.96), autocratic ($M =$

2.93 vs. 2.55), and social support behaviors ($M = 3.58$ vs. 3.25). One notable contrast between Riemer and Chelladurai's (1995) study and the instant study is that the LSS questions were set up with a 5-point Likert scale that ranged from 1 to 5, with 1 equaling "never" and 5 equaling "always". The instant study reversed this numbering based on the version of the LSS obtained, with permission, directly from Dr. Chelladurai. According to the researchers, the results supported the view that a football team consisted of two distinct units who exhibited different leadership dynamics. (Riemer & Chelladurai, 1995).

As part of the wider study involving the congruence of perceived and preferred leadership behaviors of Turkish university soccer players, Cakioglu (2003), investigated the differences among offensive, defensive, and mid-field players of soccer teams in preferred leadership. The results of this portion of Cakioglu's study are of particular relevance to this study. Using a version of the LSS with scores assigned similar to Reimer and Chelladurai's (1995) study (1 = "never" and 5 = "always"), the results of the study showed that, overall, the players preferred more autocratic behavior than any other leadership behavior ($M = 2.93$). On the other hand, the leadership behavior preferred the least was training and instruction ($M = 1.81$). Additionally, offensive players reported higher preferences for democratic behavior ($M = 2.33$ vs. 2.14, 2.21) and positive feedback ($M = 2.07$ vs. 2.01, 2.02) than their mid-field and defensive counterparts. (Cakioglu, 2003). Mid-field players reported higher preferences for autocratic behavior ($M = 2.98$ vs. 2.89, 2.92) than their offensive and defensive counterparts. Finally, defensive players reported higher preferences for training and instruction ($M = 1.88$ vs. 1.76, 1.74) and social support ($M = 2.12$ vs. 2.05, 2.03) than offensive and mid-field

players. However, the mean differences between the positions' preferences were not great. (Cakioglu, 2003).

Summary

The MDML provides a multifaceted approach to the study of leadership in athletics. Research involving the MDML has generally focused on the factors that affect perceived and/or preferred leader behavior and the consequences of leadership. Examination of studies involving the consequences of leadership illustrated the versatility of the MDML in study various aspects of leadership in the athletic context. Of particular importance to the instant study are the studies of Beam, Serwatka, and Wilson (2004), Cakioglu (2003), and Reimer and Chelladurai (1995). Beam, Serwatka, and Wilson (2004) examined the differences of preferred leadership behavior based on gender, competition level, task dependence, and task variability. As part of a broader study of congruence between perceived and preferred leader behaviors in Turkish college soccer players, Cakioglu (2003) examined the differences among offensive, mid-field, and defensive players in preferred leadership. Reimer & Chelladurai (1995), again as part of a larger study, investigated the differences between the offensive and defensive personnel of football teams in preferred leadership behavior. As the instant study is focused on the factors of competitive level (ability) and player position (task variability) and their effect on preferred leadership behaviors of NCAA men's collegiate soccer players, these studies serve as the theoretical inspiration for this study.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

As leadership in the athletic context has been examined closely in numerous studies, the MDML was utilized on order to compare and contrast the results of this study with others using the model. Other notable researchers have examined leadership in soccer using the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire (Martin, 1985; Masur, 2003), however, for purposes of this study, the MDML and the LSS were utilized in order to draw on and supplement existing research.

The Leadership Scale for Sports (LSS), developed by Chelladurai and Saleh (1980), was used to measure intercollegiate men's soccer players' preferences on coaching leadership behaviors. The study compared preferences based on competition level (Division I, II, or III) and player position (forward/striker, mid-fielder, defender, and goalie).

Subjects

The participants in this study were male soccer athletes from 82 NCAA Division I, II, and III institutions within the researcher's geographic region. Given the nature of the study's procedures, the population size of subjects was estimated at N=1,968. This is an approximation that assumes an average number of players per roster across divisions at

24 players per team. Division I soccer players were selected from 28 institutions competing in Division I conferences in the Eastern and Southeastern United States. Division II soccer players were selected from 28 institutions competing in Division II conferences in the Eastern and Southeastern United States. Division III soccer players were selected from 27 institutions competing in Division III conferences in the Eastern and Southeastern United States. All athletes who completed the LSS were volunteers. Additionally, all athletes who completed the survey were required to have been on the team's official roster at the end of the Fall 2008 season.

Instrument

The instrument used in this study was the Leadership Scale for Sports (LSS) developed by Chelladurai and Saleh (1978, 1980). The LSS is a 40-item questionnaire representing five dimensions of leader behavior: training and instruction (13 items), democratic behavior (9 items), autocratic behavior (5 items), social support (8 items), and positive feedback (5 items). The dimensions of democratic and autocratic behavior refer to the coach's style of decision-making, such as whether or not the coach allows the players to participate in decision-making. Training and instruction and positive feedback are task-oriented dimensions. The dimension of social support is oriented toward to what extent the coach creates a friendly and positive group climate (Chelladurai, 2007). By changing the introductory phrasing of the instrument, the LSS may be used to measure athletes' preferences, athletes' perceptions, or coaches' perceptions of leadership behavior. However, this study used the version of the LSS that measures athletes' preferences for specific leader behaviors. Permission to use the LSS was requested from and granted by Dr. Chelladurai.

The LSS has been shown to have good internal reliability and validity (Chelladurai, 1990). Past studies have reported adequate internal consistency estimates for the dimensions of training and instruction, democratic behavior, social support, and positive feedback, however, estimates for autocratic behavior have been consistently lower ($<.70$), particularly in the preference version (Chelladurai, 1990, 2007). Thus, Chelladurai (1990) suggests that results relating the autocratic dimension of the LSS should be viewed with caution. Despite suggestions to modify the autocratic subscale, several studies have reported internal consistency estimates of .60 or higher which is acceptable for subscales with fewer items (Chelladurai, 2007). Furthermore, factorial validity was confirmed through relative stability of the factor structure across different samples (Chelladurai and Saleh, 1980). Also, content validity was established based on factor interpretation of each dimension (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1980).

The items on the LSS were arranged randomly and subjects indicated the degree of preference to each item by rating it on a 5 – point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*Never*) to 5 (*Always*). The scores for each item were: 1 = Never; 2 = Seldom (about 25% of the time); 3 = Occasionally (about 50% of the time); 4 = Often (about 75% of the time); 5 = Always.

Procedures

A total of 82 collegiate men's soccer coaches at the selected NCAA Division I, II, and III institutions were notified of the study via an electronic mail message. Head men's soccer coaches were grouped by division level and identical electronic mail messages were sent according to division. The electronic mail messages were sent to each head men's soccer coach asking the coach to facilitate athlete participation and informing them

that a second electronic mail message would be sent the following day containing information for the players involving consent and the hyperlink to the online survey. The second electronic mail message was included text within the message regarding the risks and benefits of participation along with directions on how to complete the survey at a secure website (SurveyMonkey.com). The head men's soccer coaches were asked to forward the electronic mail message to each of their respective athletes who fit the criteria of the study (all players on the official roster for the fall season of 2008). The coaches were asked to carbon copy ("CC") the message to the primary investigator's email address in order for the primary investigator to determine the number of athletes who received invitations to participate in the study. Follow-up reminders were sent to the coaches eleven days later and again four days later. The following week, a final reminder was sent to the head men's soccer coaches and informing them of the termination date for the online survey. A total of three additional coaches that were not originally among the 82 teams selected (two Division I head men's soccer coaches and one Division II head men's soccer coach) were contacted to supplement the study.

The surveys were conducted in an online format in order to maximize player convenience, secure confidential responses, maximize efficiency, and minimize unnecessary paperwork. The survey was administered through SurveyMonkey.com.

Data Analysis

Data was collected through the use of the LSS as administered through SurveyMonkey.com. The data was then downloaded into an Excel spreadsheet where subjects' responses to each question of the LSS were grouped according to the leadership dimension they were intended to measure: Training and Instruction, Democratic

Behavior, Autocratic Behavior, Social Support, and Positive Feedback. Mean scores were calculated for each leadership dimension. The mean scores served as the dependent variable in the subsequent 3x4 totally between subjects ANOVAs that were run and analyzed using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software version 17.0. A total of five analysis of variance (ANOVA) procedures were used to assess differences in player preferences between divisions, between positions (forwards, mid-fielders, defenders, and goalies), and the interactions of division and position. The results of the 3X4 totally between subjects ANOVA were examined for significant differences according to division and position. Descriptive statistics were obtained through the SPSS output and means and standard deviations were obtained for each dependant variable as a whole, by division, and by position. Tukey's post hoc tests were performed, but were ultimately unnecessary. An alpha level of .05 was used.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to determine and explore the differences in NCAA men's intercollegiate soccer players' preferences for leadership behavior based on competition level and player position. Descriptive statistics and analysis of variance were utilized to examine the differences between men's intercollegiate soccer players' preferences for leadership behaviors based on competition level and player position. A total of 111 male intercollegiate male soccer players completed the leadership scale for sports. Composite scores for the dependent variables of Training and Instruction, Democratic Behavior, Autocratic Behavior, Social Support, and Positive Feedback were obtained from subjects' answers on the survey questions that corresponded to each dimension.

The players that completed the survey consisted of 39 Division I players, 29 Division II players, and 43 Division III players. Of these 111 soccer players that completed the survey, 16 reported position as forward, 38 reported position as mid-field, 39 reported position as defender, and 18 reported position as goalie.

In order to obtain a measure of response rate, head men's soccer coaches were asked to carbon copy the researcher on the email the coach forwarded to the players that contained the survey. However, while 39 Division I players completed the survey, no

Division I soccer coaches carbon copied the researcher. Three Division II head men's soccer coaches carbon copied the researcher when forwarding the survey to their players. A total of 68 Division II players, therefore, could be confirmed to have received the survey. Only one Division III head men's soccer coach carbon copied the researcher when forwarding the survey. A total of 26 Division III players could be confirmed to have received the survey. Based on the lack of continuity between the number of players per division that completed the survey and the number of players that the researcher confirmed received the survey, an accurate response rate is unavailable. Additionally, given an estimated potential population size of 1,968, a sample size of 111 is significantly small.

Descriptive Statistics

The means and standard deviations of preferred leadership behaviors were computed for each dimension (Training and Instruction, Democratic Behavior, Autocratic Behavior, Social Support, or Positive Feedback). Results for each dimension are presented in tables 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5. Results indicated that subjects preferred more Training and Instruction ($M=1.99$) and Positive Feedback ($M=1.99$) than other leadership behaviors. Additionally, players preferred Autocratic Behavior ($M=3.45$) the least of the five dimensions of leadership.

Results indicated that players in Division I preferred more Training and Instruction ($M=1.94$ vs. $1.97, 2.04$) as well as Autocratic Behavior ($M=3.35$ vs. $3.45, 3.55$) than their counterparts in Divisions II and III. Division III players preferred more Democratic Behavior than Division I and II, respectively ($M=2.56$ vs. $2.65, 2.73$). Additionally, players in Division III preferred higher levels of Social Support than

Division II and I (M=2.48 vs. 2.66, 2.68). Finally, Division II players preferred more Positive Feedback than their Division I and III counterparts (M=1.97 vs. 1.99, 2.01).

Results also indicated that forwards preferred more Training and Instruction (M=1.82) and Positive Feedback (M=1.84) than players in other positions. Mid-fielders preferred more Democratic Behavior (M=2.57) than players in other positions. Goalies reported higher preferences for Autocratic Behavior (M=3.24) and Social Support (M=2.47) than other positions.

It is important, however, to note that descriptive statistics for each dimension of leadership behavior categorized by both division level and position showed that the differences between divisions and the differences between positions were not great.

Descriptive statistics for each leadership dimension are listed in Tables 1 – 5 below.

Table 1. Means and standard deviation for Training and Instruction

<u>Division</u>	<u>Position</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>Std. Deviation</u>	<u>N</u>
I	Forward	1.55	.385	7
	Mid-field	2.03	.414	10
	Defender	2.01	.800	16
	Goalie	2.05	.554	6
	Total	1.94	.626	39
II	Forward	2.29	.486	4
	Mid-field	2.03	.367	10
	Defender	1.87	.310	11
	Goalie	1.79	.379	4
	Total	1.97	.377	29
III	Forward	1.83	.084	5
	Mid-field	2.15	.520	18
	Defender	1.82	.627	12
	Goalie	2.26	.610	8
	Total	2.04	.556	43
Total	Forward	1.82	.450	16
	Mid-field	2.09	.450	38
	Defender	1.91	.632	39
	Goalie	2.09	.551	18
	Total	1.99	.540	111

Table 2. Means and standard deviation for Democratic Behavior

<u>Division</u>	<u>Position</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>Std. Deviation</u>	<u>N</u>
I	Forward	2.73	.679	7
	Mid-field	2.42	.470	10
	Defender	2.68	.790	16
	Goalie	2.86	.557	6
	Total	2.65	.659	39
II	Forward	2.88	.276	4
	Mid-field	2.62	.602	10
	Defender	2.52	.378	11
	Goalie	3.41	.612	4
	Total	2.73	.554	29
III	Forward	2.33	.111	5
	Mid-field	2.63	.576	18
	Defender	2.55	.647	12
	Goalie	2.55	.534	8
	Total	2.56	.548	43
Total	Forward	2.64	.503	16
	Mid-field	2.57	.550	38
	Defender	2.59	.640	39
	Goalie	2.84	.624	18
	Total	2.63	.589	111

Table 3. Means and standard deviation for Autocratic Behavior

<u>Division</u>	<u>Position</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>Std. Deviation</u>	<u>N</u>
I	Forward	3.08	.592	7
	Mid-field	3.36	.610	10
	Defender	3.61	.695	16
	Goalie	2.95	.366	6
	Total	3.35	.648	39
II	Forward	3.50	.577	4
	Mid-field	3.41	.668	10
	Defender	3.36	.864	10
	Goalie	3.69	.947	4
	Total	3.45	.739	28
III	Forward	3.95	.441	5
	Mid-field	3.50	.573	18
	Defender	3.68	.465	12
	Goalie	3.24	.584	8
	Total	3.55	.555	43
Total	Forward	3.46	.637	16
	Mid-field	3.44	.594	38
	Defender	3.57	.677	38
	Goalie	3.24	.644	18
	Total	3.45	.639	110

Table 4. Means and standard deviation for Social Support

<u>Division</u>	<u>Position</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>Std. Deviation</u>	<u>N</u>
I	Forward	2.58	.546	7
	Mid-field	2.72	.423	10
	Defender	2.68	.696	16
	Goalie	2.69	.404	6
	Total	2.68	.552	39
II	Forward	2.72	.483	4
	Mid-field	2.59	.582	10
	Defender	2.86	.508	11
	Goalie	2.25	.896	4
	Total	2.66	.595	29
III	Forward	2.40	.687	5
	Mid-field	2.61	.593	18
	Defender	2.37	.657	12
	Goalie	2.42	.541	8
	Total	2.48	.601	43
Total	Forward	2.56	.554	16
	Mid-field	2.63	.539	38
	Defender	2.64	.651	39
	Goalie	2.47	.583	18
	Total	2.60	.585	111

Table 5. Means and standard deviation for Positive Feedback

<u>Division</u>	<u>Position</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>Std. Deviation</u>	<u>N</u>
I	Forward	1.62	.385	7
	Mid-field	2.14	.341	10
	Defender	1.99	.643	16
	Goalie	2.18	.500	6
	Total	1.99	.533	39
II	Forward	1.97	.741	4
	Mid-field	2.07	.690	10
	Defender	1.96	.408	11
	Goalie	1.75	.526	4
	Total	1.97	.558	29
III	Forward	2.04	.261	5
	Mid-field	1.97	.526	18
	Defender	2.01	.604	12
	Goalie	2.06	.711	8
	Total	2.01	.547	43
Total	Forward	1.84	.477	16
	Mid-field	2.04	.525	38
	Defender	1.99	.559	39
	Goalie	2.03	.598	18
	Total	1.99	.540	111

Division x Position Totally Between Subjects ANOVA

A 3 (division) x 4 (position) totally between subjects ANOVA was used to examine preferred leadership behavior differences among male intercollegiate soccer players for the five leadership dimensions. Each ANOVA included the examination of two main effects (division and position) and an interaction effect (division * position). The two main effects, division and position, and the interaction effect were analyzed for each of the five leadership dimensions.

The survey instrument consisted of 40 Likert-scale questions with each question corresponding to a particular dimension of preferred leadership behavior (Training and Instruction, Democratic Behavior, Autocratic Behavior, Social Support, or Positive Feedback). Questions were randomly assigned in the survey and were then regrouped during analysis to correspond to the appropriate dimension. Mean scores for subjects responses were then computed for each dimension and were utilized as the dependent variable for the ANOVA.

Results of the ANOVA, however, did not yield any significant main effects for division or position. Additionally, results of the study did not yield any significant interaction effects for division and position. Results of the ANOVA are presented in Table 6 below.

Table 6. Analysis of Variance: Preferred Leadership Dimensions for Division and Position

<u>Source</u>	<u>Dependent Variable</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>Sig.</u>
Division	Training and Instruction	2	.361	.698
	Democratic Behavior	2	2.367	.099
	Autocratic Behavior	2	2.620	.078
	Social Support	2	1.247	.292
	Positive Feedback	2	.152	.859
Position	Training and Instruction	3	.827	.482
	Democratic Behavior	3	1.812	.150
	Autocratic Behavior	3	.726	.539
	Social Support	3	.460	.711
	Positive Feedback	3	.389	.761
Division*Position	Training and Instruction	6	1.356	.240
	Democratic Behavior	6	1.276	.275
	Autocratic Behavior	6	1.319	.256
	Social Support	6	.656	.685
	Positive Feedback	6	.684	.663

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The results of the study revealed a great deal of homogeneity in men's intercollegiate soccer players' preferences for leadership behaviors across division level and player position. Descriptive statistics and ANOVA results illustrated the relative similarity among mean scores for players based on division level and player position as well as a lack of statistically significant differences for leadership behaviors.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to determine and explore the differences in NCAA men's intercollegiate soccer players' preferences for leadership behavior based on division level and player position. The study measured player preference through the LSS. A 3x4 totally between subjects ANOVA analyzed differences between division level, player position, and the interaction effect for each of the five dimensions of leadership as assessed by the LSS (Training and Instruction, Democratic Behavior, Autocratic Behavior, Social Support, and Positive Feedback). Accordingly, the instant study did not find any significant differences preference scores in any of the five leadership dimensions. Post hoc analysis, therefore, were unnecessary and were not

utilized. The only leadership dimension that even approached significance was that for Autocratic Behavior and division ($p = .078$).

The results of this study were such that the null hypothesis of each research question could not be rejected. Specifically, according to the results of the study, NCAA Division I, II, and III men's soccer players do not express significantly different preferences for leadership behaviors. This result is consistent with the results of Beam, Serwatka, and Wilson (2004). In an examination of differences in NCAA Division I and II athletes' preferred leadership behavior based on gender, competitive level, task dependence, and task variability no significant differences were found in preferred leadership behaviors across competition levels. (Beam, Serwatka, & Wilson, 2004).

Although Beam et al (2004) utilized the RLSS to assess leadership preferences of athletes across divisions, the similarities between the RLSS and LSS are such that results from the Beam et al (2004) study may be compared to the instant study. This suggests that competition level within NCAA men's intercollegiate soccer does not have a significant effect on player preference for preferred leadership behaviors. This suggests that players do not vary significantly in terms of their expectations or desires for leadership behaviors from their coaches based on which division they play in. Accordingly, the results suggest that NCAA head men's soccer coaches may see similar preferences for leadership behaviors across division levels and should therefore be aware that leadership behaviors may not need to be modified according to the coach's division level.

The results of this study also suggest that NCAA men's soccer players do not express significantly different preferences for leadership behaviors based on the player's designation within the team as forward, mid-field, defender, or goalie. A 3x4 totally

between subjects ANOVA returned no significant findings in terms of differences in preference levels of men's soccer players who completed the survey. This comports with the findings of Cakioglu (2003). In a study of Turkish university male soccer players, Cakioglu (2003) was unable to find significant differences in preferred leadership behaviors of soccer players based on their positions. However, the results of this study as well as the Cakioglu (2003) study are inconsistent with results from the study conducted by Riemer and Chelladurai (1995) into the differences between offensive and defensive players on intercollegiate male football players. Riemer and Chelladurai (1995) found significant differences in leadership preferences between offensive and defensive players in the dimensions of Democratic Behavior, Autocratic Behavior, and Social Support. Defensive players reported greater preferences in all three dimensions than did their offensive counterparts.

As Cakioglu (2003) suggests and the researcher in the instant study supports, one possible explanation of the difference in findings of the instant study versus the findings of Riemer and Chelladurai (1995) is that players within a soccer team, other than the goalkeeper, may not have a fixed position in the same manner as players in an American football team. One player on a soccer team may play multiple positions over course of a game, a season, or their career. This may lead to a situation where leadership preferences of soccer players are not influenced by positional constraints in the same manner as American football players. It may be unnecessary, therefore, for head men's soccer coaches to tailor or change their coaching behaviors according to their players' positions.

While the results of this study and Cakioglu's (2003) study did not find statistical significance among player preferences based on playing position, observations regarding

descriptive statistics show some interesting contrasts between the instant study and Cakioglu's research. Although Cakioglu ranged preference scores on the LSS from 1 being the lowest preference and 5 being the highest preference, while this study ranged preference scores from 1 being the highest preference and 5 being the lowest, the results of each studies descriptive statistics are interesting and should be noted.

First, according to Cakioglu (2003), Turkish soccer players reported more autocratic behavior ($M = 2.93$) than any other leadership dimension while also preferring training and instruction the least ($M = 1.81$). In the instant study, however, NCAA men's soccer players surveyed preferred autocratic behavior the least ($M = 3.45$) and preferred training and instruction the most ($M = 1.99$). Additionally, in Cakioglu's (2003) study, offensive players reported higher preferences for democratic behavior ($M = 2.33$) and positive feedback ($M = 2.07$). Results from this study showed that forwards (offensive players) preferred more training and instruction ($M = 1.82$) and positive feedback ($M = 1.84$) than other players. Next, in Cakioglu's (2003) study, mid-field players reported higher preferences for autocratic behavior ($M = 2.98$) than their offensive and defensive counterparts. However, in the instant study, mid-field players reported higher preferences in democratic behavior ($M = 2.57$), the antithesis of autocratic behavior, more than other positions. Finally, according to Cakioglu (2003), defensive players reported higher preferences for training and instruction ($M = 1.88$) and social support ($M = 2.12$) than offensive and mid-field players. Although the instant study separated defenders and goalies into separate positions, results indicated that goalies preferred more autocratic behavior ($M = 3.24$) and social support ($M = 2.47$) than other positions.

Without further analysis, differences in preferences for leadership behaviors between the population samples of the Cakioglu study and the current study may be attributed to chance. However, as mentioned above, Chelladurai et al (1988) studied the differences between Japanese and Canadian male college athletes in preferred leader behavior and found statistically significant differences in preferences for autocratic, social support, and training and instruction between the two cultures. Results of the Cakioglu study and the instant study do not directly support the findings of Chelladurai et al (1988) but do give rise to possible recommendations for further research.

Although the results of the instant study are consistent with previous research involving leadership preferences based on division level (Beam, Serwatka, & Wilson, 2004) and player position (Cakioglu, 2003), the results from this study must be discussed in relation to the relatively small sample size obtained. Given the low response rate of 111 player who completed the survey versus the estimated population size of approximately 1,968 players across the 82 teams contacted, the small sample size calls into question whether the results of this study truly reflect the preferences for leadership behaviors of the entire population.

Conclusions

The purpose of this study was to determine and explore the differences in NCAA men's intercollegiate soccer players' preferences for leadership behavior based on competition level and player position. In order to examine NCAA men's intercollegiate soccer players' preferences for leadership behaviors, the LSS was administered electronically via email correspondence with head men's soccer coaches of 82 selected institutions. The survey results were then analyzed through the use of SPSS software. A

3x4 totally between subjects ANOVA was run in order to determine the differences in player preferences for five dimensions of leadership behavior (Training and Instruction, Democratic Behavior, Autocratic Behavior, Social Support, and Positive Feedback). Results indicated no significant differences in preferred leadership behaviors based on division level, player position, or a combination of division and position.

Based on the results of the study, the null hypotheses for each of the four research questions could not be rejected. Accordingly, the null hypothesis for research question one and two were accepted; there are no significant differences in preferred leadership across divisions/competition level or player positions. Additionally, the null hypothesis for research questions three and four were also accepted. Specifically, for each position, there are no significant differences in preferred leadership behaviors according to division level. Also, for each division level, there are no significant differences in preferred leadership behaviors dependent on player position.

Recommendations for Future Research

The importance of player preferences for leadership behaviors should not be underestimated. Although player preference is only a piece of the MDML, understanding the coaching and leadership behavior preferences of any individual player is crucial to coaches who desire to optimize the experience and potential of his or her athletes. Player input, therefore, is a critical aspect of understanding what behaviors a coach should utilize when dealing with athletes.

Future research will continue to benefit coaches and provide more understanding of the MDML. Based on the results of this study, future research involving a larger sample size is needed in order to verify or refute the lack of significance in NCAA men's

soccer players' preferences for leadership behaviors according to positions. Future research could replicate this study on a larger scale, involving more players. Additionally, future research should focus on a sample size that is more even distributed among player position.

Additionally, future research is needed to explore whether the lack of significance according to player position is unique to the type of sport. Studies involving player preferences for leadership behavior should focus on sports that vary in terms of task variability by position. Future research may also expand the study to focus on the congruence theory of the MDML and the relationship between player preference and perceptions of leadership behaviors and player satisfaction.

Finally, future research should examine whether there are statistically significant differences in male soccer player's preferences for leadership behaviors across cultures. Results from this study compared with similar studies suggest that while there may not be significant differences in men's soccer players' preferred leadership behaviors according to division level or player position, the variable of culture should be explored to determine if soccer players' preferred leadership behaviors diverge according to culture or nationality.

APPENDIX A

Leadership Scale for Sports (Preference Version)

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

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

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

I prefer my coach to:	1	2	3	4	5
1. See to it that athletes work to capacity.	—	—	—	—	—
2. Ask for the opinion of the athletes on strategies for specific competitions.	—	—	—	—	—
3. Help athletes with their personal problems.	—	—	—	—	—
4. Compliment an athlete for good performance in front of others.	—	—	—	—	—
5. Explain to each athlete the techniques and tactics of the sport.	—	—	—	—	—
6. Plan relatively independent of the athletes.	—	—	—	—	—
7. Help members of the group settle their conflicts.	—	—	—	—	—
8. Pay special attention to correcting athletes' mistakes.	—	—	—	—	—
9. Get group approval on important matters before going ahead.	—	—	—	—	—
10. Tell an athlete when the athlete does a particularly good job.	—	—	—	—	—
11. Make sure that the coach's function in the team is understood by all athletes.	—	—	—	—	—
12. Not explain his/her actions.	—	—	—	—	—
13. Look out for the personal welfare of the athletes.	—	—	—	—	—
14. Instruct every athlete individually in the skills of the sport.	—	—	—	—	—
15. Let the athletes share in decision making.	—	—	—	—	—
16. See that an athlete is rewarded for a good performance.	—	—	—	—	—

17. Figure ahead on what should be done.	—	—	—	—	—
18. Encourage athletes to make suggestions for ways to conduct practices.	—	—	—	—	—
19. Do personal favours for the athletes.	—	—	—	—	—
20. Explain to every athlete what should be done and what should not be done.	—	—	—	—	—
21. Let the athletes set their own goals.	—	—	—	—	—
22. Express any affection felt for the athletes.	—	—	—	—	—
23. Expect every athlete to carry out one's assignment to the last detail.	—	—	—	—	—
24. Let the athletes try their own way even if they make mistakes.	—	—	—	—	—
25. Encourage the athlete to confide in the coach.	—	—	—	—	—
26. Point out each athlete's strengths and weaknesses.	—	—	—	—	—
27. Refuse to compromise on a point.	—	—	—	—	—
28. Express appreciation when an athlete performs well.	—	—	—	—	—
29. Give specific instructions to each athlete on what should be done in every situation.	—	—	—	—	—
30. Ask for the opinion of the athletes on important coaching matters.	—	—	—	—	—
31. Encourage close and informal relations with athletes.	—	—	—	—	—
32. See to it that the athletes' efforts are coordinated.	—	—	—	—	—
33. Let the athletes work at their own speed.	—	—	—	—	—
34. Keep aloof from the athletes.	—	—	—	—	—
35. Explain how each athlete's contribution fits into the total picture.	—	—	—	—	—
36. Invite the athletes home.	—	—	—	—	—
37. Give credit when it is due.	—	—	—	—	—
38. Specify in detail what is expected of athletes.	—	—	—	—	—
39. Let the athletes decide on plays to be used in a game.	—	—	—	—	—
40. Speak in a manner which discourages questions.	—	—	—	—	—

APPENDIX B

Research Introduction Email to Men's Soccer Head Coaches

Dear Coach:

My name is Blake Griffin and I am a former college soccer player and current graduate student in Sport Administration at the University of North Carolina. I am collecting data on NCAA men's soccer players' preferences for leadership behaviors to fulfill my thesis requirement. The study will examine the effect of division level and playing position on players' preferred leadership behaviors. As the head coach of a Division ___ [insert division level of coach] soccer program, I am asking that you forward an email (which I will send to you in the next 24 to 48 hours) to your players that will allow them to participate in this research study.

In order to gather data on players' leadership preferences, I will be using a brief questionnaire called the Leadership Scale for Sports. I have attached a copy of the survey questions so that you can see I am not asking about your specific coaching behaviors or styles. PLEASE DO NOT FORWARD THIS ATTACHMENT, as it is not the actual survey.

Players' answers are all anonymously provided, and the data will be reported collectively – no athlete, coach, soccer program or school will be identifiable. To protect your players' privacy, I will be sending you an email in the next 24 to 48 hours which I am asking that you forward to those players who were on your official roster at the end of the Fall 2008 season. This second email will contain a survey that will take less than 15 minutes for your players to complete. So that I will know how many players the survey is sent to, please carbon copy ("cc") my email address in the forwarded email.

The importance of this study and its findings will be to the broader understanding of leadership and coaching in college soccer. While the leadership style of a coach is ultimately an individual decision, understanding the situational and personal characteristics that affect a player's preference for certain coaching behaviors may be a useful tool for any coach.

Sincerely,

Blake Griffin
The University of North Carolina - Chapel Hill
J.D./M.A.S.A. Candidate 2009

APPENDIX C

Forwarded Email Text to NCAA Men's Soccer Players Including Survey Link

Dear NCAA Men's Soccer Player:

My name is Blake Griffin and I am a former college soccer player and current graduate student in Sport Administration at the University of North Carolina. I am collecting data on NCAA men's soccer players' preferences for leadership behaviors to fulfill my thesis requirement. The study will examine the effect of division level and playing position on players' preferred leadership behaviors.

Participation in this study involves a short survey. The link for this survey is at the end of this email. I would very much appreciate your participation in this study. Participation in this study is voluntary. Declining to participate will have no effect on your team participation and your coach/es will never know whether you participate or not in this study.

Your responses will be anonymous and you will not be asked for your name or institution. You will be one of approximately 1275 respondents throughout the Southeast region and throughout Divisions I, II, and III. Additionally, you may skip any question for any reason.

If you have any questions regarding this study please feel free to contact me at (919) 786-0696 or my Faculty Advisor, Barbara Osborne, at (919) 962-5173. You may also contact the University of North Carolina Institutional Review Board (UNC IRB) at (919) 966-3113. If you choose to contact the UNC IRB please reference study number 09-0332.

By clicking the following link, and completing the survey, the student athlete agrees to be a participant in this study.
https://www.surveymonkey.com/s.aspx?sm=FHtLOXslXhCHQ_2bv_2b8IO6EA_3d_3d

Thank you,

Blake Griffin
The University of North Carolina - Chapel Hill
J.D./M.A.S.A. Candidate 2009

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