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Players' and coaches' perceptions of soccer coaches' specific leadership behaviours

Fadi Y. Ma'ayah
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**PLAYERS' AND COACHES' PERCEPTIONS OF SOCCER COACHES'
SPECIFIC LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOURS**

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By

Fadi Y. Ma'ayah

This thesis is presented for the award of Doctor of Philosophy (Sports Science) at the School of Biomedical and Sports Science, Faculty of Computing, Health and Science, Edith Cowan University, Perth, Western Australia.

USE OF THESIS

The Use of Thesis statement is not included in this version of the thesis.

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Date of Submission 29/11/2003

ABSTRACT

This research has examined players' and coaches' perceptions of the specific leadership behaviours of soccer coaches. The research was comprised two studies, the first a quantitative study and the second a qualitative study. Both studies focused on researching Yukl's (1989, 1994) 14 specific leadership behaviours. These are: (a) team building and conflict management, (b) developing, (c) supporting, (d) rewarding, (e) recognising, (f) motivating and inspiring, (g) delegating, (h) consulting, (i) problem solving, (j) planning, (k) monitoring, (l) clarifying, (m) informing, and (n) networking.

Subjects for Study 1 were 400 randomly selected soccer players and 40 randomly selected soccer coaches. The ratio between the players and the coaches was 10:1.

Results of the MANOVA revealed significant multivariate differences between players' and coaches' perceptions of coaches' behaviours. The univariate ANOVAs revealed that coaches' and players' perceptions differed significantly on ten of the 14 specific behaviours. The MANOVA results showed significant multivariate difference between players' perceptions and the coaches' years of experience. The univariate ANOVAs test revealed that players' perceptions differed significantly on eight specific behaviours. The results of Bonferroni adjusted t tests indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between players' perceptions of their coaches' behaviours. Results of the MANOVA revealed significant multivariate difference in players' perceptions of their coaches' behaviours and the level of competition. The univariate ANOVAs test revealed that 13 specific behaviours were statistically significant. Results of the MANOVA showed significant multivariate

difference between male and female players. The univariate ANOVAs test indicates that players' perceptions differ significantly on six specific behaviours. Results of the MANOVA revealed significant multivariate difference between junior and senior players. The univariate ANOVAs test indicated that only delegating is significant at the 0.001 level.

The qualitative study focused on investigating expert soccer coaches' specific behaviours based on coaches' experience and expertise and involved conducting in-depth interviews with the coaches. The qualitative study focused on how the expert coaches applied the 14 specific behaviours during their work. Furthermore, the qualitative study explored the interaction between the 14 specific behaviours and established a conceptual model for the interaction between them as they emerged from the coaches' own knowledge. Participants were 11 expert soccer coaches from Western Australia, selected according to specific criteria. The interview format followed the guidelines for ethnographic interviews proposed by Spradley (1979). Spradley's (1979) questions were divided into three categories, the first being "descriptive questions", the second "structural questions", and the third "contrast questions". Validation and credibility checks were ongoing and consisted of constantly questioning the interpretation of the coach.

The data was analysed in two stages: deductive and inductive. In the first stage, the researcher used the predetermined set of the 14 specific behaviours (Yukl 1989, 1994) to organise the experts' knowledge and experiences. In the second phase of the data analysis an inductive analysis was used. The inductive approach was used so that the themes and ideas could emerge from the coaches' own experience and

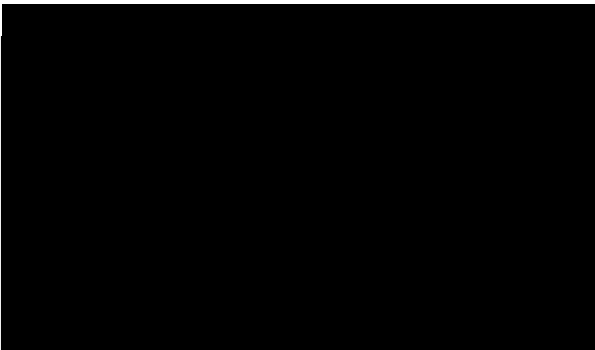
knowledge. This enabled development and discovery of new ideas and themes for all the specific behaviours as well as any interaction between the 14 specific behaviours. All 11 interview transcripts were analysed using the N6 program on a line-by-line basis. N6 is a specifically designed software for qualitative analysis, which was used to assist the researcher in the analysis of the coaches' interviews.

The results in Study 2 showed new themes emerging from the coaches' experiences for each of the 14 specific behaviours. Furthermore, the interaction for every behaviour category with other specific behaviours was revealed. Significant other factors preventing coaches achieving their potential were also obtained. A figure was constructed and presented as a summary for the themes, interactions and the significant other factors preventing coaches achieving their potential for each of the 14 specific behaviours. Coaches' quotes were presented as examples where possible. A conceptual model of the interactions between the 14 specific behaviours was included to explain the details of the interactions between all of the 14 specific behaviours. Furthermore, the study extended the research work on leadership by applying new conceptual model for effective coaching and effective leadership in sport. It is the first model to be developed through empirical research using expert coaches in the Australian soccer environment.

DECLARATION

“I certify that this thesis does not incorporate without acknowledgement any material previously submitted for a degree or diploma in any institution of higher education; and to the best of my knowledge and belief it does not contain any material previously published or written by another person except where due reference is made in the text”.

Signed:



Date: 2-8-04

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CHAPTER ONE

Introduction

Background to the Research

Over the last three decades there have been many studies on leadership and coaching as it relates to sport psychology. However, even though leadership in management and sport psychology is one of the most prolifically discussed disciplines, it remains largely misunderstood (Burns, 1978; Weese, 1995 ; Case 1998). Earlier, leadership research in sport included the quantitative approach of data collection and analysis. An example of this is Danielson, Zelhart, and Drake's (1975) work on studying coaches' leadership behaviours, which led to the development of the Coach Behaviour Description Questionnaire (CBDQ). Another example is Chelladurai and Carron's (1978) and Chelladurai and Saleh's (1980) research on leadership in sport that has led to the creation of the Multidimensional Model of Coaching and the Leadership Scale for Sports (LSS). Additional examples are the Normative Model of Decision Styles in coaching developed by Chelladurai and Haggerty (1978) and the Mediational Model of Leadership, which was formulated from the research of Smith, Smoll and Curtis (1979). This quantitative methodology of investigating coaches' behaviours has involved the modification of research methods from management and

industry. The methodology focused on the general behaviours of consideration and initiating structure into sport psychology (Danielson, Zelhart, & Drake, 1975; Chelladurai and Carron's, 1978; Chelladurai and Haggerty, 1978; Chelladurai & Saleh, 1980). In recent years, new approaches have been proposed to investigate leadership behaviour in management and industry. These new approaches depend on studying specific leadership behaviours, instead of focusing on the general behaviours of consideration and initiating structure. Yukl (1989, 1994), a prominent researcher in the area of leadership, has proposed 14 specific behaviours to improve the understanding of leadership effectiveness. According to Yukl (1989, 1994) research investigating these 14 specific leadership behaviours is limited and there is still a need for further research into this dimension. Investigation in sport leadership has not examined coaches' specific behaviours. Therefore, this research will apply the specific leadership behaviours proposed by Yukl (1989, 1994) to soccer coaches in their working environment.

The aforementioned quantitative research on leadership behaviours has been complemented by more recent qualitative methodologies, which have extended the research into leadership and coaching. For example, Weiss, Barber, Sisley, and Ebbeck (1991) have studied the confidence and competence of novice coaches. Salmela (1995) has investigated the knowledge of expert team sport coaches. The importance of studying coach expertise is further highlighted by the significant amount of research in this area and by the biographies of many elite coaches in a variety of sports. Examples include: Sabock (1985) *The coach*; Wooden (1988) *They call me coach*; Lusetich (1992) *Farnk Arok: My beloved socceros*; Prior (1995)

Sheeds: A touch of cunning; Simpson (1996) *The reasons why*; Smithers and Appleby (1996) *No limits: Joyce Brown*; and Wukovits(1997) *Vince Lombardi*.

In an attempt to enhance the research in the area of leadership, Bryman, Bresnen, Beardsworth and Keil (1988) suggest that introducing qualitative research methods. Strean (1998) suggests that coaches and players do not benefit from sport psychology research because of the profound gap between theory and practice. He indicates that most of the research “does not connect with players’ and coaches’ everyday life experience” (Strean, 1998, p. 342). Strean recommends that this could be resolved by applying qualitative methodologies to sport psychology. As a result it was decided to use both quantitative and qualitative methodologies in the present research to investigate soccer coaches’ specific leadership behaviours. Yukl’s model focuses more on studying specific leadership behaviours than general behaviours.

This introductory chapter outlines the background to the research and includes an overview of the research and concepts in the area of leadership in management and industry, together with a review of leadership in sport. This overview is followed by the purpose of the study, together with a description of the problem under investigation. The chapter concludes with the research questions and discussion regarding the significance of the study, and an overview of the following chapters. A review of the relevant literature has indicated that the study of leadership in sport has emerged from the disciplines of management and industry and has been adapted to the sport setting. The following review will examine previous research of leadership in management and industry and discuss the study of leadership in sport.

Definitions of leadership vary according to the researcher's individual perspectives and interest in the leadership concept (Yukl, 1989, 1994). In his survey of the leadership literature Stogdil (1974) concluded that there were many definitions of the term 'leadership', almost as many as there were people who had attempted to establish a base definition. Fiedler (1967), a leading researcher in leadership, defines a leader as: "The individual in the group given the task of directing and coordinating task-relevant group activities or who, in the absence of a designated leader, carries the primary responsibility for performing these functions in the group" (p. 8). Jacobs (1970), another prominent researcher in the area of leadership, described leadership as an interaction between persons, where one person may assume the role of 'the learner', while assuming that his / her behaviour will improve by following the leaders' example.

The proliferation of different approaches towards leadership behaviour in management and industry indicates the significance of the area. Initial studies indicated that consideration and initiating structure were the two main components of leadership behaviour (Fleishman, 1953; Halpin, 1954; Hemphill, 1950). There has been a drive to investigate more specific approaches to measuring leadership behaviour (Yukl, 1989, 1994). As a result, different factors have been used within leadership classifications. Yukl has compared between researchers efforts in this area and found many similarities in these taxonomies. As a result, he presents an integrative comprehensive taxonomy based on research from a wide variety of studies that used both empirical and theoretical approaches for determining the

content range of effective managerial behaviour. Yukl's work resulted in identifying 14 middle range specific behaviours, these were called "managerial practices". These were: (a) team building and conflict management, (b) developing, (c) supporting, (d) rewarding, (e) recognising, (f) motivating and inspiring, (g) delegating, (h) consulting, (i) problem solving, (j) planning, (k) monitoring, (l) clarifying, (m) informing, and (n) networking.

Leadership in Sport

The following researchers have defined leadership in sport in the following ways:

According to Sabock (1985):

Leadership is not so much leading as having the people led accept you.

You know how you do that? You've got to win the hearts of the people that you lead. The personality of the individual has a lot to do with it (p. 104).

In his manual for coaches, Martens (1987) gives a comprehensive definition of leadership in sport: "Coaching is face to face leadership that pulls together people with diverse backgrounds, talents, experiences and interests, encourages them to step up to responsibility and continued achievement, and treats them as full-scale partners and contributors" (p. 34). In the *Coaches Guide to Sport Administration*, Leith (1990) defines leadership in sport as "the process of guiding the program and supervising athletes" (p. 49).

Researchers have also used different approaches to their studies of leadership in sport and have focused on studying coach leadership. For example, there have been studies of coaches' styles of leadership (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1978; Gordon, 1988; Black & Weiss, 1992), the relationship between coaches and young athletes (Smith, Smoll, & Curtis, 1979), the role of the coach in developing team cohesion (Westre & Weiss, 1991), coaches' personalities, and the application of leadership theories to coaching (Case 1987). Much of this work has been modelled on research in management and industry.

Leadership in sports research has focused on a range of areas such as coaching in general (Massengale, 1975; Singer, 1972); coaches' personality (Hendry, 1974); and on coaches' style of decision-making (Chelladurai & Haggerty, 1978). Furthermore, different approaches to studying coaches' leadership behaviour have been used. These include:

1. The modifying of work in management and industry to accommodate sport psychology (Chelladurai, 1984; Chelladurai & Saleh, 1980; Danielson, Zelhart & Drake, 1975).
2. The use of methodology designed for observing physical education teachers during a teaching exercise. These procedures were transferred and adapted to the observation of coaches' behaviours (Lacy & Darst 1984; Lacy & Goldston, 1990; Lacy & Martin, 1994; Tharp & Gallimore, 1976).
3. The coding and analysing the behaviour of sport coaches during competitive games by focusing on reactive and spontaneous coaching behaviours (Smith, Smoll & Hunt 1977; Smith, Smoll & Curtis, 1979).

As a result, different models and questionnaires have been constructed to measure coach behaviour. Most of the questionnaires, however, have been heavily dependent on research in management and industry. A benchmark example is the Coach Behaviour Description Questionnaire (CBDQ) (Danielson, Zelhart & Drake, 1975) which was designed to measure coach leadership behaviour. The CBDQ was based on the original Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) (Hemphill & Coons, 1957). In a similar way other scales have been developed. An example is the Leadership Scale for Sport (LSS) (Chelladurai & Saleh 1980) which was developed from the following leadership scales: LBDQ (Halpin, 1957), LBDQ- Form XII (Stogdill, 1963), Supervisory Behaviour Description Questionnaire (Fleishman, 1957a), and Leadership Opinion Questionnaire (Fleishman, 1957b). Another major instrument is the Coaching Behaviour Assessment System (CBAS) (Smith, Smoll, & Hunt, 1977). This scale was developed by observing the behaviours of coaches of youth in soccer, basketball and baseball. The Arizona State University Observation Instrument (ASUOI) is another observation instrument, which was developed by Lacy and Darst (1984). The majority of research using this instrument has involved studies of the leadership behaviour of basketball coaches.

In most previous research the emphasis has been on the outcomes of the coach leadership. Such as satisfaction, team performance (win/loss records) (Chelladurai, 1984; 1993) and players' perceptions of coach behaviour and players' evaluative reactions (Smith, Smoll, & Curtis, 1979; Smith, Smoll, & Coppel, 1983). It is important, however, when researching leadership effectiveness to not only investigate outcomes but to adopt a much broader approach and distinguish between

outcomes and consequences as the effective criterion in coaching. Most measurements of leadership effectiveness rely on outcome statements; however more emphasis is required on assessing the consequences associated with those outcomes and the influence that a coach can have on modifying players' behaviour and perceptions of the current situation.

The research in sport leadership has not maintained the same momentum as leadership in industry and management. Recently, different taxonomies have been introduced which assist in investigating leadership behaviours. Yukl (1989, 1994) suggests an integrative model of effective leadership behaviour in which a leader's behaviour is explained through four primary tasks: (a) influencing people; (b) building relationships; (c) making decisions; and (d) giving-seeking information. Each task has different specific behaviours to manage the work or the relationships.

Leadership behaviours have also been studied as isolated behaviours such as, decision making for coaches. The present study is designed to extend previous research in sport leadership by examining the specific behaviours of coaches in relation to factors such as their own and their players' perceptions; their experience; the level of competition; players' gender and players' age. Previous research on leadership in sport has not systematically examined the effectiveness of different patterns of behaviours in coaching. This situation has created a need for further research to be performed in this area. Specific attention will be directed towards determining how coaches incorporate different patterns of behaviours in their work. Most previous research in this area has examined individual behaviour rather than the patterns of specific behaviours as proposed by Yukl. According to Yukl (1989),

"It is likely that specific behaviours interact in complex ways, and that leadership effectiveness cannot be understood unless these interactions are studied" (p. 72).

This research has also investigated the complex interactions between specific behaviours which have been developed into a conceptual model. Smithers and Appleby (1996) provide an example of how the expert Australian netball coach, Joyce Brown, demonstrated the practical use of interaction between monitoring and planning. They explained how Brown monitored her players and their opposition team members to assist her in planning and preparing the Australian netball team in their quest to win the World Netball Championship. This example demonstrates a successful attempt by an experienced sporting coach to utilise the practical application of the interaction between monitoring and planning.

Purpose of the Research

This research involved two studies, the first being quantitative and the second being qualitative. The quantitative study (Study 1) required the development of a new questionnaire to measure the specific leadership behaviours of coaches. This questionnaire expanded the body of knowledge on sports leadership behaviour. The quantitative study had two parts. Primarily, it focused on players' and coaches' perceptions of soccer coach behaviour and coaches' years of experience. Secondly, it focused on the level of competition, players' gender, age and the effect of these factors had on players' perceptions. The researcher included the investigation of players' and coaches' perceptions and coaches' years of experience since these have been highlighted in the previous literature (Shaver, 1975; Smith, Smoll & Hunt,

1977; Smoll & Smith, 1989; Riemer & Chelladurai, 1998; Gary & Curtis, 1991; Cote et al., 1995 & Solomon et al., 1998).

The qualitative study (Study 2) focused on investigating the specific leadership behaviours of the expert soccer coaches'. This required in-depth interviews with the coaches to collect qualitative data. The qualitative approach focused on the themes as they emerged from the interviews, the interactions between behaviours, and significant other factors preventing coaches from achieving their potential. This led to a conceptual model for each of the specific behaviours and an overall conceptual model of the interactions between all the 14 behaviours. Figure 1 represents the two studies in the research project.

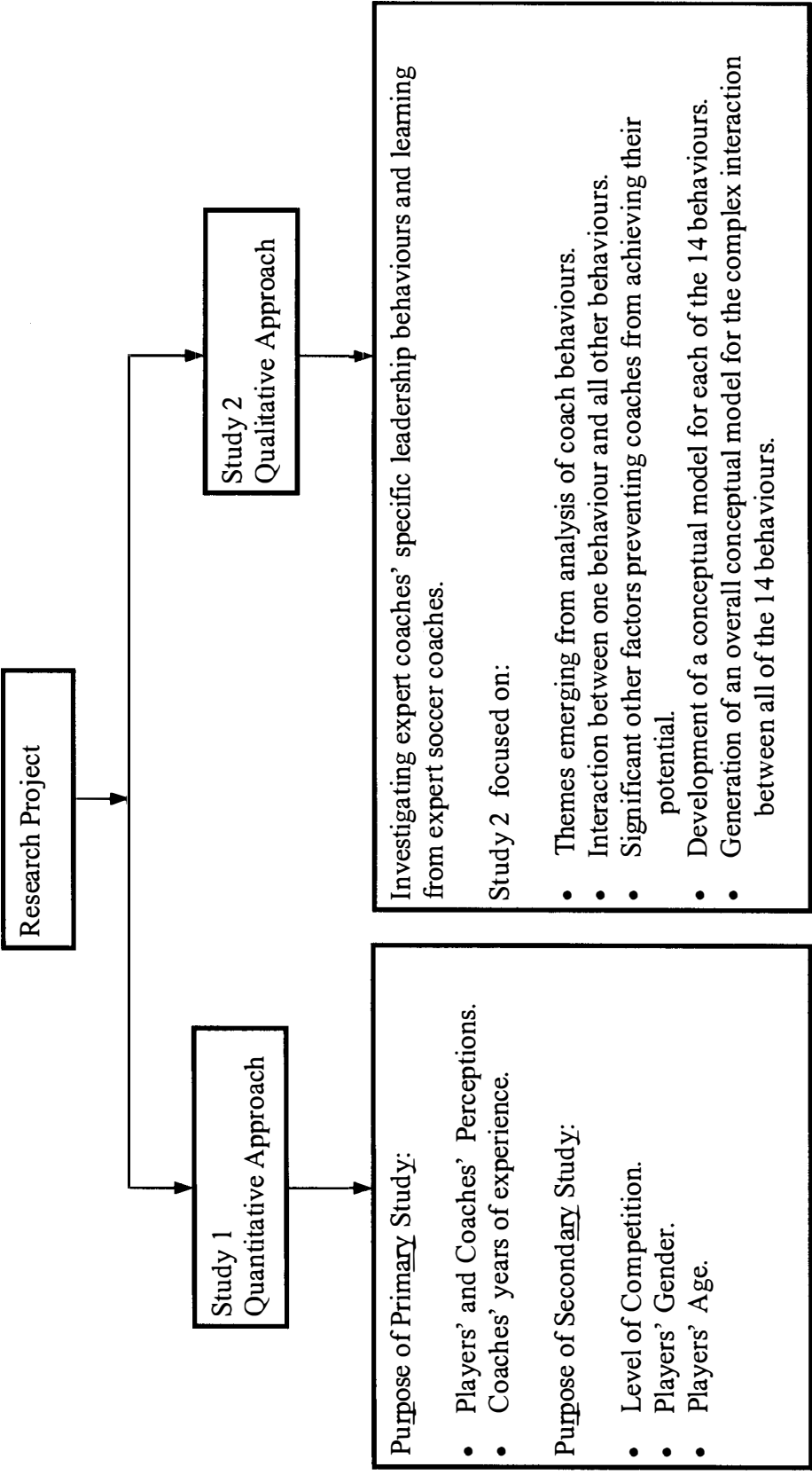


Figure 1. Purpose of the research

Purpose of Study 1

As mentioned earlier (p.9), Study 1 has been divided into two major sections, these are the primary and secondary. The purpose of Study 1 is presented here for each section. The decision to name these two components quantitative study (study 1) primary and secondary was based on past research which suggests that coaches' and players' perceptions of leadership behaviours and years of experience are fundamental to success. Whereas level of competition, gender and age have shown mixed results in the research. Hence these constitute the secondary study.

Purpose of Primary Study

The purpose of the primary study was to investigate coaches' and players' perceptions of the soccer coach leadership behaviours. The aims were to:

1. Identify differences between coaches' perceptions and players' perception of specific leadership behaviours.
2. Determine players' perceptions of the differences between the specific leadership behaviours of coaches and their years of experience.

The importance of perceptions has been highlighted by Shaver (1975), Riemer and Chelladurai (1998), Smith, Smoll, and Hunt (1977), and Smith and Smoll (1989) whose work is presented in detail chapter 2. Coaching experience and levels of the competition has also been the focus of considerable research such as: Curtin (1977),

Weiss and Friedrichs (1986), Solomon, Di Marco, et al., (1998). These studies are described in chapter 2.

Purpose of Secondary Study

The purpose of the secondary study was to investigate players' perceptions of the leadership behaviours of soccer coaches. The aims were to:

1. Analyse the differences in players' perceptions of their coaches' leadership behaviours and between players in different levels of competition.
2. Determine the gender-related differences between male and female players' perceptions of their coaches' leadership behaviours.
3. Examine the age-related differences between junior and senior players' perceptions of their coaches' leadership behaviours.

Study 1 (primary and secondary) required the development of a new questionnaire to measure coaches' specific behaviours. Study 1 employed this questionnaire to research leadership behaviour in sport, thereby expanding the body of knowledge of leadership behaviour. Thus, study 1 will apply Yukl's (1989, 1994) specific leadership behaviours into the coaching domain. There is no evidence in the literature to suggest that a study of this type has been conducted.

Purpose of Study 2

The purpose of Study 2 was to determine the appropriateness of applying Yukl's 14 specific behaviours to an analysis of coaches' perceptions of their own behaviours. The researcher used interviews with expert coaches to gather information on how they develop and use patterns of specific behaviours during their coaching career. The findings of this study will lead to an increased understanding of the effectiveness of coaching. Furthermore, the study will reveal what kinds of themes the expert coaches have experienced in all of the 14 specific behaviours. In addition, the study will develop a conceptual model to investigate the relations between the different themes and the interaction between all of the 14 specific behaviours. The objectives of the second study were to:

1. Gather from expert coaches their experiences in each of the 14 specific behaviours.
2. Ascertain the interactions between each behaviour and the other behaviours.
3. Gather data from expert coaches on which significant other factors prevented them from achieving their potential.
4. Develop a conceptual model that will lead to an understanding and organisation of the behaviours, interactions and significant other factors for each of the 14 behaviours.

5. Develop an overall conceptual model to illustrate the complex interaction between all of the 14 behaviours.

Statement of Problem

In his evaluation of the behavioural approach to the study of leadership, Yukl (1989, 1994) indicated that the long fixation with studying the general behaviours of consideration and initiating structure when investigating leadership behaviours appears to have ended. Most researchers now realise that it is necessary to examine more specific types of behaviours to understand leadership effectiveness. (Yukl 1989, 1994).

By reviewing and comparing the leadership literature in sport psychology and management and industry, it is evident that the research into the leadership behaviour of coaches has not kept abreast with the recent advances in leadership in management and industry. Therefore, there is a need to investigate specific types of coach behaviours to increase our understanding of leadership effectiveness. Yukl (1989) developed a comprehensive model called “the managerial practices”. In this study, Yukl’s model will be applied to the researching of specific behaviours of soccer coaches and the use of different patterns of behaviours by these coaches. This study will overcome the limitations in previous sport leadership research by providing a more in-depth understanding of the dynamics of coaches' leadership behaviours.

Chelladurai and Saleh (1978) found gender to be an important determinant of preferred leadership behaviour. In their study of 160 physical education students, they found that males preferred their coaches to be more autocratic yet more supportive than females. Erle (1981, cited in Chelladurai 1993) reported similar findings in his study of 335 male and female hockey players. Chelladurai (1984) found that athletes involved in team sports preferred more training and instruction than did the athletes participating in individual sports. These findings have in part addressed players' preferences for their coaches' behaviour. However, there is a need to go further to investigate coaches' specific behaviours. This Research will examine the specific leadership behaviours of coaches as related to the following factors: (a) players' and coaches' perceptions, (b) years of experience in coaching, (c) teams of different levels of competition, (d) players of different gender, and (e) players of different age levels. In addition, the study will investigate the use of different patterns of specific behaviours used by expert soccer coaches to accomplish their goals. To date, there is little research that has addressed coaches' specific leadership behaviours.

Another key concern in sports leadership research is the potential to cause confusion when research mixes leadership behaviour and leadership style. Behaviour is defined by McLaughlin (1990, p.13) as "the observable actions of people, that is anything a person does, for example, walking, running, talking". Leadership style on the other hand is referred to by Northouse (2001, p.57) as, "the behaviour pattern of an individual who attempts to influence others. It includes both directive (task) behaviour and supportive (relationship) behaviours". Therefore, behaviour maybe a singular or repeatable action; however, a style is related to the overall quality and

manner of influence. This difference suggests that future research should separate leadership behaviour and leadership style.

In general, the aim of researchers interested in studying experts is to learn from their knowledge which they gathered from their many years of experience. Experts possess and draw upon vast and diverse amounts of information from their overall career. As indicated by Dodds (1994):

Experts are highly motivated to learn and have learned more from their experiences than more ordinary people. What they have learned is more easily remembered and more effectively connected to other knowledge than in domains in which they are not expert (p.154).

Recently De Marco and Mc Cullick (1997) have explained how much can be learnt from expert coaches. They state that, "Expert coaches are highly perceptive and are superior problem solvers" (De Marco & Mc Cullick, 1997, p.38). It is very important to learn how these coaches solve their player and team problems. Dodds (1994) also comments that "Experts can retrieve knowledge appropriately and transfer it more easily to unfamiliar situations. They perform smoothly, effortlessly, appropriately, and in context" (p.154-155). This study is designed to investigate these issues and extend our knowledge of how coaches provide leadership for their teams.

De Marco and Mc Cullick (1997) also noted that, "Expert coaches have developed self-monitoring skills" (P.39). These skills involve coaches keeping a special diary, being more aware, analytical, evaluative, and corrective of their performance by

watching themselves on game and practice video. The results of this research should provide an insight to how expert coaches have developed such skills and how they use monitoring with other behaviours in their work.

Research Questions

Study 1 Questions

In the primary and secondary studies in study 1, the following questions are addressed:

Primary Study Questions.

1. Do players perceive the leadership behaviours of their coaches differently from the way that their coaches perceive their own behaviours?
2. Does a coach's level of experience affect players' perceptions of leadership behaviours?

Secondary Study Questions.

1. Does the level of competition affect players' perceptions of coach leadership behaviours?
2. Are there gender-related differences in players' perceptions of coach leadership behaviours?

3. Are there age-related differences in players' perceptions of coach leadership behaviours?

Study 2

The second study investigated the appropriateness of applying Yukl's 14 specific behaviours into coaching based on the analysis of expert coaches perceptions of their own behaviours. Therefore, the following central questions initiated and directed the research:

1. What kinds of experiences have the coach had in each of the 14 specific behaviours?
2. What are the interactions between each behaviour and the other 13 behaviours?
3. What significant other factors prevent coaches from achieving their potential?
4. What conceptual model can be developed to understand and organise the behaviours, interactions, and significant other factors for each of the 14 specific behaviours?
5. What overall conceptual model can be developed to investigate the complex interaction between all of the 14 specific behaviours based on a real life coaching perspective?

Due to the nature of the research, it is important to impose limitations on the scope of the study. In terms of possible emergent concepts, the following 14 specific behaviours as specified by Yukl (1989, 1994) served to guide data collection. These

were: (a) team building and conflict management, (b) developing, (c) supporting, (d) rewarding, (e) recognising, (f) motivating and inspiring, (g) delegating, (h) consulting, (i) problem solving, (j) planning, (k) monitoring, (l) clarifying, (m) informing, and (n) networking.

Significance of the Research

Much of the previous research on the leadership behaviour of coaches has investigated individual behaviours in order to measure task and relationships (Chelladurai, 1984; Danielson, Zelhart & Drake, 1975; Smith & Smoll, 1990). This study has investigated coaches' specific leadership behaviours in a comprehensive way as first proposed by Yukl (1989) and further extended by Yukl (1994). Moreover, the study examined the use of different patterns of behaviours by expert soccer coaches. To date there is no evidence in the literature to demonstrate that a study of this type has been previously carried out.

There have been many instruments proposed to measure coach leadership behaviour such as the Coach Behaviour Description Questionnaire or CBDQ (Danielson, Zelhart and Drake, 1975); the Coaching Behaviour Assessment System CBAS (Smith, Smoll & Hunt, 1977); the Leadership Scale for Sports LSS (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1980). While these instruments measure coaches' behaviour in two dimensions - task and relations, a new questionnaire was developed for this study to measure 14 specific coach leadership behaviours instead of measuring a few behaviours within two major dimensions. The use of this questionnaire will help researchers to gain a better understanding of coach leadership behaviours. It will be

employed to research leadership behaviour in sport and will expand the previous research results on leadership behaviour.

According to Yukl (1994), it is important to understand how effective leaders use different patterns of behaviours to achieve their objectives:

Most research on leadership effectiveness has examined behaviours individually rather than examining how effective leaders use patterns of specific behaviours to accomplish their agendas. It is likely that specific behaviours interact in complex ways, and the leadership effectiveness cannot be understood unless these interactions are studied. (p. 72).

This principle also applies to the sporting environment and it is important to investigate how coaches use different patterns of behaviours to achieve their goals. In spite of the considerable efforts of past researchers, there is a need for a more comprehensive study on coach behaviour. There is also a need for further understanding of other behaviours, which have not been examined previously, such as problem solving, clarifying, informing, networking, team building and conflict management. There is a need to understand the use of different patterns of behaviours by coaches. Chelladurai and Haggerty (1978) have studied coach behaviours as isolated behaviours. In their research, decision making was studied according to three decision styles (the autocratic, the delegative, and participative). It would be beneficial to gain a further understanding of how coaches use other behaviours to help them make decisions at the appropriate time. This study will be

the first to systematically investigate the interaction of specific behaviours by effective coaches in real life coaching situations.

Study 1 has utilised a specifically designed instrument that was tested for validity and reliability. This instrument measured coaches' specific leadership behaviours. The specific behaviours were: (a) team building and conflict management, (b) developing, (c) supporting, (d) rewarding, (e) recognising, (f) motivating and inspiring, (g) delegating, (h) consulting, (i) problem solving, (j) planning, (k) monitoring, (l) clarifying, (m) informing and (n) networking. This study examines coaches' specific leadership behaviours as related to the following factors: (a) players' and coaches' perceptions, (b) years of experience in coaching, (c) teams of different levels of competition, (d) players of different gender, (e) players of different age levels.

The initial part of Study 1 involved the validation and reliability of the instrument. This procedure was followed by the distribution of the instrument to the players and coaches in order to collect the data required to examine the proposed questions in study one.

The proposed research will make a significant contribution to the psychology of sport, specifically in the leadership area where there has been a significant decline in research in recent years. There is: (a) clearly a need for more valid and reliable tools for measuring leadership behaviour, (b) a lack of understanding of the variables under investigation in leadership behaviour, and (c) little knowledge of the

interactive processes and the specific behaviour of coaches in terms of leadership. It is believed that both the quantitative and qualitative studies proposed here will make a significant contribution to eliminating these deficiencies.

Assumptions

As suggested by Bailey (1997) researchers need to examine two types of assumptions. These are “the ideological principles upon which the study is based,, and assumption that are made “concerning the procedures used in the study” (p.81). The following assumptions address both types of assumptions:

1. The research is based on investigating the soccer coaches’ specific leadership behaviours.
2. A basic assumption made in the investigation of coach leadership behaviour has been that coaches, whether they are paid as full time or part time employees, act in a similar manner and perform their designated tasks professionally.
3. It was recognised that some of the expert coaches who were part time in this study work within a semi-professional environment. That means the structure and support available to them is more limited than that given to full time professionals.

4. Coaches who met the criteria for inclusion in this study are recognised as having the experience and background to offer an educated contribution to the research.

Limitations and Delimitations

1. The scope of the study is limited to soccer in Australia, and therefore the context is bound in terms of time and location. The findings of both studies in this research are an interpretation of the data gathered, analysed and interpreted during the research process.
2. In the qualitative study the 11 expert coaches were all male coaches. The researcher could not find any female soccer coach with the relevant expertise in WA at the time of data collection.
3. The researcher initially identified 20 expert coaches to participate in the qualitative study. However, only 11 were available for interviews.
4. All the 11 expert coaches were coaching at the elite level at the time of data collection in WA.
5. Yukl and his colleagues conducted a research program to identify measurable categories of leadership behaviour. After four years of research which included six different samples of leaders, fourteen behaviour categories were identified in early research, and five additional categories have been isolated

in the follow-up research (Yukl & Nemeroff 1979; Yukl 1981). This research therefore only investigated the 14 behaviours.

6. In both studies there are delimitations and therefore the findings of both studies in this research are limited to soccer in Australia, there is a need for further research to see the application of the results of this research to other sporting codes.
7. The results of this study are delimited to the specific leadership behaviours as perceived by soccer players and expert soccer coaches participating in the professional, semi professional competition in Australia.

Summary of Thesis

The two studies used different approaches and methods. Whilst the quantitative study used questionnaires for data collection, the qualitative study used in depth interviews. Whereas Study 1 used a large number of subjects 400 players and 40 coaches, Study 2 used 11 coaches. As a result of the significant differences in the methodologies and approaches, the researcher has chosen to present the two studies as different entities in two separate chapters. It was believed that this procedure would help in distinguishing the methods, pilot studies, results and discussion. This would also enable the researcher to highlight the outcome that was achieved in both studies. Study 1 will be presented in Chapter 4 and Study 2 will be presented in Chapter 5.

CHAPTER TWO

Literature Review

Introduction

This chapter outlines the essential research that has been undertaken by Yukl over many years. It will demonstrate how Yukl developed a taxonomy of behaviours as they relate to managerial leadership practices and will investigate the importance of studying the specific leadership behaviours that have been acknowledged by Yukl (1989, 1994). The extensive research and development of specific leadership behaviours by Yukl has been selected to provide the basis for the research being undertaken in the two studies in this thesis. This literature review will also include a comparison between Yukl's work and other previous researchers' efforts. In addition, the review will show that the leadership research in sport has not benefited from more recent approaches in management and industry especially the need to focus on studying specific leadership behaviours. The review will point out how Yukl's work can be related to the research on coaching and leadership across the sporting domain.

This chapter also addresses research on coaches and leadership in sport and soccer coaches in general. This general overview is followed by a specific review of the

variables considered in the research study. The variables for study one include: players' and coaches' perceptions, coaches' years of experience, levels of competition, players' gender and players' age. The chapter concludes with a review of the literature relating to qualitative research into coaching in general, with a specific focus on expert coaching. A review of the theories and models of leadership in management and sport is provided in detail in chapter three. An overall summary is provided in the conclusion of the chapter.

Yukl's Research Investigating Specific Leadership Behaviours in Management and Industry.

Since Yukl's research is fundamental to the research framework of this thesis the following section describes in detail Yukl's research investigating specific leadership behaviours. Yukl's first cited work was in 1967 in which he conducted his doctoral thesis by investigating leader characteristics and situational variables as co-determinants of leader behaviour. Following this initial research Yukl has developed as a leading researcher in the area of leadership and its application to industry and management. This section will summarise these aspects of Yukl's research which specifically relate to this research project.

Yukl's work has involved the extensive testing and development of new measurement instruments which have made significant contributions to the research literature in this area (Yukl, 1969, 1970, 1983, 1987, 1988; Yukl & Kim, 1995; Yukl & Lepsinger, 1991; Yukl & Lepsinger & Lucia 1992; Yukl and Nemeroff, 1979; Yukl, Wall & Lepsinger, 1990). The extensive research by Yukl et al. has led to the

development of a significant number of leadership measurement instruments including the Managerial Practices Survey MPS. The MPS is designed to measure 14 specific behaviours of managerial leadership.

Another major area of research that Yukl and his colleagues have been involved in is the testing of previous leadership theories and the investigation of leadership effectiveness (Yukl, 1971, Yukl & Clemence, 1984; Yukl & Kanuk, 1979; Yukl & Van Fleet, 1982). The outcome from Yukl et al.'s work on the testing of leadership theories and the investigation of leadership effectiveness has resulted in the development of the new models of leadership effectiveness. The Multiple-linkage model (Yukl, 1989, 1994) is a major outcome of the aforementioned research. According to the model, the effect of leader behaviour on work unit performance is mediated by individual-level intervening variables (subordinate effort, role clarity, and ability) and by group-level intervening variables (work organisation, teamwork, resources for doing the work, and external coordination) (Yukl & Kim 1995). This model identifies 14 specific behaviour categories of leadership behaviours. Some of these behaviours are used mainly to influence the individual-level intervening variables. Other leadership behaviours are used mainly to improve group-level intervening variables. Yukl and Kim's (1995) research has demonstrated that effective leadership depends on the overall pattern of leader behaviour and its relevance to the situation. Situational variables (e.g., the nature of the task, the characteristics of subordinates, and the external environment) influence the intervening variables and determine which leadership behaviours are most relevant for a particular manager.

According to Yukl (1989, 1994, 2002) the proliferation of different approaches towards the study of leadership in management and industry highlights the significance of this area. Initial studies indicated that consideration and initiating structure were the two main sources of leadership behaviour (Fleishman, 1953; Halpin, 1954; Hemphill, 1950). There has, however been a drive to investigate more specific behaviours (Yukl, 1989, 1994, 2002). As a result, different factors have been used within leadership classifications.

Yukl's Taxonomies

Yukl (1989) states: "A major problem in research on the content of leadership behaviour has been the identification of behaviour categories that are relevant and meaningful" (p.92). Different researchers have used different methods to investigate leadership behaviours that resulted in many different taxonomies proposed by the different researchers. Yukl (1989) listed the major taxonomies according to the author/authors and date, the number of categories reported, the primary purpose of the taxonomy, and the approach used for developing the taxonomy. These major taxonomies are presented in Table 1 (Yukl 1989, p. 93).

Table 1

Overview of Behaviour Taxonomies

Authors and Dates	Number of Categories	Primary Purpose	Approach for Developing
Fleishman (1953)	2	Identify effective leader behaviour	Factor analysis
Stogdill (1963)	12	Identify effective leader behaviour	Theoretical- deductive
Mahoney, Jerdee, & Carrol (1963, 1965)	8	Describe position requirements	Theoretical- deductive
Bowers & Seashore (1966)	4	Identify effective leader behaviour	Theoretical- deductive
Mintzberg (1973)	10	Classify observed activities	Judgmental classification
House & Mitchell (1974)	4	Identify effective leader behaviour	Theoretical- deductive
Morse & Wagner (1978)	6	Identify effective leader behaviour	Factor analysis
Yukl & Nemeroff (1979)	15	Identify effective leader behaviour	Factor analysis
Luthans & Lockwood (1984)	12	Classify observed behaviour	Judgmental classification
Page (1985)	10	Describe position requirements	Factor analysis
Yukl (1988)	14	Identify effective leader behaviour	Factor analysis

Yukl (1987, 1988, 1989) compared most of these taxonomies and found many similarities in them despite the differences in the approaches used to investigate these taxonomies. Yukl's comparison is shown in Table 2. Yukl's comparison between these taxonomies and his work on leadership behaviour resulted in identifying a wide range of leadership specific behaviour. These behaviours apply to most managerial and leadership positions. As a result, he presented an integrative comprehensive taxonomy that was based on research from a wide variety of studies using both empirical and theoretical approaches for determining the content range of effective managerial behaviour. Yukl's (1989, 1994) work resulted in identifying 14 middle range specific behaviours, which he called "managerial practices". They were: (a) team building and conflict management, (b) developing, (c) supporting, (d) rewarding, (e) recognising, (f) motivating and inspiring, (g) delegating, (h) consulting, (i) problem solving, (j) planning, (k) monitoring, (l) clarifying, (m) informing, and (n) networking.

According to Yukl (1989, 1994, 2002), by investigating specific leadership behaviours, our understanding of leadership effectiveness will improve. It would be of significant benefit to utilize his theoretical framework and apply it to the sporting domain to investigate the specific behaviours of coaches. As this study will focus on the specific leadership behaviours purely. So far there is no evidence in the literature to suggest that a study of this type had been carried out.

Table 2

Approximate Correspondence Among Major Taxonomies

Yukl 1988	Mintzberg 1973	Morse & Wagner 1978	Stogdill 1963	Bowers & Seashore 1966	House & Mitchell 1984	Luthans & Lockwood 1984	Page 1985
Supporting		*	Consideration	Leader Support	Supportive Leadership	*	*
Consulting		*	*	*	Participative Leadership		*
Delegating		*	Tolerance of Freedom	*	*		
Recognizing		*	*	*	*	Motivating	
Rewarding		*	*	*	*	&	
Motivating			Production Emphasis	Goal Emphasis	Achievement Oriented Leadership	Reinforcing	Supervising
Managing Conflict & Team Building Developing	Leader Role	Motivating & Conflict Handling	Integration	Interaction Facilitation	*	Managing Conflict	
Clarifying		Providing Development	*		*	Training & Developing	
Planning & Organizing	Resource Allocator; Entrepreneur	* Organizing & Coordinating	Initiating Structure		Directive Leadership	*	Planning & Organizing; Strategic Planning
Problem Solving	Disturbance Handler	Strategic Problem solving	Role Assumption	Work Facilitation	*	Problem Solving & Deciding	Decision Making
Informing	Disseminator	Information Handling	*	*	*	Exchanging Information	Consulting
Monitoring	Monitor	*	*	*	*	Monitoring /Controlling	Monitoring Indicators, Controlling
Representing	Spokesman Negotiator; Figure Head	*	Representing; Influencing Superiors	*	*	Interacting With Outsiders; Socializing &	Representing
Networking & Interfacing	Liaison	Managing Environment & Resources	*	*	*	Politicking	Coordinating

*Indicates behaviour not included in the earlier taxonomy. (Yukl, 1989, 1994)

Table 2 highlights the comprehensive work on the specific leadership behaviours covered by Yukl. It also indicates that most of the specific behaviours have not been included in the earlier taxonomies constructed and utilised by other researchers.

Yukl's Integrating Taxonomy of Managerial Behaviours

Yukl's taxonomies will assist in investigating coaches' specific leadership behaviours. This will be achieved by developing a new instrument to measure the coaches specific behaviours. It will also be achieved by conducting in-depth interviews with the expert soccer coaches. Yukl (1989) suggested an integrative model of effective leadership behaviour (see figure 2) in which the leader's behaviour was explained through four primary tasks. These are: (a) influencing people; (b) building relationships; (c) making decisions; and (d) giving-seeking information. Each task has different specific behaviours to manage the work or the relationships.

Yukl (1989) comments on the limitations of measuring managerial effectiveness because of the lack of comparability studies in the field thus rendering it speculative. Significant new information can be acquired by using Yukl's (1989) taxonomy of managerial behaviour as a template to extract data from expert sports coaches' career experiences. In the context of soccer, the qualitative research methodology in Study 2 gathers evidence from coaches without imposing any ideas on them. As a result, a modification may occur in the taxonomy, which will enable it to be used within a sports coaching framework.

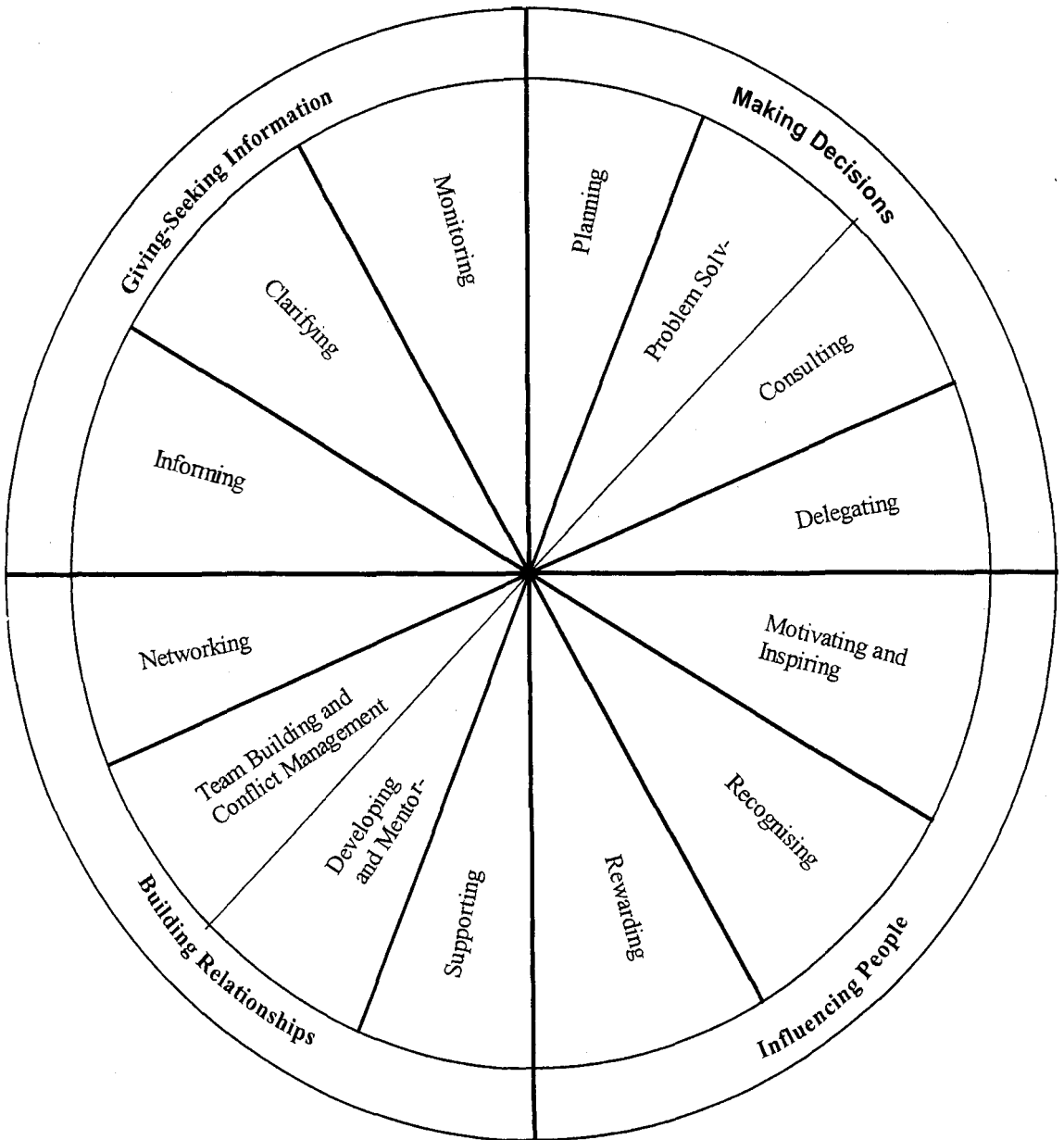


Figure 2. Integrating Taxonomy of Managerial Behaviour. (Yukl, 1989).

Yukl provided comprehensive definitions for each behaviour over many years (1981, 1989, 1994, 1998, 2002). In the latest edition of *Leadership in Organisations* (Yukl 2002, p. 64), he gave detailed definitions for all the 14 behaviours. These definitions are presented in Table 3.

Table 3
Definition of the Managerial Practices.

Behaviour Planning and Organising	<p>Definition</p> <p>Determining long-term objectives and strategies, allocating resources according to priorities, determining how to use personnel and resources to accomplish a task efficiently, and determining how to improve coordination, productivity, and the effectiveness of the organisation unit.</p>
Problem Solving	<p>Identifying work-related problems, analyzing them in a timely but systematic manner to identify causes and find solutions, and acting decisively to implement solutions to resolve important problems or crises.</p>
Clarifying Roles and Objectives	<p>Assigning tasks, providing direction on how to do the work, and communicating a clear understanding of job responsibilities, task objectives, deadlines, and performance expectations.</p>
Informing	<p>Disseminating relevant information to people who need it to do their work, providing written materials and documents, and answering requests for technical information.</p>
Monitoring	<p>Gather information about work activities and perimeter conditions affecting the work, checking on the progress and quality of work, evaluating the performance of the individuals and the organisation unit, analyzing trends, and forecasting perimeter events.</p>
Motivating and Inspiring	<p>Using influence techniques that appeal to emotion or logic to generate enthusiasm from the work, commitment to task objectives, and compliance with requests for cooperation, assistance, support, or resources and setting an example of appropriate behaviour.</p>
Consulting	<p>Checking with people before making changes that affect them, encouraging suggestions for improvement, inviting participation in decision making, and incorporating the ideas and suggestions of others in decisions.</p>
Delegating	<p>Allowing subordinates to have substantial responsibility and direction in carrying out work activities, handling problems, and making important decisions.</p>
Supporting	<p>Acting friendly and considerate, being patient and helpful, showing sympathy and support when someone is upset or anxious, listening to complaints and problems, and looking out for someone’s interest.</p>
Developing and Mentoring	<p>Providing coaching and helpful career advice, and doing things to facilitate a person’s acquisition, professional development, and career advancement.</p>
Managing Conflict and Team Building Networking	<p>Facilitating the constructive resolution of conflict, and encouraging cooperation, teamwork, and identification with the work unit.</p> <p>Socialising informally, developing contacts with people who are a source of information and support, and maintaining contacts through periodic interaction, including visits, telephone calls, correspondence and attendance at meetings and social events</p>
Recognizing	<p>Providing praise and recognition for effective performance, significant achievements, and special contributions; and expressing appreciation for someone’s contributions and special efforts.</p>
Rewarding	<p>Providing or recommending tangible rewards as a pay increase or promotion for effective performance, significance achievements, and demonstrated competence.</p>

Yukl's Research Investigating Specific Leadership Behaviours and its Relation to Sport.

The research in sport leadership has not maintained the same momentum as leadership in industry and management. Yukl has introduced taxonomies that assist in investigating leaders' behaviours. These taxonomies have resulted in highlighting the need to focus on studying specific leadership behaviours. The researcher has compared the previous and current research investigating coach leadership behaviours which has been based on modifying previous work in management, and on Yukl's work on studying leadership specific behaviour. The comparison demonstrates that most of these specific behaviours have been largely ignored in the sport context. This corresponds with Yukl's observation that the research investigating these specific types of leadership behaviour is still very limited (Yukl, 1989, 1994).

Over the last three decades there have been many studies on leadership and coaching. These studies have used different approaches to investigate leadership behaviours and have focused on a range of areas such as styles of leadership (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1978; Black & Weiss, 1992), the relationship between coaches and young athletes (Smith, Smoll & Curtis, 1979), the role of the coach in developing team cohesion (Westre & Weiss, 1991), the coach's personality (Hendry, 1974), coaching in general (Massengale, 1975; Singer, 1972), coaches' styles of decision making (Chelladurai & Haggerty, 1978) and the application of leadership theories and measurements into coaching (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1980; Danielson, Zelhart & Drake, 1975; Case, 1978, 1998). In spite of all these efforts, the study of leadership

in management and sport remains largely misunderstood (Burns, 1978; Weese, 1995; Case 1998).

As a result of these various approaches, a number of different models and questionnaires have been constructed to measure coach behaviour. Most of these questionnaires have depended on previous research conducted in management and industry. A benchmark example is the Coach Behaviour Description Questionnaire (CBDQ) (Danielson, Zelhart & Drake, 1975) which was based on the original Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) (Hemphill & Coons, 1957). In a similar way other scales have been developed, such as the Leadership Scale for Sport (LSS) (Chelladurai & Saleh 1980) which was developed from different versions of the LBDQ (Halpin, 1957; Stogdill, 1963; Fleishman, 1957a; Fleishman, 1957b). There is also the Revised Leadership Scale for Sport (RLSS) (Zhang Jensen & Mann 1996) which was developed from the LSS. It is important to understand that these measurements have focused on studying the two general leadership behaviours of consideration (relationship) and initiating structure (task) when investigating coach behaviour.

Due to the limited focus of research on studying coach leadership behaviours, evidence of sports leadership is rarely present in academic resources. It has, therefore, been necessary to draw on articles from the popular press and autobiographical and biographical resources. Even though this literature can fail to critically analyse the behaviours that have been utilised by expert coaches at the highest levels of international sport. However, many behaviours are described in popular literature which are absent from academic research. Fore example, in his

autobiography, Charlesworth (2001) talked about the behaviours of problem solving and monitoring with regards to what the Hockeyroos (The Australian Women National Hockey Team) can teach business. Charlesworth (2001) stated, “ Every Hockeyroo was encouraged to be a leader ... It meant dealing with problems as they arose and taking responsibility for them” (p. 207). He also mentioned the importance of monitoring players in training “The workload was continuously monitored ... to ensure that we worked harder than would be required in competition” (Charlesworth, 2001, p. 205).

Lusetich's (1992) biography on Frank Arok (the highest qualified soccer coach in Australia) and Smithers and Appleby's (1996) biography of Joyce Brown (the most successful Netball coach in the world) both provide examples of the use and interaction of many of Yukl's specific behaviours in their coaching careers, and how monitoring other teams has helped in the planning for their own team.

To further emphasise the limitations of previous studies, the researcher has compared the behaviours investigated in the previous research with Yukl's specific behaviours. The results demonstrated that some of the sport leadership studies have investigated more than 7 related coaching behaviours but none have specifically followed Yukl's work (see Table 4).

Table 4

Approximate Correspondence Among Sport Behaviour Research And Yukl’s Taxonomies

Yukl 1988	Danielson Zelhart & Drake 1975 CBDQ	Chelladurai Saleh 1980 LSS	& Zhang Jensen & Mann 1996 RLSS	Chelladurai & Haggerty 1978 NMDSC
Supporting	Social	Social Support	Social Support	*
Consulting	*	*	*	*
	*	*	*	*
Delegating	Recognition	Positive Feedback	Positive Feedback	*
Recognizing	*			*
Rewarding	Competitive Training & General Excitement	*	*	*
Motivating	Interpersonal Team Operation	*	*	*
Managing Conflict & Team Building	*	*	*	*
Developing	*	*	*	*
	*	*	*	*
Clarifying Planning & Organizing Problem Solving	Initiation	*	*	*
Informing	Organised Communication	Training & Instruction	Training & Instruction	*
Monitoring	*	*	*	*
Representing	Representation	*	*	*
Networking & Interfacing	*	*	*	*
Style/ behaviours Not related to Yukl’s specific leadership behaviours		**Democratic **Autocratic	**Democratic **Autocratic **Situation Consideration	**Autocratic Style **Delegative Style **Participative Style

*Indicates behaviour not included in the sport context.

**Indicates behaviour/styles with some match to Yukl’s specific behaviours (e.g., relate to consulting and delegating).

Some similarities were found between Yukl's work and the behaviours Danielson, Zelhart and Drake (1975), Chelladurai and Saleh (1980) and Zhang et al. (1996) found in their research studies. Although the behaviours were not always matched in terminology, they were by definition considered the same behaviour.

Although, the behaviour of representing was mentioned in Yukl's early work (Yukl & Nemeroff, 1979) it has not generated the same attention in Yukl's later taxonomies (Yukl, 1989, 1994, 2002).

Study 1

General Relevance, The Soccer Coach and Coaching

In a study aimed at improving the observation skills of soccer coaches, Franks and Miller (1991) used a video training method with three groups of soccer coaches. The three groups were tested prior to and following the training period. The experimental group was exposed to a video training programme designed to highlight certain key elements of soccer team performance. The other two control groups were exposed to the same video without the highlights of the key elements of team performance. The results showed that the subjects in the experimental group improved their ability to recall all the events that surrounded the 'taking of shots'. The results of the study suggest that coaches' observational skills and their ability to remember could be improved with this sort of training. As the coaches were conscious of the video

camera, their behaviours could be influenced by the use of this technique which may affect data collection and subsequently the findings. Using a comparable principle, Mario, De Marco, Mancini, and West (1997) conducted a qualitative and quantitative analysis of the practices of a coach and his 22 players to determine the effectiveness of self-assessment as means of modifying coach behaviour. Descriptive analytic and qualitative techniques including the Self Assessment Feedback Instrument (SAFI), the Coach's Performance Questionnaire (CPQ), and a journal were used to gather data during a collegiate baseball season. Results indicated that the coach successfully changed all the targeted behaviours, improved the quality of his instruction, and experienced heightened self-awareness. Analysis of the coach's journal revealed that the self-assessment process was at once a humbling, instructive and enlightening experience for the veteran coach. The process of self-assessment was determined to be an effective method of monitoring, modifying, and improving coaching behaviours. The strength of the previous study was in using both quantitative and qualitative analysis, however, using one coach and his 22 players does not provide sufficient number to generalise the findings.

In another investigation on the observation of coaches' behaviours, using a case study approach, Krane, Eklund, and McDermott (1991) combined the use of collaborative action research with systematic observation to initiate a behavioural intervention with a college soccer coach. They also examined the differences in coaches' behaviours towards the high and low skilled athletes. The results indicated that the intervention benefited the coach, especially in creating a greater awareness of coaching behaviours. Further analysis revealed differential coach behaviour towards high and low skill athletes, with low skill expectancy athletes generally receiving less

technical instruction, less mistake contingent encouragement, and more positive reinforcement. In a further study on observing and modifying coaches' behaviours, More and Franks (1996) conducted research involving four coaches. They used a computer-aided coaching analysis instrument (CAI) as part of an intervention strategy designed to modify verbal coaching behaviour. They observed and analysed four coaches for 12 practice sessions. Three coaches received intervention feedback from the CAI data, the fourth coach. The fourth coach was provided with videotapes of his own performance and told to formulate his own recommendations. The results showed that behaviour modification could occur by using data as direct feedback, as reinforcement and as information in the form of recommendations.

The previous studies have focused on observing the behaviours of coaches and have aimed at improving them in order to enhance coaches' knowledge and performance. Other researchers have studied the relationship between coach behaviours and team cohesion. An example of this is the study conducted by Shields, Gardner, Bredemeier, Bostro (1996) who investigated high school and junior college baseball and softball teams. They used the Leadership Scale for Sports LSS ($n = 23$ coaches) and the Group Environment Questionnaire GEQ ($n = 307$ players) to collect the data. The multivariate analysis indicated significant relationships between perceived leader behaviours and team cohesion. Coaches who were coded as high in training and instructions, democratic behaviour, social support, and positive feedback, and low in autocratic behaviour, developed teams that were more cohesive. Shields et al. also found significant differences between genders and school levels in the perceptions of coaching behaviours and team cohesion. However, these demographic variables (gender, age, and school level) did not significantly moderate the leadership

cohesion relationship. Using a different approach in studying team cohesion, Prapavessis, Carron, and Spink (1996) examined the influence of a psychological intervention program focusing on team building principles on the cohesion of soccer teams. Their results showed, however, that the team building intervention was not successful in enhancing perceptions of cohesiveness.

Miller (1992) investigated the frequency of burnout among successful and unsuccessful soccer coaches. Miller's results show that there were no significant differences in the frequency of burnout between the two groups of coaches on two of the burnout elements (emotional exhaustion and depersonalisation). However, a significant difference was found on the third burnout element (personal accomplishment).

While the previous study investigated soccer coaches' burnout among successful and unsuccessful soccer coaches, the next study investigated the soccer coaches' stress levels at different stages of the game (before, during and after the game); this was conducted by Kugler, Reintjes, Tewes, and Schedlowski (1996) who studied the effect of acute psychological stress on salivary immunoglobulin A (sIgA) and salivary cortisol concentrations in professional soccer coaches ($n = 17$). Results indicated that soccer coaches rated themselves as more excited and tense during the match compared to time points before and after the match. Furthermore, coaches revealed pronounced, transient increase in sIgA and salivary cortisol concentrations compared to control subjects. The results indicated that the acute psychological stress activates non-specific humoral immune functions.

In another study designed to investigate the effect on performance of the midseason replacement of coaches/managers in professional team sports, McTeer, White, and Persad (1995) collected data from four major professional sports leagues in North America. They examined short and long term effects on the team performance. The results showed that short term replacement does effect performance but that there is minimal improvement over longer term.

Most studies in leadership used the Multidimensional Model of Leadership and the LSS as the main approach for data collection. Using the LSS, Riemer and Chelladurai (1995) investigated the differences between the offensive and defensive football teams members in preferred leadership, perceived leadership and satisfaction with leadership, and the relationships between these. The study employed hierarchical regression procedures to test the congruence hypothesis derived from the multidimensional model of leadership. The results revealed that defensive players preferred and perceived greater amounts of democratic behaviour and social support than did offensive players. The results also showed that the congruence of preferred and perceived leadership behaviours in the dimension of social support was critical to enhancing member satisfaction. On the other hand, perceived leadership behaviour in training and instruction as well as positive feedback were stronger determinants of satisfaction with leadership than either the preferred leadership behaviour or the congruence of preferred and perceived leadership behaviour in these dimensions. Another example of the use of the LSS is Chelladurai, Kuga, and O'Bryant (1999) who examined a sample of 192 physical education students for the influence of individual differences, group, and task factors on respondents' preferences for teaching or coaching. Chelladurai et al. found that preference for teaching or

coaching was influenced by gender; perceived ease of motivating students and athletes, and perceived job variety. An additional example is shown by Bennett and Maneval (1998) who used the LSS on 52 elite Dixie Youth baseball coaches. They found that the coaches scored high in positive feedback, training and instruction, and social support, moderate in democratic behaviour, and low in autocratic behaviour.

Players' and Coaches' Perceptions:

Research in sport leadership has suggested that players' and coaches' perceptions are important for the coaching process. Shaver (1975) has suggested that an individual's perception of another's behaviour is more important than the behaviour itself in determining one's feelings or actions toward the other person. According to Smoll and Smith (1989), athletes' perceptions and recall mediate coaching effectiveness. While Smith and Smoll (1989) have recommended that "leader effectiveness resides in both the behaviours of the leader and the eyes of the beholder" (p.1544). This highlights the importance of studying coaches' and players' perceptions.

Kenow and Williams (1999) expanded their previous research by examining the relationship of coach-athlete compatibility to the evaluation of coaching behaviours, as well as the relationship of trait and state anxiety and state self-confidence to the evaluation of coaching behaviours while controlling for coach-athlete compatibility. Their results support Smith and Smoll's (1989) model of leadership behaviour in sport and suggest additions to the model. They recommend adding state cognitive and somatic anxiety and state self-confidence as individual difference variables. In conclusion, Kenow and Williams (1999) also recommend that it is very important to

investigate coaches' and players' perceptions of coaches' behaviours. They suggest that there is an important need for those involved in a coaching career to continue to investigate the interactions of the variables listed in Smith and Smoll's (1989) model as well as to engage actively in an examination of additional variables that might contribute to athlete's perceptions and evaluations of coaching behaviours and eventually, to leader effectiveness. The primary focus of study one was to investigate coaches' and players' perceptions of the specific behaviours of soccer coaches.

In their research on the multidimensional model of leadership, Horne and Carron (1985) found that their Canadian coaches gave themselves a higher rating on training and instruction, democratic behaviour, social support, and positive feedback than their athletes did. However, coaches' perceptions of their own autocratic behaviour matched the perceptions of the players. Salminen, Liukkonen, and Telama (1990) reported similar results with Finnish coaches who were found to perceive themselves to be more instructive, socially supportive, and rewarding, and less autocratic, than did their athletes. Salminen, Liukkonen (1996) expanded their previous research on Finnish coaches by conducting another study examining the coach athlete relationship and coaching behaviour in training sessions. They studied and observed 68 Fin coaches and 400 athletes. The coach/athlete relationship was measured by comparing coaches' and athletes' evaluations of coach leadership styles using the Leadership Scale for Sports (LSS). Results showed that the coaches' democratic leadership style most often correlated with the observed coaching behaviour. The affective component of the observed behaviour correlated most significantly with the leadership style of coaches. Coaches who took care of the opinions and feelings of athletes seem to have the best contact with athletes.

In a different approach investigating the association between athletes' perceptions of their abilities on the influence of coaches' technical instructions, Summers (1991) studied lacrosse players and found that players' perceptions of their ability was a positive moderator of the influence of coaches' technical instruction. The relationship between coaches' technical instructions and the athletes' effort increased when athletes perceived themselves to be more able. Similarly, the relationship between the coaches' technical instruction and the athletes' satisfaction was greater for athletes who considered themselves to be more competent.

Years of Coaching Experience

In investigating coaches' previous experience, coaching assignments, and education, Curtin (1977) discovered that these experiences did not affect players' perceptions, indicating that the importance of previous coaching assignments is overvalued. However, Weiss and Friedrichs (1986) found that coaches with less experience offered more rewards and social support, which related to greater athlete satisfaction. Players' perceptions' of coaching knowledge and ability may therefore be a critical factor in determining whether athletes value coach feedback. According to Solomon, Di Marco, et al., (1998) the existing literature is "equivocal" with regard to the importance of coaching experience. They highlight the need for further research on coaching experience by arguing that:

Since existing literature is equivocal regarding the importance of coaching experience, further research is warranted. Coaches are often hired for

positions based on athletic and coaching backgrounds, which can include years of coaching experience. Therefore, it is necessary to ascertain if this criterion is conducive to coach-athlete relationships and whether player perceptions are influenced by coach experience (p.2).

This highlights the importance of studying coaches' experience as well as coaches' and players' perceptions of coach behaviours. This research will investigate soccer coaches' specific behaviours. Study one of this research will focus firstly on players and coaches' perceptions of the specific behaviours of coaches and their years of experience. While study two will investigate how expert soccer coaches use different patterns of specific behaviours to accomplish their goals.

In a study investigating expectations and coaching experience, Solomon, Di Marco, Ohlson, and Reece (1998) studied 102 players and 12 coaches from eight high school basketball teams to assess the influence of coaching experience on feedback and players' perceptions. They also explored the differences in coach-player dyadic interactions with high and low expectancy players. Each coach rank ordered their players from the most to least skilled and the top and bottom one-third represented the high and low expectancy players. The researchers used a modified version of the Coaching Behaviour Assessment System (CBAS) to record coach feedback during practices. A MANOVA revealed that high expectancy players received more praise and instruction than low expectancy players, and an ANOVA indicated that they favoured less experienced coaches. On the other hand, low expectancy players preferred more experienced coaches. Results demonstrated that years of coaching experience did not influence feedback patterns.

The importance of studying coaches' experience is further highlighted by the significant amount of research on coaches' expertise. Such expertise is described in the biographies of many successful coaches in a variety of sports, such as: Sabock (1987) *The coach*; Wooden (1988) *They call me coach*; Lusetich (1992) *Farnk Arok: My beloved soccerroos*; Prior (1995) *Sheeds: A touch of cunning*; Simpson (1996) *the reasons why*; and Smithers and Appleby (1996) *No limits: Joyce Brown*, Wukovits (1997) *Vince Lombardi*.

Research conducted by Cote, Salmela, Trudel, Baria, and Russell (1995) involved interviewing 17 Canadian high-performance gymnastics coaches using open-ended questions intended to explore the structure of their coaching knowledge. Using this procedure they developed a coaching model (CM) consisting of three central components of competition, organisation, and training as well as three tangential components: the gymnasts' personal characteristics and level of development, the coaches' personal characteristics, and contextual factors. This research provides basic conceptual model to the knowledge of expert gymnastics coaches. However, there is a need to conduct the research methodology on team sports as in gymnastics the coaches' interaction is mostly on one on one basis which is significantly different from team sports.

Gary and Curtis (1991) compared soccer coaches (n=111) on 30 self-reported coaching behaviours relating to risk management to determine whether significant differences existed at three different levels (NCAA Division I, NAIA, and high school levels). The coaches were ranked as highly experienced to less experience

respectively. The results indicated that no significant differences in selected coaching behaviours existed among the three levels of coaching. These results demonstrated that years of experience were therefore not significant. The significant large number of coaches ($n = 111$) over three levels of athletes is significant strength to support the generalisation of the research results.

Levels of Competition

Vangucci, Potrac, and Jones (1997) observed elite women's soccer coaches to produce a quantitative analysis of the coaching behaviours. The subjects were five coaches from three descending divisions at the highest level of women's soccer. The results indicated that the coaches at the top of women's soccer in England were engaged in different coaching behaviours from those employed at lower levels. The researchers recommended that the identification of the dominant coaching behaviours of elite level coaches would provide physical educators with the opportunity to incorporate more effective instructional behaviours into their own teaching. More studies needed to be conducted on the behaviours of women coaches, as there is a lack of female coaches at the elite level.

Krane, Eklund, and McDermott (1991) combined the use of collaborative action research with systematic observation to initiate a behavioural intervention with a college soccer coach. Data indicated that the intervention benefited the coach. Further analyses revealed differential coach behaviour directed towards high and low skilled athletes with low skill athletes generally receiving less technical instruction, less mistake contingent encouragement and more positive reinforcement.

Jambor and Zhang (1997) used the Revised Leadership for Sport Scale (RLSS) to examine the differences in leadership behaviours between male and female coaches and among different coaching levels. They conducted their research on a sample of 162 coaches (male = 118; female = 44) which they classified the coaching levels into three levels (Junior High School, Senior High School, and College). The results indicated significant differences between the coaching levels, yet no significant differences between male and female coaches and no significant interaction between gender and coaching level.

In a study investigating coach behaviours, Bennett and Maneval (1998) used the (LSS) on 52 elite Dixie Youth baseball coaches. They found that the coaches of the elite youth baseball players scored highly in positive feedback, training and instruction, and social support, moderate in democratic behaviour, and low in autocratic behaviour.

Gender

Much concern has been expressed about the comparative lack of female coaches, yet little research has been carried out regarding the differences in the behaviours of male and female coaches. It is also important to study how male and female players perceive their coaches' leadership behaviours. Martel, Brunelle, and Spallanzani (1991) conducted a study in France to compare the influence of coaching leadership styles on the involvement of female players during volleyball training sessions. The results indicated that female players generally adopt behaviours which are favourable

to the attainment of the desired objectives. Thus, no conclusion was made in favour of one or the other of the leadership styles.

Millard (1996) examined gender differences in soccer coaching behaviours controlling for years of experience, past participation and age. She used systematic observation to record overt coaching behaviours during actual game situations. Data were collected through the Coach Demographic Questionnaire (Millard, 1991) and from the Coaching Behaviour Assessment System (CBAQ) (Smith, Smoll, & Hunt, 1977). The male coaches were found to engage significantly more frequently in keeping control and general technical instruction and significantly less frequently in general encouragement when compared to the female coaches. Further research was suggested relating to possible gender differences in how athletes respond to various coaching behaviours.

Jambor and Zhang (1997) studied differences in male and female coach leadership behaviours using the Revised Leadership for Sport Scale (RLSS), and differences in coaching levels. They had a male dominant sample of 162 coaches (male = 118; female = 44). Their study did not show male and female coaches to respond differently on the RLSS as a whole. The only behaviour, in which differences did exist, when viewing the six leadership components separately, was the social support behaviour. In other words, female coaches reported providing more social support attempting to make sport more enjoyable. Salminen, Liukkonen, and Telama (1990), cited in Elizabeth et al. 1997, found similar results, female coaches are more supportive and rewarded players more than male coaches. Using the RLSS may provide more insight to coaches' behaviour rather previously using mainly the LSS.

Everhart and Chelladurai (1998) investigated gender differences by conducting a study on 191 Big Ten university basketball players (94 men, 97 women). They did not find any gender differences in coaching self-efficacy, preferred occupational valence, and perceived barriers. Working hours were found to most negatively affect the desire to coach. Freeman and Lanning (1989) demonstrated how males and females coaches are similar in social power motivation. Conversely, Chelladurai and Saleh (1980) found that male athletes preferred coaches to be more autocratic and yet more supportive, than did female athletes. The mixed results in previous research highlight the need for more investigation on gender differences.

In a different approach and by using a qualitative methodology, Cote and Salmela (1996) report on the knowledge of expert high performance gymnastic coaches in the organisation of training and competition. Gender was one of the variables in their study and they compared 9 coaches who worked with male gymnasts and 8 coaches who worked with female gymnasts. Results showed that coaches of both groups planned training similarly, except that the coaches of females emphasised aesthetic and nutritional issues to a greater extent, while the coaches of males revealed more concerns about the organisation of the gymnasts physical conditioning. Both groups of coaches, however, were constantly involved in dynamic social interactions with gymnasts, parents, and assistant coaches.

Age

In a descriptive analysis of coach/player interaction at the youth sport level, Jones (1990) observed 12 British male Football Association certified coaches. Six coaches coached 5-7 years old boys, and six coaches coached 9-12 year old boys. There were no significant differences found in the statistical analysis; which indicated that the coaches did not vary their interaction with the different aged players.

According to Hersey and Blanchard's (1977) Situational Theory, the level of the maturity of the group members influences leader behaviour in terms of both (tasks and relationships). When the level of maturity is low, a "telling" approach (High task – low relationship style) is the most effective behaviour by leaders. As the level of maturity increases, a "selling" method (High task – high relationship style) is best. Next a "participating" style of leadership (Low task – high relationship) would be appropriate, and finally with mature groups, a "delegating" approach (Low task – low relationship) is the most effective behaviour. The Hersey and Blanchard Situational Leadership Theory has been examined in the sports context (Vos Strache, 1978; Case, 1984, 1987; Chelladurai and Carron; 1978, 1983, Smith, Smoll, and Curtis; 1979). These findings were not consistent with the patterns proposed by the Situational Leadership Theory.

Vos Strache (1978) found no support for the Situational Leadership Theory in the sporting context. She assessed the perceived leader behaviour of 20 collegiate coaches by using the LBDQ – Form XII (Stogdill, 1963). However, she points out that the range of maturity level of her subjects 'was not broad enough to allow for differences in maturity' (p.683). Chelladurai and Carron (1978) also suggest that the Situational Leadership Theory does not appear to correspond with earlier findings

relating to children in sport. To overcome the limitations in previous research, Case (1987) conducted a field test to examine the Situational Leadership Theory in the sport context on 40 successful basketball coaches and 399 players completed the LBDQ concerning the head coach. The maturity of the subjects varied from junior high, senior high, college, and Amateur Athletic Union (AAU). The findings of the study were not consistent with the Situational Leadership Theory. However, the results do suggest that certain styles of leadership in basketball coaching can be more successful for basketball coaches working at different competitive levels. These patterns included a low task and high relationship or “participating” style at the junior high and AAU levels, and a high task and low relationship or “telling” style at the senior and college levels.

In his review of the literature in sports leadership, Chelladurai (1993) suggested that age, experience and maturity have complemented each other in most leadership research. An example of this is Shields, Gardner, Bredemeier, and Bostro (1996) who investigated the relationship between perceived leadership behaviours and team cohesion in high school and junior college baseball and softball teams. They used the Leadership Scale for Sports (LSS) and the Group Environment Questionnaire (GEQ) to collect the data. The multivariate analysis indicated significant relationships between perceived leader behaviours and team cohesion. They also found significant differences between genders among athletes at two school levels in perceptions of coaching behaviours and team cohesion. However, the demographic variables (gender, age, and school level) did not significantly moderate the leadership cohesion relationship. The study carried out in Portugal by Serpa (1990) compared junior and senior female basketball players and found that the younger players, preferred more

social support and democratic behaviour, and less autocratic behaviour. There were no significant differences between the two groups in preferred training and instruction, or in rewarding behaviour. In other studies of competitive sports, longer experience was found to be associated with a higher preference for positive feedback (Erle, 1981) and a higher preference for autocratic behaviour and social support (Chelladurai & Carron, 1981).

In their attempt to test the Situational Leadership Theory, Chelladurai and Carron (1983) examined the effect basketballers' maturity with a well planned sample of different age groups from high school midget, high school junior, high school senior, and university level teams. Chelladurai and Carron's results showed firstly, that preferences for training and instruction progressively decreased from high school midget through junior to senior levels but increased again at the university level. Secondly, the preference for social support progressively increased from the high school midget level to university level.

Study 2

Researchers in sport psychology have studied various areas of coaching using both quantitative and qualitative research methods. However, the study of leadership in management and industry and in sport has focused more on the quantitative approach and has neglected the qualitative method. Bryman, Bresnen, Beardsworth, and Keil (1988) argue that "studying leadership by qualitative research methods may improve this area of research". They also contend that the qualitative study of leadership can introduce "a wider range of contextual variables into the investigation of leadership

styles” and that “such variables have the advantage of being grounded in peoples’ experiences and are therefore more accessible to practitioners” (p. 13). Study 2 will use a qualitative approach in order to investigate the specific leadership behaviours of coaches “grounded” coaches’ experiences.

Early research on leadership and coaching has led to more wide ranging research. For example, Chelladurai’s and Carron’s (1978) and Chelladurai’s and Saleh’s (1980) research on leadership in sport led to the creation of the Multidimensional Model of Coaching. This in turn generated research on other aspects of coaching, such as the relationship between coaches and young athletes (Smith, Smoll, & Curtis, 1979), the decision styles of coaches (Gordon, 1988; Black & Weiss, 1992), and the role of the coach in developing team cohesion (Westre & Weiss, 1991).

Over the years, this quantitative research has been coupled with qualitative methodologies to study the socialisation patterns of male and female coaches (Andreson & Gill, 1983), the attrition of female coaches from the coaching profession (Hart, Hasbrook, & Mathes, 1986), the confidence and competence of novice coaches (Weiss, Barber, Sisley, & Ebbeck, 1991), the development of expert coaches (Salmela, 1995), the career evolution of expert coaches (Schinke, Bloom, & Salmela, 1995), the establishment of a theoretical coaching model (Cote, Salmela, Trudel, Baria, & Russell, 1995), anxiety situations in team sports (Dunn & Nielsen, 1996), and the match routines of expert coaches of team sports (Bloom, Durand-Bush, & Salmela, 1997).

More recently researchers have begun to investigate the area of expert coaching. In a series of studies, Gould and associates surveyed a number of expert American coaches to assess issues such as coach education, coach development, and the use of psychological strategies (Gould, Hodge, Peterson, & Petlichkoff, 1987; Gould, Hodge, Peterson, & Giannini, 1989; Gould, Giannini, Krane, & Hodge, 1990). Gould et al. proposed some recommendations to improve the coaching profession, as well as future research in this area. The participating coaches claimed that there were no definitive set of concepts or principles to follow in their profession, and that they had acquired most of their knowledge through their own coaching experience and from observing other successful coaches (Gould et al., 1990). It is therefore, crucial to investigate the coach leadership behaviours using a qualitative method in order to formulate the knowledge that expert coaches have developed over the years into guiding principles for the profession. By applying the qualitative approach the information will emerge from the coaches themselves without imposing any ideas on them. To date there has been limited qualitative research investigating leadership in sport.

In a study investigating the knowledge of expert team sports coaches, Salmela (1995) found that the coaches' own early playing and experience of being coached were influential in determining their future operational tactics in training and competition. In another related study, Bloom, Salmela, and Schinke (1995) investigated the methods for training future coaches and found that high-level coaches believed there was a need for a more formalised mentoring program. A major recommendation was to provide aspiring coaches with opportunities to acquire hands on experience and to observe mentors during all phases of competition.

In an attempt to establish a theoretical coaching model and by using the grounded theory approach, Cote, Salmela, Trudel, Baria, and Russell (1995) conducted interviews with 17 Canadian high-performance gymnastics coaches with open-ended questions intended to explore the structure of their coaching knowledge. They developed a coaching model (CM) consisting of three central components of competition, organisation, and training as well as three tangential components: the gymnasts' personal characteristics and level of development, the coaches' personal characteristics, and the contextual factors. The CM provided a noteworthy framework for conceptualising the knowledge of expert coaches. However, this CM, needs to be tested in team sports as the study was based on gymnastics coaches.

Blumer (1969) highlighted the need for concepts and conceptual relationships for scientific understanding. However, even though sports coaching has emerged as a scientific subject (Woodman, 1993), there are no comprehensive frameworks that represent the complex reality within which coaches' work. For example, Lyle (1993) and Woodman (1993) have described coaching as a lively and systematic process that involves a range of steps such as observation, assessment, the development of plans of action, the implementation of the plans, and reassessment. While this appears to represent what coaches do to develop players, it does not give a clear idea about the conceptual understanding that coaches apply to their planning and does not tell us the significant other factors preventing coaches from fully achieving their potential. It would be beneficial to establish a new model of coaching knowledge, which is based on the conceptual understanding of expert coaches.

Some models have been developed for studying coach leadership behaviours (Chelladurai, 1984; Smith & Smoll, 1984). These have been used as a framework to investigate the impact of coach leadership behaviours on players' performance and satisfaction. Although the Chelladurai and the Smith and Smoll models provide frameworks for studying coach and player interaction and coach leadership behaviours, they do not provide the conceptual framework that accounts for coaches' knowledge (Cote, Salmela, Trudel, Baria, & Russell, 1995). What these models and theories do not tell us is what coaches do in certain situations. Nor are these models related to the context of sports science. In fact most coaches are not familiar with research in the area of sports leadership. They also find it difficult to make sense of these models and the related research. It will be useful and more meaningful for the coaches to learn from experienced and high profile coaches about what they do in real life coaching situation. It will also be very useful to establish a new model based on the coaches' expertise and knowledge.

Summary and Conclusion

This review of the literature has shown that there is a paucity of comprehensive research in coach leadership that addresses the specific behaviour patterns of effective coaches. Several of the more prevalent models and approaches to the study of leadership, in general, are not relevant to coaching and other leadership dimensions in sport. Cratty (1989) supports the need for further research in sport leadership based on new approaches such as testing different theories in the sport context by scientific research methods.

The most common methods of measuring leadership effectiveness in sport is by comparing leadership styles with win/loss records for the team during the coach's period of employment. Another way of studying leadership effectiveness is through players' perceptions of and satisfaction with the coach. A further measure is by observing the coach's behaviour and by collecting data on the players' evaluative recall of the coach's behaviour. Nonetheless, a great deal of work is needed to explore how coaches use different patterns of behaviours to achieve their objectives.

Chelladurai (1993) points out a major need for more research in sports leadership. He recommends the need to modify both the LSS and the CBAS to study individual and group oriented leader behaviour. Chelladurai (1993) also suggests the need for an instrument to measure the relationship between leadership and performance enhancement in more accurate ways.

Case (1998) also highlights the need for further research in leadership in sport. In a recent examination of the possibility of applying the leader member exchange theory into sport psychology, Case (1998) states:

“... further support to the notion that leadership in sport is a very complex phenomenon. Studying leadership from the perspectives of trait, behavioral, path-goal, situational and/or transformational approaches may not be enough. The findings of this study suggest that a role development approach is also worthy of consideration and examination. A multidimensional theoretical approach to the study of sport leadership appears to be necessary in order to tie these various approaches together. Hopefully, this can be accomplished in the future through continued research efforts”. (p. 4).

Case's aforementioned need for further research is highlighted by the recent research of Charbonneau, Barling, and Kelloway (2001), in which they investigated the application of the transformational and transactional leadership model developed by Bass (1985) in the sporting context. They developed and tested a model in which transformational leadership affects sports performance indirectly through the mediating effects of intrinsic motivation. Data were collected, during the season, from (n = 168) athletes on their perceptions of their coach's transformational leadership and their own intrinsic motivation. Coaches were asked to assess their players' performance at the end of the season. The results supported the application of the transformational and transactional leadership model to sport. The findings isolate intrinsic motivation as a mediator of the relationship between transformational leadership and sports performance. This extends our understanding of how transformational leaders affect performance.

Earlier research on coach leadership behaviour in a variety of sports has used quantitative approaches. Most investigations have modified early research methods from management and industry which focused on the two general behaviours of consideration (relations) and initiating structure (task) and applied them to sport psychology (Danielson, Zelhart, & Drake, 1975; Chelladurai and Carron's, 1978; Chelladurai and Haggerty, 1978; Chelladurai & Saleh, 1980). The consequences of this have led to the creation of many questionnaires, such as the CBDQ (Danielson, Zelhart, & Drake, 1975); and the LSS (Chelladurai & Carron's, 1978) which was developed using items drawn from different versions of the LBDQ. However, In recent years, new approaches have been proposed to explore leadership behaviour in

management and industry. These new approaches focus on studying specific leadership behaviours instead on of the general behaviours of consideration (relations) and initiating structure (task). Yukl (1988, 1989) proposed 14 specific behaviours to improve researchers understanding of leadership effectiveness. Yukl (1994) highlighted the need for more research investigating the 14 specific leadership behaviours and claimed that research on specific behaviours was still incomplete. Yet research on sports leadership has not continued with the same momentum as that on leadership in management and industry. Therefore, this research will concentrate on studying the specific leadership behaviours of coaches. These leadership behaviours will parallel the 14 specific behaviours that have emerged from leadership research conducted by Yukl (1988, 1989, 1994).

The proposed research will serve to provide new directions for leadership in sport. The study will investigate the differences between specific leadership behaviours in terms of (a) Players' and coaches' perceptions; (b) Years of experience in coaching; (c) Levels of competition of teams; (d) Gender of players; and (e) Age of players. A major outcome of this research will be the development of a new instrument to measure specific leadership behaviours among sports coaches. This questionnaire should provide the basis for future ongoing research into this area.

In recent years, the research on coaching and coaches' behaviours has used a qualitative approach instead of the traditional early focus on quantitative methodology. Most of the qualitative research has been carried in the 1990s and has concentrated on studying coaching expertise. This recent approach has also addressed the confidence and competence of novice coaches (Weiss, Barber, Sisley,

& Ebbeck, 1991), the development of expert coaches (Salmela, 1995), the career evolution of expert coaches (Schinke, Bloom, & Salmela, 1995), the establishment of a theoretical coaching model (Cote, Salmela, Trudel, Baria, & Russell, 1995), anxiety situations in team sports (Dunn & Nielsen, 1996), the match routines of expert coaches of team sports (Bloom, Durand-Bush, & Salmela, 1997), numerous autobiographies of many successful coaches (Wooden, 1988; Lusetich, 1992; Prior 1995; Simpson 1996 and Smithers and Appleby, 1996) and interviews with elite professional coaches (Kimiecik & Gould, 1987; Wrisherg, 1990; Rapaport, 1993).

According to Bryman, Bresnen, Beardsworth & Keil (1988), introducing qualitative research methods to the study of leadership may help in improving this area of research. Streaan (1998) has highlighted the importance of using the qualitative research in sport psychology. In particular he notes that the results are related to players' and coaches' everyday life experiences (Streaan, 1998). According to Streaan (1998) "Results and theories that emerge from qualitative data inquiries are often understandable and experientially credible" (p. 342). Therefore both quantitative and qualitative methodologies are used in the present research. In particular, the study will investigate the specific behaviours of coaches of elite soccer teams in Western Australia. This will be done by way of interviews with expert coaches on how they have developed and used certain behaviours during their coaching career. The findings of this study will lead to an increased understanding of the specific behaviours of coaches. According to Yukl (1989, 1994, 2002), by investigating specific leadership behaviours, our understanding of leadership effectiveness will improve. It would be of significant benefit to utilize his theoretical framework and apply it to the sporting by using mixed of quantitative qualitative methodology to

overcome limitations in previous research. To date there is no evidence that a research of this type had been carried out.

CHAPTER THREE

Development of Leadership Theories and Models

This chapter outlines the development of leadership theories and models. The overview starts with a detailed review of the theories in leadership in management and industry. This review was necessary because most of the research in sport leadership was based on the previous literature in management and industry. The chapter continues with a review of the measurements of leadership in sport and concludes with a review of the leadership models in sport.

Leadership Theories in Management and Industry

Leadership in management and industry and in sport psychology is one of the most prolifically discussed disciplines, yet it remains largely misunderstood (Burns, 1978; Weese, 1995; Case 1998). According to Barrow (1977) leadership is “the behavioural process of influencing individuals and group toward set goals” (p. 232). The following is a review of leadership theories in management and industry.

In order to understand the nature of the many leadership theories, one must first dissect the theory timeline in half. Classic theories are those that date before 1938 and contemporary theories are those that appeared after this date (Priest and Chase 1989). An example of a pre 1938 classic theory is that of the Great “Man” whereby it

was acceptable to conceive the notion of a born leader. It was more or less a birthright that certain people became leaders and as evident throughout history especially in royal families and imperial kingdoms. The Trait Theory (1920s) is one theory that effective leadership occurs by way of a series of traits or attributes. These attributes range from charisma and humour, to reasoning and acute judgment. The fundamental limitation in these classic theories is their basis on the underlying weak relationship between personal traits and leadership success.

The year 1938 saw a new train of thought in leadership theory. Theorists began developing one and two-dimensional perspectives in leadership by way of style models. Lewin, Lippitt, and White (1938) were pioneers in the area of one-dimensional contemporary leadership theories with their Authoritarian – Democratic style model. Research in this area investigated the reactions of boys when exposed to leaders exhibiting authoritative, democratic and laissez-faire delivery. It was found that a democratic approach was favoured over the authoritative and laissez-faire styles which could cause hostility and frustration Lewin, Lippitt, and White (1938).

This authoritative – democratic continuum would prove to be the catalyst for what would be a series of one dimensional leadership styles as shown in Figure 3. Katz, Maccoby and Morse (1950) went one step further by determining that customer satisfaction was the direct result of a participation centred leader rather than a production centred one. This finding would revolutionise the commercial world and would lead to many new marketing and management styles.

The next innovation came from Likert (1967) who developed a four-tiered continuum. One end of the scale shows an Exploitive Autocratic leader makes all the decisions because he does not have any confidence in the group's decision-making skills. Next on the continuum is the Benevolent Autocrat who is always happy to listen to his followers' contribution; however, he would make the final decisions and all instructions must be followed. Then there would be the consultative leader who invites and utilises group input as decisions are being made. Finally, at the other end of the scale would be the Participative leader who de-centralises his role completely and stands as an equal and all group members feel free to add their input.

Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1973) redesigned Likert's continuum by showing the interrelationship between the level of authority used by the leader and the level of freedom perceived by the followers. This interrelationship is further defined by six categories: *tells, sells, tests, consults, joins, and delegates*. The *telling* leadership mode is one where the leader orders specific action to be taken without any discussion or debate and hence can be interpreted as the most authoritative approach. Further down the scale and slightly less authoritative is the *selling* mode whereby the leader tries to convince group members of a particular course of action to be taken. The *testing* mode invites group members to input their ideas to an already-made decision, thus possibly allowing the decision to be modified. The *consulting* mode does not see a decision being made straight away. Instead, the leader presents a problem to the group in the hope that its input will help formulate a course of action. It is this category of leadership which is half way in the continuum of authority and freedom as shown in Figure 3. The next category fully empowers the followers formulate the solution to a problem already presented by the leader. Finally at the

end of the scale is the delegating category where the leader empowers the followers to define the problem and then design a planned solution. It is at this point that the level of perceived freedom for followers is at its maximum.

The Path-Goal Theory of House and Mitchell (1974) presented the last great development of the one-dimensional leadership styles. This theory presented the idea that a leader's behaviour is directly related to the level of employee satisfaction, motivation and performance. House and Mitchell argue that the level of performance is directly related to the level of motivation, and that the level of motivation is directly related to the level of satisfaction. In attaining the optimum level of satisfaction, they present four styles of leadership that can be used according to specific working environments. At one extreme of the continuum is the Directive leadership approach whereby the leader tells the group what to do and how to do it, and is hence authoritative. Supportive leadership describes a leader who is more concerned with interpersonal relationships while creating a helpful and positive environment. The Participative approach stems from the democratic style of earlier models where helpful input is given by the group to the leader to help him formulate decisions. Achievement-orientated leadership is where the leader gives the opportunity for the group to perform at a specific level in order to reach organisational objectives. The use of Key Performance Indicators (KPI) has been derived from this approach. According to this theory, either a directive, supportive, participative or achievement-orientated approach can be used as a path to achieve specific goals that can, in turn, increase the level of employee satisfaction, thus attaining prime levels of motivation and performance.

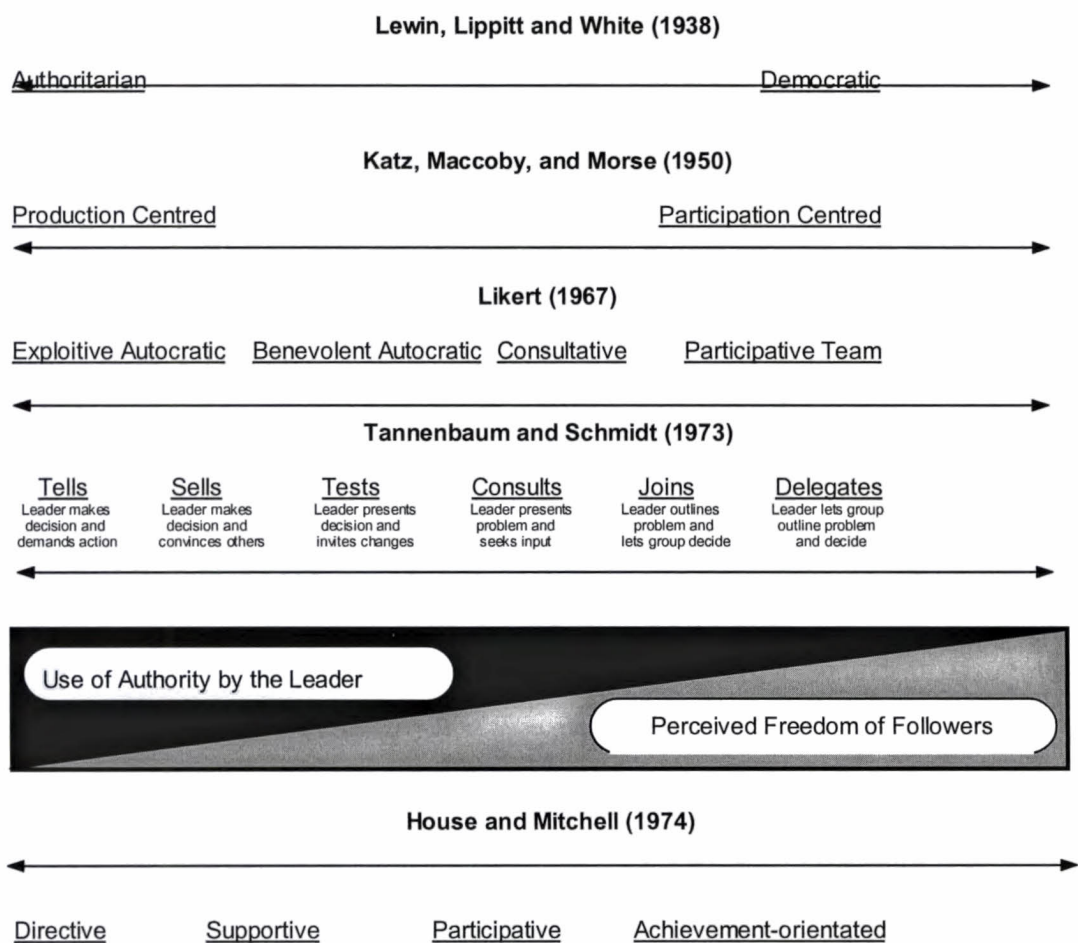


Figure 3. One dimensional models of leadership style. (Priest and Chase 1989, p. 12).

The aforementioned theories have discussed a one-dimensional perspective on leadership. However, other theories have given two-dimensional views on leadership. These different two-dimensional models of orientation are outlined in the next section and presented in Figure 4.

Stogdill and Coons (1957) claimed that behaviour dimensions, rather than a particular style, determined effective leadership. Their two dimensions looked at were, initiating structure and consideration. When initiating structure, the leader's role is to determine tasks and hence outline courses of action to achieve these tasks. Consideration, on the other hand, determines the leader's interpersonal skills with the group. This landmark theory thus presented the notion that it is the combination of how the leader relates to his followers and the operational implementation that ultimately determines effective leadership. (See Figure 4).

Blake and Mouton (1978) took the two dimension grid model to a new level by changing the axes to a concern for people and a concern for production. This graph (as shown in Figure 4) shows five possible combinations based on different coordinates. The left hand bottom corner of the matrix shows Impoverished Management which symbolises a dull leader with little concern for organisational operations. The top left hand corner contains a Country Club approach whereby the leader provides many luxuries to his employees with very little consideration given to end performance. Organisation-Man Management is represented in the middle of the grid and highlights the balanced leader who attempts to match levels of work with the group morale. The bottom right hand corner depicts a ruthless, goal-driven leader ruling demanding Authority and Obedience. The most favourable position for

leaders would be in Team Management, in the top right hand corner. The leader in this case has a deep concern for his human resources because they can determine whether organisational objectives have been met. The leader facilitates followers to achieve their work by holding shared investments in the organisation and by maintaining open communication and mutual respect for one another.

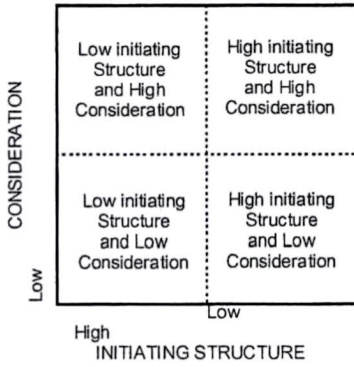
Fiedler (1967) presents a Contingency Theory of Leadership Effectiveness. He argues that it is the favourableness of a situation that determined what style a leader would use. This favourableness is determined from the group's acceptance of the leader, the leader's influence, and the clarity of roles and objectives. A favourable situation, therefore, indicates an accepted leader who is powerful and understands the objectives. An unfavourable situation would be an unreliable leader, who has no real influence and whose group is confused with their roles and goals. In both these situations, Fiedler argues that a strict hardline approach must be used in the favourable situation so that the group can optimise its chances to reach its goals. The unfavourable situation also needs to be remedied with a hardline method so that the leader can achieve a level of control and some hope of achieving organisational objectives. The middle range of Fiedler's diagram suggests a more "watered down" approach in that the group dynamic is sufficient enough to reach its aims with moderate leadership support.

Hersey and Blanchard's (1982) Situational Leadership Theory is based on the common orientations of task and relationship behaviour. This theory is enriched with some of Tannenbaum and Schmidt's leadership styles, which are placed on a bell curve (see Figure 4). The combination of the task behaviour and the relationship

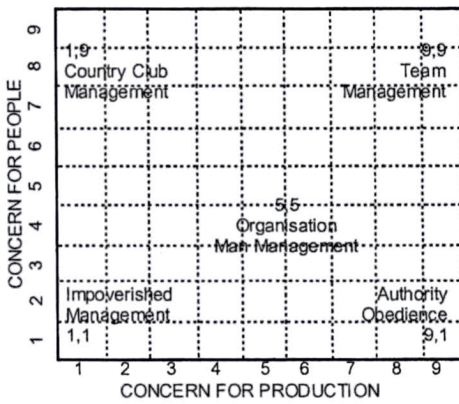
behaviour will determine the leadership style as either *telling*, *selling*, *participating*, or *delegating*. The theory also includes a further new variable, maturity. Maturity in Hersey and Blanchard's case would be the aptitude to achieve aims, taking responsibility, and the level of education/experience. This maturity is associated with the different levels of task behaviour and relationship behaviour. As seen in Figure 4, maturity is given three values, low, moderate and high.

Hersey and Blanchard argue that a *telling* approach is more suitable for a leader with low maturity in a situation where task behaviour is high and relationship behaviour is low. More moderate task and relationship behavioural situations would see a *selling* approach being used from a moderately mature leader. If the task behaviour becomes lower while relationship behaviour remains relatively moderate, then a *participative* method would be favoured. *Delegating* would be a preferred option from a highly mature leader whose task and relationship behaviours are both low.

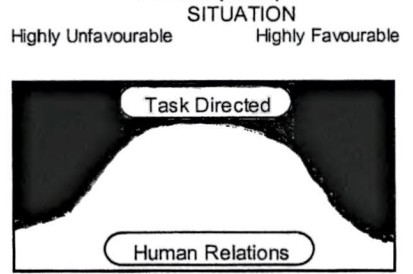
Stogdill and Coons (1957)



Blake and Mouton (1978)



Fiedler (1967)



Hersey and Blanchard (1982)

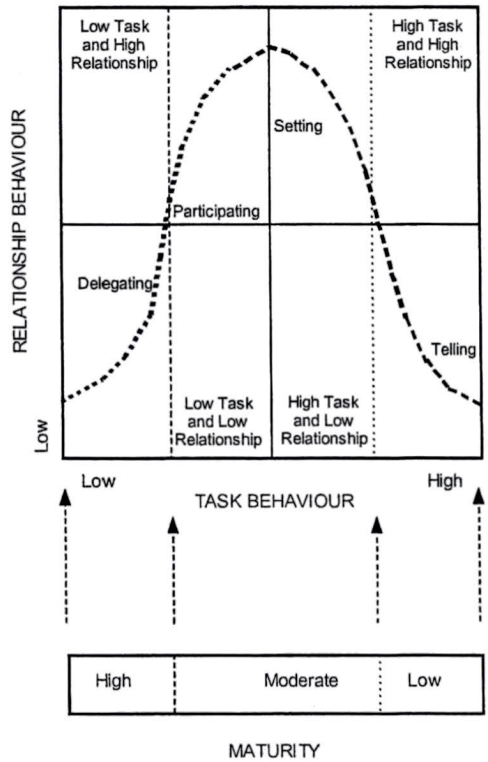


Figure 4. Two Dimensional Models of Orientation. (Priest and Chase 1989 p.13).

Measuring Leadership in Sport

When studying leadership theories, academics have stressed the importance of leader behaviour. The Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire (LBDQ), developed at Ohio State University shows that leader behaviour can be categorised in two ways: consideration and initiating structure. Interpersonal relationships between the leader and group are of prime importance when determining the level of consideration. Where as behaviours that initiate structure tend to focus more on establishing well-defined policies and procedures so that specific goals may be met (Yukl, 1989, 1994).

As in other fields of sport psychology, leadership has attracted many researchers to study its dimensions. Danielson, Zelhart and Drake (1975) were the earliest researchers to study leadership in sport. They designed the first instrument to measure coach leadership behaviour, the Coach Behaviour Description Questionnaire, which measured coach behaviour on two dimensions - task and relation. The CBDQ is a 20-item scale that includes eight categories: (a) competitive training, (b) initiation, (c) interpersonal team operations, (d) social behaviour, (e) representation behaviour, (f) organised communication, (g) recognition and (h) general excitement. According to Kremer and Scully (1994) "the CBDQ has not generated a great deal of research since the 1970s" (p.134). There is no clear evidence in the literature to why the research using the CBDQ is very limited.

Smith, Smoll and Hunt (1977) developed another major scale to measure coach behaviour, which is known as the Coaching Behaviour Assessment System (CBAS). This instrument has two major subscales of reactive and spontaneous coaching behaviours. The CBAS was developed over several years by observing and recording the behaviours of youth soccer, basketball, and baseball coaches. Coach behaviour was measured in three different ways: (a) direct observation, (b) coaches' self perceptions of their own behaviours and (d) players' perception of coach behaviours. Smith, Smoll and Hunt focused on players' attitudes toward their coach, their teammates, themselves, and their playing experience as critical outcomes. Player's evaluative reactions were measured on a ten-item scale in the CBAS.

Kenow and Williams (1992) developed the Coaching Behaviour Questionnaire (CBQ) in order to assess athletes' perceptions and evaluative reactions to selected coaching behaviours. This 28-item questionnaire focussed on five specific aspects of coaching behaviour: the cognitive/attentional effects of coach behaviour; supportiveness; emotional control and composure; communication; and the somatic effects of coach behaviour. Kenow and Williams used the CBQ to assess the relationship between female intercollegiate basketball players' competitive trait anxiety, competitive state cognitive and somatic anxiety and self-confidence and the perception and evaluation of their coach's behaviours. Those athletes, who perceived and evaluated their coach's behaviours more negatively, were found to have a higher trait anxiety, higher states of cognitive anxiety and a lower state of self-confidence.

In a later study, with a larger subject pool, Kenow and Williams (1997) expanded their work using the CBQ but were only able to replicate the cognitive anxiety results using factor scores and the total CBQ score. Athletes scoring high on cognitive anxiety evaluated the coach's communication behaviours and cognitive/attentional effects more negatively. Significant correlations were discovered between state cognitive anxiety and the perceived somatic effects of coach behaviour, and between to state somatic anxiety and the coaches' emotional control and composure. Kenow and Williams (1997) suggest that differences in coach-athlete compatibility might mediate the influence of anxiety and self-confidence on athletes' perceptions and recall of coaching behaviours. According to Kenow and Williams (1997), sports psychologists have paid little attention to the interaction between coach and athlete and have made little effort towards the evaluation of that interaction and the significance of its contribution to the performance of the athletes.

Chelladurai and Saleh (1980) developed the Leadership Scale for Sports (LSS). As with CBDQ, the LSS was developed from items drawn from various versions of the LBDQ. Factor analysis procedures performed upon the LSS resulted in the identification of five dimensions with 40-item scales. These five dimensions are training and instruction, autocratic behaviour, democratic behaviour, social support and positive feedback. The LSS can be performed from three different perspectives: The first (perceived version) considers the way in which the athlete perceives his or her coach. The second (preferred version) deals with how the athlete prefers the behaviour of his or her coach. Differences between scores derived from both versions (perceived and preferred) types have been used to quantify the mismatch between experience and preference. This is known as the discrepancy score. The third

(personal version), considers the way in which coaches perceive their own behaviours.

The LSS has generated a great amount of research in the last 3 decades and received extensive testing (e.g., Chelladurai, & Carron, 1978; Chelladurai & Carron, 1983; Chelladurai, 1984; Chelladurai & Arnott, 1985; Chelladurai, Imamura, Yamaguchi, Oinuma, & Miyauchi, 1988; Chelladurai, Haggerty & Baxter, 1989; Chelladurai, (1990); Jambor & Zhang, 1997; Chelladurai, Kuga, & O'Bryant, 1999). Research using this instrument supports Chelladurai's popular multidimensional theory (see Figure 5).

The three versions of the LSS can be used to investigate only two of the three fundamentals of the MML (see Figure 5), ie that athlete satisfaction and performance is dependent on the required, actual and preferred behaviours of leaders. Only the relationship between the actual (from both the athlete and coach's point of view) and preferred behaviours has been analysed, while the required component of leadership has been left neglected and therefore out of the function. According to Chelladurai (1993) the behaviours measured by the LSS are not comprehensive enough to reflect the leader role. In his conclusion on the review of the different approaches to the study of leadership in sport psychology, Chelladurai (1993) states “ the behaviours measured by these subscales (LSS) do not encompass all that a leader does to alter and/or enhance those variables which intervene between leadership and group performance” (p. 668).

Chelladurai (1978, 1984) studied the leadership preferences and perceptions of 216 male athletes in intercollegiate basketball, athletics, and wrestling. The balance between the two LSS versions was found to affect measures of satisfaction with the coach in a curvilinear fashion in the autocratic behaviour and positive feed back dimensions. Team members were less satisfied with their coach when the perceived version score deviated in either direction from the preferred version score and when the coach's training and instruction behaviour was perceived as inadequate. In a study of 77 female coach/athlete dyads, a discrepancy was found by Horne and Carron (1985) between athlete perception and preferences on the LSS dimensions of training and instructions, positive feedback and support associated with lower satisfaction. Similarly, Schliesman (1987) found that the more athletes' perceptions exceeded their stated preferences in training and instruction, positive feedback, and social support, the more satisfied they were with the behaviour of the coach in those areas.

In an attempt to modify and enhance the LSS, Zhang, Jensen and Mann (1996) carried out a study to revise LSS Chelladurai & Saleh's 1980 LSS. They proposed adding new dimensions to the five original ones. After interviewing coaches in different sports, they also created 240 new items and added them to the original 40 items. They then refined the items by referring them to three linguistics experts and 17 leadership experts. Construct validity and reliability were tested for these items on a sample of 696 athletes and 206 coaches. Factor analysis resulted in determining six common dimensions and sixty items had a factor loading equal to or greater than 0.40. The internal consistency for each retained factor was then tested.

Situational leadership theory states that leaders should vary their behaviour depending on team members (Hersey & Blanchard, 1977). The notion of situational behaviour is not present in Chelladurai and Saleh's LSS. However, Zhang, Jensen and Mann's Revised Leadership Scale for Sport (RLSS) adds situation consideration to the variables. Therefore, leaders can be described based on the situation in which they find themselves, expanding the measurement tool. However, little has been done beyond the research by Zhang, Jensen and Mann (1996) in the development of the RLSS.

The Revised Leadership for Sport Scale (RLSS) is a useful tool for understanding leadership behaviour in the sporting world. It is appropriate to use when distinguishing between coaching environments and related behaviours. For example, Jambor and Zhang (1997) used the RLSS to investigate leadership, gender, and coaching level and found significant differences between leadership behaviours with different coaching levels. These differences were between coaches coaching at higher level and coaches coaching at lower levels; with the coaches coaching at the higher level reporting higher means on the RLSS items. There were, however, no significant differences between male and female coaches, or between gender and coaching level.

Another measure for coaches' behaviour is called the Arizona State University Observation Instrument (ASUOI). The basis for this instrument was Lacy and Darst's (1984) research which investigated the behaviours of ten winning high school football coaches using specific behaviours. Using the ASUOI Lacy and Goldston (1990) performed a study of high school girls' basketball coaches in order to analyse

the behaviours of five female high-school basketball coaches during pre-season and in season practice sessions. They collected the data using the event recording of 13 specific behaviours of the ASUOI. In a more recent study Lacy and Martin (1994) used the ASUOI to examine starter/non-starter Motor Skill Engagement (MSE) and coaching behaviours in different segments of pre-season practices in collegiate women's volleyball.

The ASUOI and a number of other systematic observation instruments, originally developed for use in the field of teaching, have also been modified to analyse the behaviours of sporting coaches (Claxton, 1988; Lacy & Darst, 1985; Markland & Martinek, 1988; Rushall, 1977; Segrave & Ciancio, 1990). Among the first to adapt this technique were Tharp and Gallimore (1976) who devised a ten-category system to observe U.C.L.A. basketball coach, John Wooden. Markland and Martinek (1988) explored the nature and amount of feedback that successful and less successful high school volleyball coaches gave their starting and non-starting players. The growth of this research evidenced by Darst, Zakrajsek, and Mancini (1989) who dedicated an entire section of their book to collating several instruments, each specifically designed to analyse the behaviour of coaches or athletes in a practice environment.

Computer technology has also been used to make the processes of data collection and analysis easier for researchers (Briggs, 1991; Carlson & McKenzie, 1984; Johnson & Franks, 1991; Hawkins & Wiegand, 1989). This technology offers instant summary and display of the collected data and permits the timely return of meaningful feedback on the observed coaching performance. In an attempt to develop and improve on the existing techniques for the systematic observation of coaches in a

sport setting, Franks, Johnson, and Sinclair (1988) developed the 'Computerized Coaching Analysis System' (CCAS). The CCAS has three components, one of which is the 'Coaching Analysis Instrument' (CAI). The CAI is designed to collect data on the verbal behaviours demonstrated by coaches as they organise and train athletes during practice sessions. According to Partridge and Franks (1996) the initial use of the CAI highlighted some shortfalls in its design. As a result, More, McGarry, Partridge and Franks (1996) developed a revised version of the CAI. The CAI has been developed for use within the Canadian National Coaching Certification Program (NCCP) as a coaching appraisal or self-assessment tool that can be used by coaches to study their own performance on a regular basis. It can be operated via the keyboard of an IBM compatible microcomputer and can consequently be used by coaches as part of their progress in professional coaching improvement.

A more recent instrument proposed by Riemer and Chelladurai (1998) has been developed to measure athlete satisfaction. They have used qualitative and quantitative procedures to develop the Athlete Satisfaction Questionnaire (ASQ) which measures 15 psychological facets of athlete satisfaction that reflect the more relevant targets in the athletic context, such as leadership and individual and team performance.

In conclusion, over the past 28 years, a number of studies developed new and re-examined existing measures of leadership. They have used questionnaires to measure task oriented and relationship oriented behaviour and to see how these behaviours correlated with coach leadership effectiveness as evidenced by players' satisfaction and performance. Others have used field experiments to investigate how coach

leadership behaviour affects players' satisfaction and performance. These studies used training approaches (Smith, Smoll, & Curtis, 1979) and observation techniques (Lacy & Darts 1984).

However, According to Case (1998), "Despite these efforts, the study of leadership behaviour in sport remains one of the most frequently discussed and least understood research areas" (p.1). Therefore, it is important to now focus on the specific behaviours of coaches using different approaches. This will require the development of new measures. In the quantitative component of this research, a new questionnaire has been developed to measure the specific leadership behaviours of coaches.

Leadership Models in Sport

The study of leadership is a fertile subject in team sports and has led to the development of several leadership models. This section of chapter three reviews the literature on sport leadership models.

The Multidimensional Model of Leadership.

In 1978, Chelladurai proposed a Multidimensional Model of Leadership MML which demonstrated that the effectiveness of coach behaviour was contingent on its congruence with the preferences of the members as well as the dictates of the situation. Chelladurai (1990) further expanded and developed this model to show that group performance and member satisfaction are a function of the congruence among three states of leader behaviour (required, preferred, and actual). The antecedents of

these three states are the characteristics of the situation, the leader, and the members (see Figure 5). However, according to Scully and Kremer (1994) "one of the weaknesses in Chelladurai's model, is that while the model has been used in many studies it still remains untested in its entirety"(p. 139).

Chelladurai and Carron's (1978) Multidimensional Model of Leadership (MML) (see Figure 5) is often used in studying leadership behaviour. Developed from previous areas of leadership study (Fiedler, 1967; House, 1971; Osborn and Hunt, 1975), the main hypothesis of the MML is that a balance of required behaviour (i.e., situational demanded), actual behaviour (i.e., behaviourally exhibited), and preferred behaviour (i.e., desired by athletes) is needed to generate leadership which will ensure athletes' optimum performance and satisfaction. Chelladurai and Carron (1978) split leader behaviours in terms of five dimensions using consideration and initiating structure in a sporting context to guide them. These five dimensions were training and instruction, democratic and autocratic behaviour, positive feedback and social support.

As seen in Figure 5 and according to Chelladurai, an athlete's satisfaction and performance (box 7 in figure 5) depends on three types of leader behaviour: required (box 4), preferred (box 6) and actual (box 5). The situation (box 1), leader (box 2) and members (box 3) lead to these kinds of behaviour, so they are called antecedents.

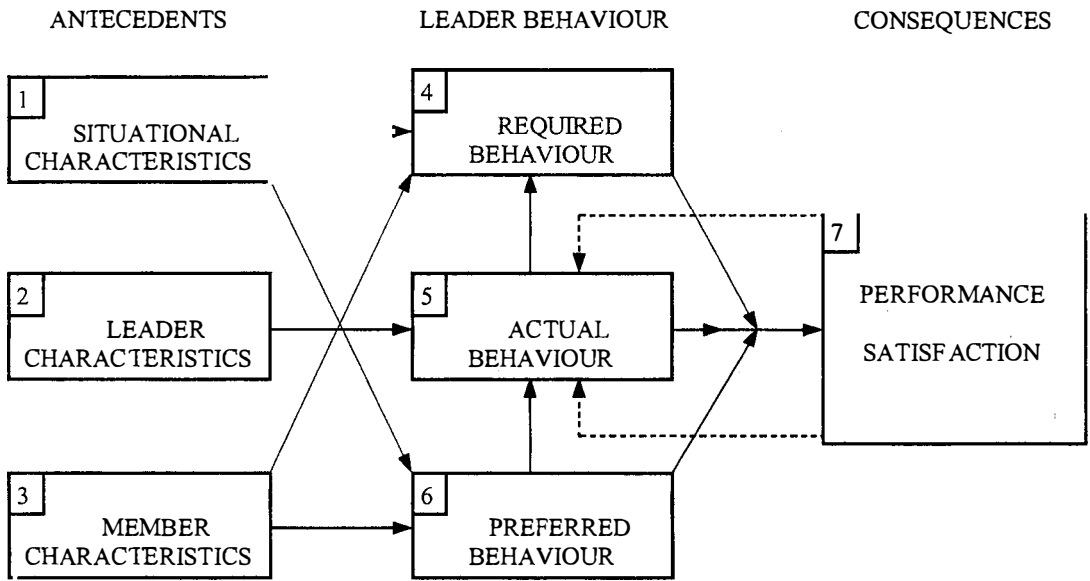


Figure 5. The multidimensional model of leadership. (Chelladurai, 1990, 1993).

The Normative Model of decision Styles in Coaching.

Chelladurai and Haggerty (1978) expanded the earlier model of Vroom and Yttton (1973) which was based on decision making. Chelladurai and Haggerty's model (see figure 6) included the following three decision styles: autocratic, delegative, and participative. In the *autocratic decision style*, the final decision is actually made by the coach who may consult one or more members in an attempt to gather information regarding the problem. The *participative decision style* is when the group including the coach makes the actual decision. The influence of the coach is reduced to that of another member. In the *delegative decision style*, the coach delegates the authority to make the decision to one or more members and the coach's involvement is restricted to announcing or implementing the decision.

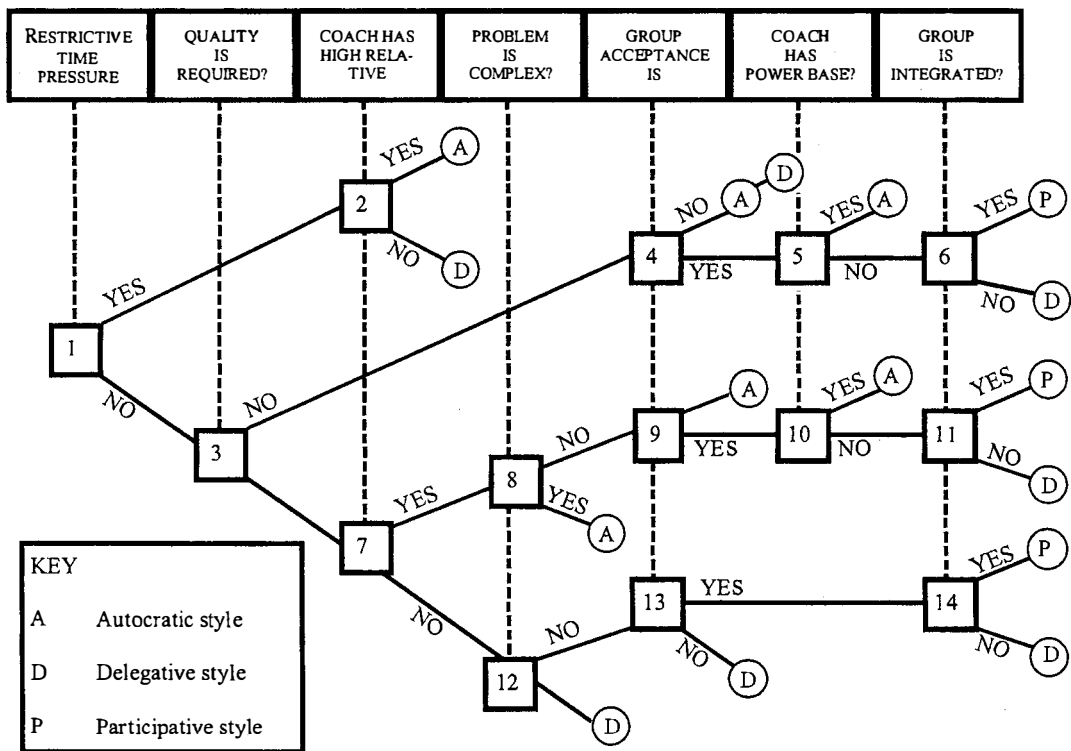


Figure 6. The normative model of decision styles in coaching. (Chelladurai and Haggerty, 1978)

As seen in Figure 6, to use the model, the decision maker starts on the left-hand side of the flow chart and proceeds to the right based on the “yes” and “no” response to the questions listed on top of the chart. At each terminal point, a feasible decision style is specified by the model as appropriate for each of the 14 situations.

According to Kremer and Scully (1994), Gordon (1986), carried out one of the strongest studies applying the normative model of decision styles, because he was the first and the only one to test the whole model. The other studies have been were by Chelladurai and Arnott (1985), Chelladurai and Haggerty (1978), and Chelladurai, Haggerty and Baxter (1989). However, Kremer and Scully (1994) have been critical of Chelladurai and Haggerty’s decision making model saying that "Chelladurai took

this model, the original decision tree model, and rather than testing it out in sport, he immediately modified the basic model for use with sports coaches" (p. 136).

The Mediation Model of Leadership.

In the 1970s and 1980s Smith and Smoll initiated new research directions by proposing the Mediation Model (see figure 7). This model consisted of three elements: *coach behaviours*, *player perception and recall*, and *player's evaluative reactions*. Research based on the Mediation Model may be classified into three headings: (a) general player attitudes, (b) player self-esteem and coach behaviour, and (c) effects of training coaches.

Smith, Smoll, and Curtis (1978) found that players' self-esteem moderated the attitudinal response to coaches. That is, the low self-esteem child responds most positively to a supportive or instructive coach-player relationship. On the other hand, negative coaches, who are not supportive, had less impact on high self-esteem children.

Smoll and Smith (1989) examined the cognitive and affective processes that may mediate an athlete's reaction to his coach's behaviour through a model of leadership behaviours in sport. Smoll and Smith's model asserts that the athletes perceive and recall these certain coach behaviours and form their evaluation on their recollection and perceptions of these behaviours. However, according to Smith and Smoll there are mediating factors which influence this process and these can be classified into three main groups: situational (e.g., level of competition, nature of the sport, practice

or game setting); coach and athlete individual difference variables (e.g., gender, age, perceived coaching norms, goals/motives); and the coach's perception of athletes' attitudes. Thus, the model uses a number of complex interactions of mediating variables to gauge the overall effectiveness of coaching behaviours. (see figure 7).

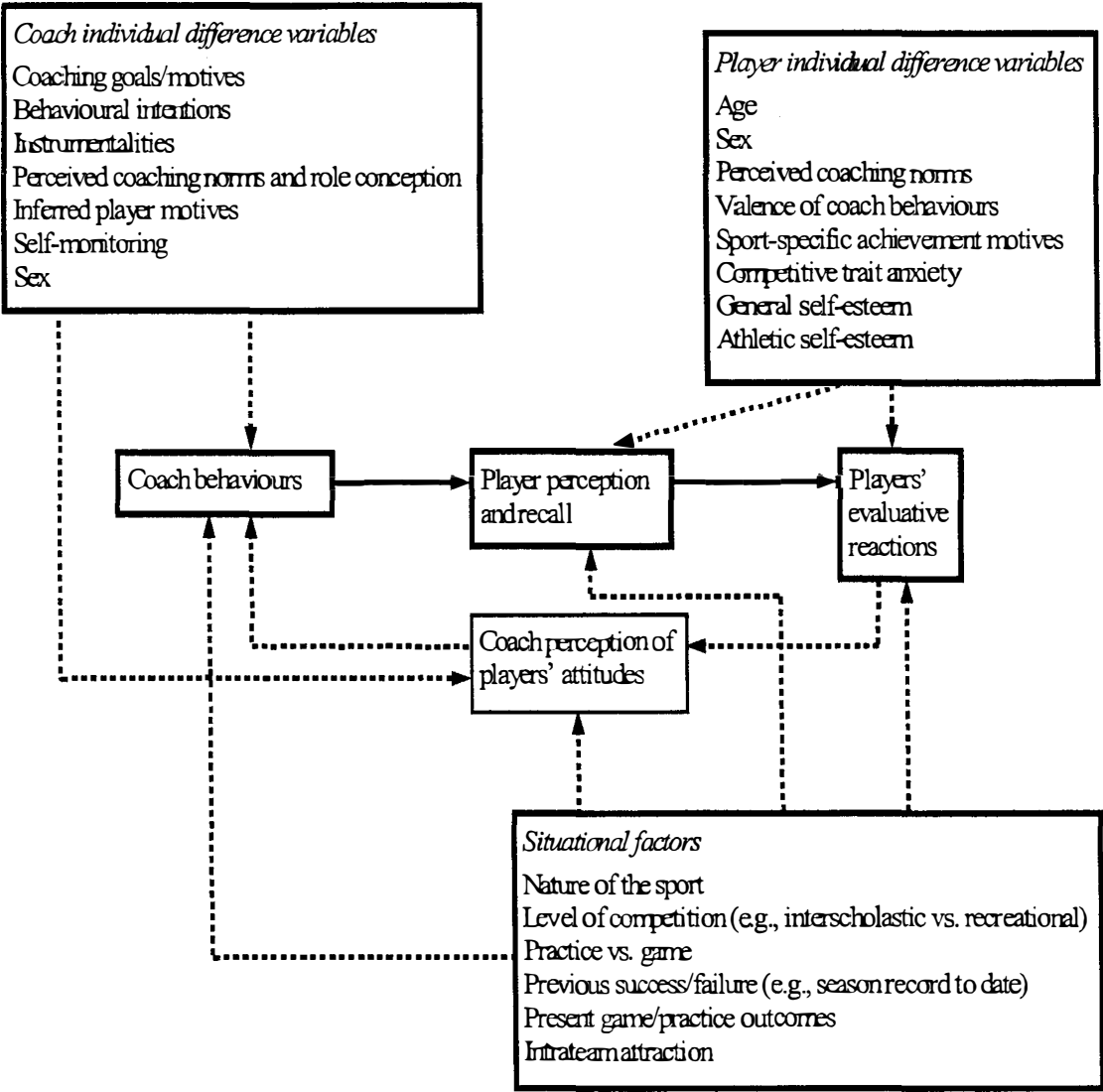


Figure 7. The mediational model of leadership. From 'leadership behaviours in sport: A theoretical model and research paradigm' by F.L. Smoll and R.E. Smith, 1989, *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 19 (18), 1522-1551.

Summary.

Chapter 3 presented the development of leadership theories and models in management and industry and sport. A review of the development of the leadership theories in management and industry was provided first followed by the measurement techniques of leadership in sport. Finally, the leadership models in sport have been presented. The next two chapters will present the two studies of this research. To aid clarity, the two studies will be presented in separate chapters. Each chapter will outline the purpose, research questions, methods and procedures, and discuss the results of the investigation.

Chapter 4 presents the quantitative research data which included a pilot study to establish the validity and reliability of the instrument used in the research. Chapter 5 outlines the qualitative research investigation.

The final chapter will summarise the research findings, make conclusions and discuss the future implications of this research.

CHAPTER FOUR

Study One

Introduction

This study comprised three parts:

1. A pilot study which established the validity and reliability of the instrument.
2. The primary study investigated the players and coaches perceptions and the coaches years of experience to identify the differences which existed for each of these two variables. (See figure 1).
3. The secondary study investigated the levels of competition, players gender and players age to analyse the differences which existed for each of these variables. (See figure 1).

Methods and Procedures

Research Questions - Repeated

Study 1 Questions

In the primary and secondary studies, the following questions are addressed:

Primary Study Questions.

1. Do players perceive the leadership behaviours of their coaches differently from the way that their coaches perceive their own behaviours?
2. Does a coach's level of experience affect players' perceptions of leadership behaviours?

Secondary Study Questions.

1. Does the level of competition affect players' perceptions of coach leadership behaviours?
2. Are there gender-related differences in players' perceptions of coach leadership behaviours?
3. Are there age-related differences in players' perceptions of coach leadership behaviours?

Research Design

Study 1 involved a quantitative approach and the Coach Practices Survey (CPS) was used as the major instrument for data collection. There were two versions of this instrument, one was designed to measure coaches' perceptions of their own behaviours and one was designed to measure players' perceptions of coaches' behaviours. The following summarises the steps taken in the planning and processes for study 1:

1. Yukl's (1991) questionnaire was modified to produce two separate sport specific versions of the Managerial Practices Survey (MPS) instrument. These were: (a) The players' perception of coach leadership specific behaviours (Coaches Practices Survey CPS players version) shown in Appendix F and (b) The coaches' version of coach leadership specific behaviours (Coaches Practices Survey CPS coaches version) shown in Appendix G. A pilot study was then conducted and established an acceptable validity and reliability for both versions of the CPS.
2. The researcher and his supervisor contacted the National Soccer League NSL clubs and permission was obtained to include their players and coaches in the study. Most of the teams were interviewed in a special room set aside in their hotels when they came to play the West Australian National soccer team in Perth.
3. The West Australian Soccer Association and clubs were also contacted and permission was obtained to include their players and coaches in the study.
4. When players and coaches were interviewed and the purpose of the study was explained, the researcher answered any questions and concerns raised by the subjects before the data collection. All the players and coaches who agreed to participate in the study completed consent forms. (See Appendix A for the players' consent form, initial contact letter and the research outline. See Appendix B for junior players' consent form, the initial contact letter and the research outline. See Appendix C for the coaches' consent forms, their initial contact letter and their research outline, and see Appendix D for the University Ethical Approval). In most cases, the questionnaires were distributed and after

completion by the players and coaches, they were collected by the researcher, with the help of the supervisor. Where it was not possible to give the questionnaires directly to the players and their coaches, they were posted to the clubs with a full set of explanations and instructions regarding the completion tasks. Telephone contact was also made with the club to ensure that they were prepared to participate in this study. Completed questionnaires were returned in supplied envelopes addressed to the researcher. This procedure was also adapted for four National Soccer League (NSL) clubs who were unable to complete the questionnaire during their stay in Perth.

5. Data were analysed by using MANOVA tests and post hoc tests when MANOVA was significant.

The next section provides the details of each step taken.

The Pilot Study

The initial objective of the pilot study was to ensure that the methodologies and procedures were appropriate for the proposed research. According to Glesne and Peshkin (1992) " A pilot study can test many aspects of your proposed research" (p.30). The pilot study for study one was conducted to test the coaching instrument CPS.

Pilot Study – Instrument Development

The Coach Practices Survey (CPS) was the major instrument in the first study. As the CPS had not been used in sport psychology research before, it was important to establish the validity and reliability of the instrument.

The CPS was developed from The Managers' Practices Survey (MPS) which was developed by Gary Yukl and Manus Associates (1991). The MPS, which was validated over a number of years, first developed in 1975, was considered highly reliable and valid. According to Yukl, Wall, and Lepsinger (1990) "The present validation program for MPS has been more intensive and comprehensive than the validation research done on any previous leader behaviour questionnaire" (p. 236).

Permission was obtained from Professor Yukl to use and modify the MPS for use in the sports context (see Appendix E). The modifications were mainly rewording and language adjustments which were made in consultation with language experts, sport research experts, the Director of Coaching at the Soccer Administration of Western Australia (SAWA) and the Director of the Coaching Foundation in Western Australia (CFWA). This new version, called the Coach Practices Survey (CPS), involved two questionnaires: one specifically designed for the players (i.e., the players' version) and one specifically designed for the coaches (i.e., the coaches' version). The players' version involved four questions designed to obtain demographic information about the players. These questions were then followed by a section focussing on 14 specific behaviours. Each behaviour category was further subdivided into three items. A five point Likert scale was used for each item. A similar format was utilised for the coaches' version of the CPS with slight modification in the wording. The two questionnaires are in Appendices F and G.

Validity.

The validity of the instruments was established using expert evaluation as a step before implementation with the players. Following the completion of the informed consent forms by the subjects, various methods and tests were used in the pilot study to establish the validity of the specific behaviours for the CPS. These tests were chosen to accord with previous validity and reliability tests carried out by Yukl and associates and reported in a preliminary report on validation of the MPS (Yukl, Wall, and Lepsinger, 1990). The current study methods were as follows:

1. The use of expert evaluation to assess the instrument in two approaches. First, the experts were asked to respond to Norland (1990) key questions and then to rate each question on the instrument for language and clarity.
2. Coding accuracy for specific behaviours took place to establish construct validity.

Content Validity.

In accordance with Norland (1990), two methods were used to test content validity. These involved the use of experts to judge the questionnaire and complete a field test. Each method involved the same two-step procedure, which included suggesting changes and ratings according to set criteria.

In assessing the content validity a panel of experts were used to perform the task. This is in keeping with Norland (1990) who indicated that a panel of experts with expertise in the area under investigation, measurement, and research design, can measure the content validity of a questionnaire. Five individuals were chosen who were familiar with sports science research and quantitative research measurements. They also had significant expertise in the area of sport science, soccer and sport psychology. These five experts were asked to judge the CPS on two separate occasions. First, they reviewed all the CPS items and were requested to suggest changes that should be made to enhance the content of the questionnaire. Following Norland (1990) the experts were asked to review the CPS instruments by responding to the following questions: "Are all the questions related to the focus of the instrument? Are there any questions missing? Are there inappropriate questions? "Are the questions too difficult?" (p.2). Will the players and coaches interpret the questions in the same way as the designer had intended? The experts gave a few minor suggestions which were mostly about rewording some items, changing a word or giving an example for an item. The researcher noted the experts' feedback and suggestions for the CPS instructions and items. All suggestions were taken into

account and modifications to the instrument were made. These modifications affected twelve items across eight specific behaviours.

Second, the experts were asked to review all the CPS items and provide ratings out of 10 for each item based on the following four criteria:

1. How clear are the instructions of the CPS?
2. How clear are the items of the CPS?
3. How appropriate is the language and material of all the CPS items?
4. How easy is it to answer the CPS?

The CPS has 14 specific behaviours and every behaviour category has three items. The total number of the items is forty-two for all the specific behaviours. The average of the four ratings for every behaviour category for each of the 14 behaviour category scores were obtained in the following manner: average the four ratings for each item to obtain an item score for each of the forty two items; average the three item scores within each behaviour category to obtain a behaviour category score for each of the 14 specific behaviours. The behaviour category scores were averaged across experts and are presented in Table 5 expressed in percentages. A similar procedure was used in previous studies on the MPS by Yukl, Wall, and Lepsinger (1990). For consistency in discussion Tables 5 – 23 present the 14 behaviours in the same order regardless of their ranking in each Table.

Table 5

Mean Percentages for Judges' Evaluation for the CPS Specific Behaviours

Specific behaviours	Mean Percentage
Informing	90
Consulting	87
Delegating	89
Planning & Organising	86
Problem Solving	85
Clarifying	91
Monitoring	87
Motivating	90
Recognising	85
Rewarding	89
Supporting	87
Mentoring/ Developing	92
Conflict Management	84
Networking	85

N=5

The results in Table 5 show that the experts' evaluation for the CPS content validity was high for each behaviour scale, indicating that the CPS instructions were clear, easy to understand and to answer, and that the language and content of the item were appropriate. These mean percentages are acceptable as they are all over 75.

The proposed field test was the second method of checking content validity. This again is in accordance with recommendations from Norland (1990), and involves the

questionnaire being administered to a small group of subjects to gain feedback on the items. In this pilot study the CPS was administered to a sample of 50 senior high school soccer players and 10 senior high school coaches. The ratio between the players and their coaches was 5:1. The same two-step procedure was used here as for the experts.

After reviewing the CPS items the players and their coaches assessed all the CPS items as clear and easy to answer. They also interpreted the CPS items in the same manner as the researcher had intended. No modifications or changes were required.

Separate specific behaviours scores were calculated for players and coaches. The averages for each of the 14 specific behaviours were calculated and expressed as percentages in the same way for the players and coaches as for the experts. These percentages are shown in Table 6. The results show that players' and coaches' evaluation for the CPS content validity was high for each behaviour scale, indicating that the CPS instructions and items were clear, easy to understand and easy to answer, and that the language and content of the items were appropriate.

Table 6

Mean Percentages for High School Players' and their Coaches' Evaluation for the CPS Specific Behaviours

Specific behaviours	<u>Mean Percentage</u>	
	Players	Coaches
Informing	87	89
Consulting	85	90
Delegating	89	93
Planning & Organising	86	91
Problem Solving	82	93
Clarifying	88	95
Monitoring	88	95
Motivating	85	90
Recognising	89	90
Rewarding	89	95
Supporting	90	91
Mentoring/ Developing	84	94
Conflict Management	85	90
Networking	82	90
N=60		

The results for players and coaches are similar to those from the experts. All the results for the CPS are comparable with those for the MPS. These mean percentages are acceptable as they are all over 75. (See table 7).

Table 7

Comparison between Mean Percentages for the Current Pilot Study and Previous Studies for the Content Validity of the CPS and MPS

Specific behaviours	<u>Mean Percentage for CPS and MPS*</u>						
	CPS 2000 Study Expert as Judges	CPS 2000 Study Player as Judges	CPS 2000 Study Coach as Judges	MPS 1984 Study Students as Judges	MPS 1985 Study Students as Judges	MPS 1986 Study Students as Judges	MPS 1988 Study Students as Judges
Informing	90	87	89	96	86	92	84
Consulting	87	85	90	88	91	91	82
Delegating	89	89	93	88	91	91	82
Planning & Organising	86	86	91	87	91	91	82
Problem Solving	85	82	93	91	90	91	85
Clarifying	91	88	95	85	79	86	87
Monitoring	87	88	95	96	94	92	89
Motivating	90	85	90	81	82	81	72
Recognising	85	89	90	86	95	94	95
Rewarding	89	89	95	86	95	94	95
Supporting	87	90	91	85	91	85	89
Mentoring/ Developing	92	84	94	89	91	88	NI
Conflict Management	84	85	90	91	89	86	73
Networking	85	82	90	NI	87	86	87
Number of Judges:	5	50	10	32	24	36	41

Note: NI indicates that the scale was not included in a particular study.

*The CPS results are from the current pilot study. The MPS results are from four previous studies reported by Yukl, Wall and Lepsinger (1990).

Construct Validity.

To check the construct validity of the CPS, 12 experts were chosen as judges. These judges were all given the CPS items ($N = 42$) in random order on separate slips of paper, then asked to indicate for each item, which one of the 14 specific behaviours it best represented. After collecting all the experts' responses, the researcher measured the coding accuracy for all the CPS items. Coding accuracy was measured as the percentage of judges who accurately coded the item. Coding accuracy for each behaviour category was the average across the three items for the category. Similar procedures were used in previous studies on the MPS. According to Yukl, Wall, and Lepsinger (1990) "how items may be viewed, as definitive examples of specific behaviours is one of the tests for the validity" (p.227). The results of the mean percentages for judges correct coding for the specific behaviours are represented in Table 8.

Table 8

Mean Percentages for Judges Correct Coding for the Specific Behaviours

Specific behaviours	Mean Percentage
Informing	98
Consulting	92
Delegating	100
Planning & Organising	94
Problem Solving	83
Clarifying	92
Monitoring	97
Motivating	100
Recognising	83
Rewarding	86
Supporting	100
Mentoring/ Developing	100
Conflict Management	83
Networking	98

N=12

The results in Table 8 show that the coding accuracy was high for all the specific behaviours. This indicated that the items were viewed by the judges as appropriate instances of the specific behaviours. These mean percentages are acceptable as they are all over 75.

Reliability.

The reliability tests were conducted to find the internal consistency and stability of the CPS. The following tests were used:

1. Cronbach's Alpha, and
2. Pearson's product moment correlation.

Internal Consistency.

When testing reliability for an instrument with subscales, internal consistency is the first matter to be considered. This is indicated by the degree of agreement between the items in the scale. The researcher collected data on a random sample of 100 players in the West Australian Premier League reserves. Cronbach's Alpha was calculated for each of the 14 specific behaviours.

Table 9

Internal Consistency for the CPS Specific behaviours

Coach Behaviour	Alpha
Informing	.83
Consulting	.91
Delegating	.75
Planning & Organising	.88
Problem Solving	.75
Clarifying	.89
Monitoring	.60
Motivating	.69
Recognising	.56
Rewarding	.66
Supporting	.65
Mentoring/ Developing	.74
Conflict Management	.82
Networking	.79

N=100

Alpha can range from 0 (no reliability) to 1 (perfect reliability). The results shown in Table 9 indicate that internal consistency varied from highly consistent to moderately consistent. The highly consistent categories were *consulting, clarifying, planning and organising, informing, conflict management, networking, problem solving, delegating and mentoring*. The moderately consistent categories were *motivating, rewarding, supporting, monitoring and recognising*.

The researcher then compared the results of this pilot study with previous studies for the MPS. The previous research for the internal consistency of the MPS included four studies conducted on different organisations. The first study was carried out on 132 subordinates of middle managers in a large medical health insurance company. The second study consisted of 76 subordinates of middle managers in a large chemical company. The third study comprised 124 subordinates of Air Force maintenance supervisors in different bases around USA, while the fourth study was carried out on 1173 managers in several organisations. The sample in the latter study included managers from the first two studies. The results of this comparison are presented in Table 10.

The results in Table 10 show that nine specific behaviours had similar results. In all of the four studies for the MPS and the pilot study on the CPS, Cronbach's alpha was very high for: *informing, consulting, delegating, planning and organising, problem solving, clarifying, mentoring, conflict management and networking*. In the other five specific behaviours Cronbach's alpha value was moderately high for the CPS, and higher for the MPS. These specific behaviours were *monitoring, motivating, recognising, rewarding and supporting*.

Table 10

Comparison Between the Internal Consistency for the CPS and the MPS*.

	Alpha	Alpha	Alpha	Alpha	Alpha
Coaches Behaviour	for	for	for	for	for
	the	the	the	the	the
	CPS	MPS	MPS	MPS	MPS
		Study 1	Study 2	Study 3	Study 4
Informing	.83	.84	.80	.83	.84
Consulting	.91	.86	.86	.87	.88
Delegating	.75	.86	.86	.87	.88
Planning & Organising	.88	.90	.86	.88	.85
Problem Solving	.75	.94	.84	.88	.86
Clarifying	.89	.88	.81	.86	.86
Monitoring	.60	.88	.80	.83	.87
Motivating	.69	.90	.87	.90	.90
Recognising	.56	.92	.86	.90	.84
Rewarding	.66	.92	.86	.90	.84
Supporting	.65	.90	.89	.89	.90
Mentoring/ Developing	.74	.93	.87	.90	.91
Conflict Management	.82	.91	.85	.90	.90
Networking	.79	.87	.84	.87	.84
Sample Size	100	132	76	124	1173

Note: The sample in study four includes the samples from studies one and two.

*The CPS results are from the current pilot study. The MPS results are from four previous studies reported by Yukl, Wall, and Lepsinger (1990).

Stability.

Assessing stability of the specific behaviours involved administering the CPS to the same sample of subjects on two different occasions under the same circumstances. In the current study a random sample of 100 players playing in the West Australian Premier League reserves teams answered the CPS on two separate occasions. The time interval between administrations was three weeks. Scores from the two administrations were correlated using Pearson's Product-moment correlation coefficient to measure the stability of responses to the instrument. The results are presented in Table 11.

Table 11

Test Retest Reliability Coefficients for Specific Behaviours

Coach Behaviour	r
Informing	.65
Consulting	.39
Delegating	.61
Planning & Organising	.60
Problem Solving	.68
Clarifying	.42
Monitoring	.35
Motivating	.77
Recognising	.55
Rewarding	.65
Supporting	.66
Mentoring/ Developing	.65
Conflict Management	.46
Networking	.38
N=100	

Note: All P< 0.01.

The results in table 11 show that stability for the specific behaviours varied from very high to moderate to quite low for the CPS. The behaviours have been separated into high – low stability based on the following cut off points. From 60 and higher were highly stable. Between 59 and 40 were moderately stable. From 39 and lower were low in stability. The highly stable categories were motivating, problem solving, supporting, rewarding, mentoring, informing, delegating and planning. The

moderately stable categories were recognising, conflict management and clarifying. Categories with low stability were consulting, networking and monitoring.

While it is not within the constraints of this study to provide an explanation of the differences between the CPS in this pilot study and previous research on the MPS, however, reasons that could be suggested include, the different environments for each study (management versus sport), the sample size and the fact that this is the first time the CPS has been used in the sporting context.

The test- retest reliability coefficients for the specific behaviours of the CPS were compared with the values of the specific behaviours reported for the MPS. Three studies have reported test-retest reliability coefficients for the MPS specific behaviours. The test retest intervals were three weeks in the 1984 study, six weeks in the 1985 study, and four weeks in the 1986 study (Yukl, Wall and Lepsinger (1990).

Table 12

Comparison between the Test Retest Reliability for Specific behaviours for the CPS and the MPS*.

Coach Behaviour	<u>Pearson r</u>			
	<u>Pilot Study</u> for the CPS	<u>1984 Study</u> for the MPS	<u>1985 Study</u> for the MPS	<u>1986 Study</u> for the MPS
Informing	.65	.67	.84	.76
Consulting	.39	.81	.63	.66
Delegating	.61	.81	.63	.66
Planning & Organising	.60	.61	.67	.78
Problem Solving	.68	.79	.58	.79
Clarifying	.42	.80	.79	.75
Monitoring	.35	.71	.81	.61
Motivating	.77	.78	.75	.86
Recognising	.55	.82	.74	.80
Rewarding	.65	.82	.74	.80
Supporting	.66	.94	.91	.75
Mentoring/ Developing	.65	.75	.70	.64
Conflict Management	.46	.78	.86	.86
Networking	.38	.67	.65	.48
Sample size	100	36	24	42

*Note: The CPS results are from the Current Pilot Study. The MPS results were from three Previous Studies reported by Yukl, Wall, and Lepsinger (1990).

The results in Table 12 show that eight specific behaviours had similar coefficients. The similar results were reported on the following categories: informing, delegating, planning and organising, problem solving, motivating, rewarding, supporting and

mentoring. In the other six specific behaviours, Pearson's r coefficients for the CPS were lower than for the MPS. These specific behaviours were: consulting, clarifying, monitoring, recognising, conflict management and networking.

All the reliability and validity procedures were performed on the version of the instrument intended for the players. The phrasing of the items was subsequently adjusted for the version of the instrument intended for the coaches. Both instruments are in Appendices F and G.

Subjects

According to Wadsworth (1984) " the purpose of sampling is to produce either a sample which is representative of a chosen population or which may illuminate a situation, get an insight or collect information about a particular event " (p. 14). As this study is designed to investigate coaches' behaviours the sample was chosen to represent the soccer players and coaches in Australia. Therefore the sample for the first study was constructed in the following way.

Subjects for study one were 400 randomly selected soccer players and 40 randomly selected soccer coaches. A random sample of 10 clubs and their coaches were selected from the National Soccer League (NSL); a random sample of 10 clubs and their coaches were selected from the West Australian Premier League (PL); a random sample of 10 clubs and their coaches were selected from West Australian Women's League; and a random sample of 10 clubs and their coaches were selected from the West Australian Junior League. The result was a random sample of 40

clubs together with a coach from each club. From each of the 40 clubs, 10 players were randomly selected. The ratio between the players and the coaches was 10:1 (Table 13).

Table 13
Subjects for Study One

Club Division	Players	Coaches	Ratio
National Soccer League	100	10	10:1
Premier League WA	100	10	10:1
Women’s League WA	100	10	10:1
Junior League WA	100	10	10:1
TOTAL	400	40	10:1

Sub-Sampling Techniques

From the full sample of 400 players and 40 coaches, different sub-samples were used to address the different study questions. These were selected to obtain the best representation of the populations by each research question and to perform mostly balanced (i.e., equal) comparisons. In addition, the instrument used to gather the data varied according to the question under investigation. Both the coach and player’s version were only utilised in the primary sub-sampling to address question

one. All other questions in both the primary and secondary sub-sampling used only the players' version.

Primary Sub-Sampling.

The first question for the primary study is:

Q1: Do players perceive leadership behaviours of their coaches differently than their coaches perceive their own behaviours?

The full sample of 40 coaches and 400 players was used to address this question. The comparisons were made between the data from the 40 coaches and the average of responses from the ten players associated with each coach (40 coaches and 40 average players).

The second question for the primary study is:

Q2: Does the coaches level of experience affect players perceptions of their coaches leadership behaviours?

The 400 players were classified according to their coaches' years of experience, with coaching experience ranging from novice (less than two years experience), intermediate (two and less than eight years) and experts (eight and over). From the total sample of 400 players, 100 were coached by novice coaches, 200 were coached by intermediate coaches and 100 were coached by expert coaches.

Secondary Sub-Sampling.

The first question for the secondary study is:

Q1: Does the level of competition affect players' perceptions of their coaches' leadership behaviours?

All 400 players playing in different levels of competition were included in this sub sample, (100 players in NSL, 100 players in WA Premier League, 100 players in Women's League and 100 players in WA Junior League).

The second question for the secondary study is:

Q2: Are there gender-related differences in players' perceptions of their coaches' leadership behaviours?

A random sample of 100 male players and all of the 100 female players were included in the sub-sample.

The third question for the secondary study is:

Q3: Are there age-related differences in players' perceptions of their coaches' leadership behaviours?

100 players, 16 years and over, were randomly selected and all of the 100 junior players (under 16 years of age) were selected from the junior league competition to

be included in this sub-sample. The researcher used the age of 16 to differentiate between the junior and senior players in accordance with the SAWA regulations.

Study Variables.

In study one, the main instrument in both the primary and secondary investigation was the Coach Practices Survey (CPS) which was designed by the researcher to measure specific coach leadership behaviours. For the purposes of this research, the researcher developed two versions of the CPS, one version for the players and one for the coaches (Appendices F and G). The two versions of the questionnaire were designed to elicit the following information:

1. General and personal information: players age, level of the team, coaches' experience, and player's gender. This demographic information is very important as it represents the independent variables in this study.
2. The 14 specific behaviours from the CPS (planning and organising, problem solving, clarifying roles and objectives, informing, monitoring, motivation and inspiring, consulting, delegating, supporting, developing and monitoring, managing conflict and team building, networking, recognising, and rewarding) were the dependent variables. For each subject (40 coaches and 400 players), 14 specific behaviours were calculated by working out the average of the responses to the three items within each behaviour category.

Procedures

Data were collected in four interrelated phases using the modified questionnaire that was designed to measure perceptions of specific coaches' leadership behaviours. The four sequential phases were:

1. The NSL and WA clubs were contacted to obtain their permission to include their players and coaches in the study.
2. Players and coaches were interviewed to explain the purpose of the study and to answer any questions that may arise.
3. The CPS Questionnaire was distributed to the players and coaches and answered during the session.
4. The questionnaires were collected for analysis.

Results & Data Analysis

All participants completed the CPS and were included in the statistical analyses. Analyses were performed using the SPSS programme (version 10). The following strategy was used to analyse the data for each research question.

Firstly, groups were compared on all 14 specific behaviours using MANOVA. For the comparison of players' and coaches' perceptions, a repeated measures MANOVA was used. For all other comparisons, independent groups MANOVA was used. The Wilks' Lambda test of significance was used for all comparisons. This test is considered to have acceptable strength and to be a strong statistic against

violations of assumptions (Coakes & Steed, 2001). To control for the increase in the Type I error rate that occurs when performing multiple tests on the same data, it was decided to use a stringent alpha level of 0.001.

Second, significant MANOVA results were followed by univariate ANOVAs. Once again, for comparisons of coaches and players, repeated measures analyses were used and for all other comparisons independent groups ANOVA was used. These comparisons were also assessed with an alpha level of 0.001.

Third, for independent variables with more than two categories, namely, coaches' years of experience and club's level of competition, significant ANOVA results were followed by pair wise comparison using Bonferroni Adjusted Student's T-Tests.

Results of the Primary Study

The primary results are presented first, followed by the presentation of the secondary results. The primary results are presented in the following order: (a) coaches' and players' perceptions and (b) coaches' years of experience.

Coaches' and Players' Perceptions.

The first question for the primary study is; "Do players perceive leadership behaviours of their coaches differently than their coaches perceive their own behaviours?"

To examine the differences between players' and coaches' perceptions of these behaviours, the specific behaviour scores for the 40 coaches were compared with specific behaviours scores for 40 averages for all of the 400 players.

The means and standard deviations for the specific behaviours for coaches and players are presented in Table 14. There was a significant multivariate difference between players' and coaches' perceptions of these behaviours, $F(14,26) = 9.10$, $P < 0.001$. As shown in Table 15, univariate ANOVAs revealed that coaches' and players' perceptions differed significantly on ten of the 14 specific behaviours. These behaviours were, planning, clarifying, motivating, recognising, monitoring, problem solving, supporting, managing conflict, mentoring and rewarding.

Table 14

Means and Standard Deviations of the 14 Specific behaviours Grouped for Coaches and Players

Behaviour	Coaches		Players	
	(n=40)		(n=40)	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Informing	3.68	0.63	3.41	0.44
* Planning	4.42	0.56	3.86	0.52
* Clarifying	4.19	0.59	3.86	0.58
Consulting	3.82	0.73	3.55	0.54
* Motivating	4.52	0.51	3.97	0.45
* Recognising	4.21	0.50	3.80	0.42
* Monitoring	3.94	0.54	3.65	0.50
* Problem Solving	4.00	0.50	3.57	0.58
* Supporting	4.46	0.49	3.71	0.42
* Managing Conflict	4.03	0.61	3.58	0.58
Networking	3.98	0.83	3.71	0.52
Delegating	3.92	0.53	3.66	0.44
* Mentoring	3.83	0.59	3.34	0.55
* Rewarding	4.28	0.54	3.62	0.55
* p<0.001 level				

Table 15

ANOVA Results for Comparisons Between Coaches and Players on 14 Specific Behaviours

Behaviour	Type III		Mean Square	F	P
	Sum of Squares	df			
Informing	1.51	1,39	1.51	5.01	0.031
Planning	6.15	1,39	6.15	29.63	<0. 001*
Clarifying	2.20	1,39	2.20	15.91	<0. 001*
Consulting	1.46	1,39	1.46	4.45	0.041
Motivating	5.93	1,39	5.93	35.55	<0. 001*
Recognising	3.34	1,39	3.34	16.99	<0. 001*
Monitoring	1.71	1,39	1.71	11.76	<0.001*
Problem Solving	3.63	1,39	3.63	11.76	<0.001*
Supporting	11.25	1,39	11.25	75.46	<0. 001*
Managing Conflict	4.17	1,39	4.17	17.12	<0. 001*
Networking	1.42	1,39	1.42	3.80	0.058
Delegating	1.30	1,39	1.30	5.58	0.023
Mentoring	4.88	1,39	4.88	22.98	<0. 001*
Rewarding	8.62	1,39	8.62	36.76	<0. 001*

Multivariate F (14,26) = 9.10, P < .001

Coaches’ Years of Experience.

The second question for the primary study is: “Does the coaches’ level of experience affect players perceptions of their coaches’ leadership behaviours?”.

To determine whether players' perceptions of their coaches' behaviours differed according to the coaches' years of experience, players were classified according to their coaches' years of experience: novice, intermediate and expert, as described before.

The means and standard deviations of the specific behaviours grouped by coaches' years of experience are represented in Table 16. There was a significant multivariate difference between players' perceptions, $F(28, 768) = 4.87, < 0.001$. This clearly indicates that the coaches' level of experience affects players' perceptions. As shown in Table 17, the univariate ANOVAs test revealed that players' perceptions differed significantly on eight specific behaviours. These were clarifying, motivating, monitoring, problem solving, managing conflict, networking, mentoring and rewarding.

The results of Bonferroni Adjusted T Test indicate that there was a statistically significant difference between players' perceptions of their coaches' behaviours indicating that the coaches' level of experience affects players' perceptions of their coaches. An examination of the results in Table 16 reveal that these differences for the eight specific behaviours were reported between different coaching levels. For example:

1. Between novice and intermediate experienced coaches in the following specific behaviours: clarifying, monitoring, problem solving, managing conflict and networking.

2. Between novice and expert experienced in the following specific behaviours:
clarifying, motivating, monitoring, problem solving, managing conflict,
networking, mentoring and rewarding.

Table 16

Means and Standard Deviations of Specific Behaviours Grouped by Coaching Experience

Behaviour	Coaching Level					
	Novice		Intermediate		Expert	
	(n=100)		(n=200)		(n=100)	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Informing	3.39	0.90	3.43	0.89	3.37	0.83
Planning	3.68	0.96	3.86	0.90	4.05	0.76
Clarifying	3.37 _{a,b}	1.11	3.92 _a	0.87	4.23 _b	0.71
Consulting	3.32	1.04	3.54	1.01	3.79	0.83
Motivating	3.69 _b	0.92	3.97	0.81	4.26 _b	0.62
Recognising	3.85	0.74	3.77	0.84	3.82	0.84
Monitoring	3.27 _{a,b}	0.97	3.67 _a	0.78	3.99 _b	0.73
Problem Solving	3.20 _{a,b}	1.12	3.64 _a	0.86	3.81 _b	0.81
Supporting	3.67	1.27	3.69	0.91	3.79	0.77
Managing Conflict	3.01 _{a,b}	1.06	3.65 _a	1.00	4.02 _b	0.71
Networking	3.23 _{a,b}	0.87	3.80 _a	0.81	4.01 _b	0.73
Delegating	3.51	0.71	3.66	0.82	3.83	0.79
Mentoring	3.03 _b	0.88	3.36	0.97	3.64 _b	0.96
Rewarding	3.33 _b	0.91	3.63	0.91	3.90 _b	0.80

Note: Means in a row sharing subscripts are given to indicate significant differences among novice, intermediate and expert coaches. For all measures, higher means indicate higher perception scores.

Table 17

F Ratios for Specific Behaviours According to Coaching Experience

Behaviour	Type III		Mean Square	F	P
	Sum of Squares	df			
Informing	0.28	2,397	0.14	0.18	0.834
Planning	6.85	2,397	3.42	4.38	0.013
Clarifying	38.17	2,397	19.09	23.49	<0.001
Consulting	10.91	2,397	5.45	5.73	0.004
Motivating	16.63	2,397	8.31	13.10	<0.001
Recognizing	0.47	2,397	0.23	0.35	0.704
Monitoring	26.56	2,397	13.28	19.74	<0.001
Problem Solving	20.63	2,397	10.32	12.23	<0.001
Supporting	0.83	2,397	0.42	0.43	0.651
Managing Conflict	52.87	2,397	26.44	29.05	<0.001
Networking	33.92	2,397	16.96	26.01	<0.001
Delegating	5.01	2,397	2.51	4.03	0.019
Mentoring	18.86	2,397	9.43	10.49	<0.001
Rewarding	15.88	2,397	7.94	10.21	<0.001

Multivariate F (28, 768) = 4.87, < 0.001

Results of the Secondary Study

The results of the secondary study are presented in the following order: level of competition; players’ gender and players’ age.

Level of Competition.

The first question for the secondary study is; “ Does the level of competition affect players’ perceptions of their coaches’ leadership behaviours?”.

To examine the differences in players’ perceptions of their coaches’ leadership behaviour as related to their levels of competition, responses from all 400 players playing in four levels of competition were used.

The means and standard deviations for the specific behaviours grouped by playing levels are represented in Table 18. There was a significant multivariate difference in players’ perceptions of their coaches’ behaviours, $F(42, 1137.93) = 7.9, < 0.001$. This clearly indicates that the level of competition affects players’ perceptions of their coaches. As shown in Table 19, univariate ANOVAs test revealed that 13 specific behaviours were statistically significant. These were: informing, planning, clarifying, consulting, motivating, recognising, monitoring, problem solving, managing conflict, networking, delegating, mentoring and rewarding. The only behaviour that was not significant was *supporting*.

The results of Bonferroni Adjusted T Test also indicate that there was a statistically significant difference in players’ perceptions of their coaches’ behaviours according to the level of competition. An examination of the results in Table 18 reveals the differences for the 14 specific behaviours between different club levels. The following differences were found:

1. Between NSL level and PL level in the following specific behaviours:
Informing, planning, consulting, recognising, problem solving and rewarding.
2. Between NSL level and Division One level in the following specific behaviours: clarifying, monitoring, managing conflict and networking.
3. Between NSL level and Junior level in the behaviour, recognising.
4. Between PL level and Division One level in the following specific behaviours: planning, clarifying, consulting, motivating, monitoring, problem solving, managing conflict, networking, mentoring and rewarding.
5. Between PL level and Junior Level in the following specific behaviours: clarifying, motivating, monitoring, managing conflict, delegating, mentoring and rewarding.
6. Between Division One level and Junior level in the following specific behaviours: clarifying, motivating, managing conflict and networking.

Table 18

Means and Standard Deviations of Specific Behaviours Grouped by Playing Level

	NSL		PL		Over 16 Division One		Under 16 Junior	
	(n=100)		(n=100)		(n=100)		(n=100)	
Behaviour	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Informing	3.12 _a	0.99	3.62 _a	0.75	3.35	0.95	3.54	0.72
Planning	3.64 _a	1.02	4.27 _{a,d}	0.55	3.63 _d	1.02	3.92	0.74
Clarifying	3.98 _b	0.86	4.33 _{d,e}	0.69	3.31 _{b,d,f}	1.18	3.83 _{e,f}	0.69
Consulting	3.33 _a	1.10	3.95 _{a,d}	0.71	3.39 _d	1.04	3.53	0.94
Motivating	3.97	0.85	4.37 _{d,e}	0.55	3.70 _d	0.99	3.86 _e	0.68
Recognising	3.47 _{a,c}	0.88	3.94 _a	0.81	3.77	0.77	4.01 _c	0.70
Monitoring	3.70 _b	0.75	4.10 _{d,e}	0.66	3.26 _{b,d}	1.02	3.53 _e	0.74
Problem Solving	3.41 _a	0.88	4.03 _{a,d}	0.61	3.07 _{d,f}	1.10	3.79 _f	0.82
Supporting	3.61	0.98	3.84	0.82	3.55	1.32	3.84	0.66
Managing	3.73 _b	0.97	4.04 _{d,e}	0.77	3.01 _{b,d,f}	1.07	3.53 _{e,f}	0.97
Conflict								
Networking	3.93 _b	0.79	4.08 _d	0.70	3.16 _{b,d,f}	0.90	3.68 _f	0.74
Delegating	3.64	0.90	4.03 _e	0.68	3.65	0.74	3.35 _e	0.70
Mentoring	3.38	1.08	3.76 _{d,e}	0.88	3.09 _d	0.98	3.15 _e	0.77
Rewarding	3.56 _a	0.97	4.08 _{a,d,e}	0.71	3.40 _d	0.96	3.44 _e	0.78

Note: Means in a row sharing subscripts are given to indicate significant differences among novice, intermediate and expert coaches. For all measures, higher means indicate higher perception scores.

Table 19

F Ratios for Specific Behaviours According to Club Level

Behaviour	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	P
Informing	14.72	3,396	4.90	6.64	<0.001
Planning	27.25	3,396	9.08	12.41	<0.001
Clarifying	54.45	3,396	18.15	23.46	<0.001
Consulting	23.31	3,396	7.77	8.42	<0.001
Motivating	24.05	3,396	8.02	12.99	<0.001
Recognising	17.11	3,396	5.70	9.11	<0.001
Monitoring	37.11	3,396	12.37	19.09	<0.001
Problem Solving	53.89	3,396	17.96	23.58	<0.001
Supporting	6.92	3,396	2.3	2.41	0.066
Managing Conflict	56.18	3,396	18.73	20.72	<0.001
Networking	48.79	3,396	16.26	26.40	<0.001
Delegating	22.90	3,396	7.63	13.18	<0.001
Mentoring	27.25	3,396	9.08	10.32	<0.001
Rewarding	29.90	3,396	9.97	13.38	<0.001

Multivariate F (42,1137.93) = 7.9, < 0.001

It could be argued that differences in coaches’ years of experience underlie some of the differences in perceptions of coaching behaviour associated with club level. Therefore the researcher decided to run a cross tabulation to see if coaches’ years of experience was associated with the level of competition. The results are presented in Table 20.

Table 20

Prevalence of three coaching levels for NSL, PL, Senior (Division 1) and Junior (Under 16) Clubs

Club Level	Coaches experience			Total
	Novice	Intermediate	Expert	
NSL		70	30	100
PL		40	60	100
Senior (Division 1)	80	20		100
Junior (Under 16)	20	70	10	100
Total	100	200	100	400

$$X^2 \text{ (df = 6, N = 400) = 263.25, } p < 0.001; \text{ contingency coefficient = .67}$$

The results of the cross tabulation show the following:

1. National Soccer League and Premier League versus Senior and Junior reflects differences between experts versus novice.
2. National Soccer League versus Premier League reflects differences between experts versus intermediate.
3. Senior versus Junior reflects novice versus intermediate.

These results suggest that the levels of competition results are likely to be a consequence of coaching experience. This makes sense considering that at the professional level and semi professional level the coaches are highly experienced, while at the lower divisions and junior level the coaches are less experienced and coach on voluntary basis.

Gender of Players.

The second question for the secondary study is; “ Are there gender-related differences in players perceptions of their coaches’ leadership behaviours?”.

To examine whether players’ perceptions of their coaches’ behaviours differ according to gender, scores on the 14 specific behaviours for 100 female players were compared with those for 100 male players.

The means and standard deviations of specific behaviours grouped by gender are presented in Table 21. There was a significant multivariate difference between male and female players, $F(14, 185) = 7.5, P < 0.001$. This clearly indicates that gender affects perceptions of coaches. As shown in Table 22, univariate ANOVAs test indicates that players’ perceptions differ significantly on six specific behaviours. These were: clarifying, motivating, monitoring, problem solving, managing conflict and networking.

Table 21

Means and Standard Deviations of Specific Behaviours Grouped by Gender

Behaviour	Males (n=100)		Females (n=100)	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Informing	3.47	0.85	3.35	0.95
Planning	3.97	0.79	3.63	1.02
* Clarifying	4.09	0.78	3.31	1.18
Consulting	3.66	0.97	3.39	1.04
Motivating	4.10	0.69	3.70	0.99
Recognising	3.86	0.83	3.77	0.77
* Monitoring	3.82	0.77	3.26	1.02
* Problem Solving	3.85	0.75	3.01	1.10
Supporting	3.86	0.82	3.55	1.32
* Managing Conflict	3.85	0.91	3.01	1.07
* Networking	3.92	0.78	3.16	0.90
Delegating	3.59	0.80	3.65	0.74
* Mentoring	3.46	0.95	3.09	0.98
Rewarding	3.71	0.88	3.40	0.96

* p<0.001 level

Table 22

F Ratios for Specific Behaviours According to Gender

Behaviour	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	P
Informing	0.72	1,198	0.72	0.88	0.349
Planning	5.78	1,198	5.78	7.02	0.009
Clarifying	30.68	1,198	30.68	30.80	<0.001
Consulting	3.64	1,198	3.64	3.58	0.060
Motivating	7.74	1,198	7.74	10.65	0.001
Recognising	0.68	1,198	0.68	0.59	0.443
Monitoring	15.31	1,198	15.31	18.85	<0.001
Problem Solving	30.94	1,198	30.94	34.62	<0.001
Supporting	4.60	1,198	4.60	3.81	0.052
Managing Conflict	35.28	1,198	35.28	35.63	<0.001
Networking	28.88	1,198	28.88	40.61	<0.001
Delegating	0.18	1,198	0.18	0.30	0.582
Mentoring	6.97	1,198	6.97	7.47	0.007
Rewarding	5.01	1,198	5.01	5.93	0.016

Multivariate F (14, 185) = 7.5, P < 0 .001.

It could be argued that differences in coaches’ years of experience underlie some of the differences in perceptions of coaching behaviour associated with gender. Therefore the researcher decided to run a cross tabulation to see if coaches’ years of experience affected perceptions of players of different gender. The results for players’ gender and coaches’ experience are represented in Table 23.

Table 23

Prevalence of Three Coaching Levels for Female Players and Male Players

Players Gender	Coaches experience			Total
	Novice	Intermediate	Expert	
Female	80	20		100
Male	7	62	31	100
TOTAL	87	82	31	200

X^2 (df = 2, N = 200) = 113.76, $p < 0.001$; contingency coefficient = .60

The results of the cross tabulation indicate that the significant differences between male and female players perceptions could be a consequence of coaching experience. This makes sense considering that in the male domain there are more experienced coaches than in the female domain.

Players' Age.

The third question for the secondary study is; “Are there age-related differences in players’ perceptions of their coaches’ leadership behaviours?”

To examine whether players’ perceptions of their coaches’ behaviours differed according to the player’s age, the scores on the 14 specific behaviours for 100 players under 16 years (junior players) were compared with 100 players 16 years and over (senior players).

Means and standard deviations of specific behaviours grouped by player’s age are presented in Table 24. There was a significant multivariate difference between junior and senior players, $F(14, 185) = 5.239, p < 0.001$. This clearly indicates that the age of the players affects their perceptions of coaches. However, as shown in Table 25, the univariate ANOVAs test indicates that only delegating is significant at the 0.001 level. The large mean for the senior players indicates that senior players perceived their coaches as delegating tasks to them more than the coaches of the junior players.

Table 24

Means and Standard Deviations of Specific behaviours Grouped by Age

Behaviour	Under 16		16 and Over	
	(n=100)		(n=100)	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Informing	3.54	0.72	3.35	0.89
Planning	3.92	0.74	3.90	0.91
Clarifying	3.83	0.69	3.92	0.96
Consulting	3.53	0.94	3.56	0.99
Motivating	3.86	0.68	3.99	0.91
Recognising	4.01	0.70	3.69	0.90
Monitoring	3.53	0.74	3.70	0.90
Problem Solving	3.79	0.83	3.57	1.00
Supporting	3.84	0.66	3.68	0.90
Managing Conflict	3.53	0.97	3.58	1.07
Networking	3.68	0.73	3.78	0.93
* Delegating	3.35	0.70	3.88	0.77
Mentoring	3.15	0.77	3.43	1.08
Rewarding	3.44	0.78	3.73	0.94

* p<0.001 level

Table 25

F Ratios for Questionnaire Responses According to Age

	Type III				
	Sum of		Mean		
Behaviour	Squares	df	Square	F	P
Informing	1.87	1,198	1.87	2.85	0.093
Planning	2.00 ⁻⁰²	1,198	2.00 ⁻⁰²	0.03	0.865
Clarifying	0.37	1,198	0.37	0.53	0.467
Consulting	4.50 ⁻⁰²	1,198	4.50 ⁻⁰²	0.05	0.827
Motivating	0.89	1,198	0.89	1.38	0.242
Recognising	5.12	1,198	5.12	7.91	0.005
Monitoring	1.39	1,198	1.39	2.04	0.154
Problem Solving	2.49	1,198	2.49	2.95	0.087
Supporting	1.23	1,198	1.23	1.95	0.164
Managing Conflict	0.14	1,198	0.14	0.14	0.713
Networking	0.57	1,198	0.57	0.81	0.370
Delegating	14.04	1,198	14.04	26.01	<0. 001*
Mentoring	3.74	1,198	3.74	4.22	0.041
Rewarding	4.11	1,198	4.11	5.51	0.020
Multivariate F (14, 185) = 5.239 < 0.001					

It could be argued that differences in coaches’ years of experience underlie some of the differences in perceptions of coaching behaviour associated with age. The researcher therefore decided to run a cross tabulation to see if coaches’ years of experience affected the perceptions of players’ of different age. The results for players’ age and coaches’ experience are presented in Table 26.

Table 26

Prevalence of three coaching levels for Junior (Under 16) and Seniors (16 and Over)

Player Groups

Players age group	Coaches experience			Total
	Novice	Intermediate	Expert	
Senior (16 and Over)	25	44	31	100
Junior (Under 16)	20	70	10	100
TOTAL	45	114	41	200

X^2 (df = 2, N = 200) =17.24 $p < 0.001$; contingency coefficient = .28

The results of the cross tabulation shows that the effect of age on perceptions of delegating could be genuine. It is not advisable to use statistical procedures on these data for examining the unconfounding effects of players’ age on perceptions of coaches’ leadership behaviour. This is because of the unequal numbers of subjects in some of the cells in the age group by coaching experience cross tabulation. However, the results are not confounded and are unlikely to be, due to coaching experience effect. Comparing the results between coaches’ years of experience and players’ age supports the assumption that the results are unlikely to be confounded. The results for coaches’ years of experience (Table 17) reveal that eight specific behaviours are

statistically significant. These are clarifying, motivating, monitoring, problem solving, managing conflict, networking, mentoring and rewarding. The results for players' age (Table 25) reveal that only one behaviour (delegating) is statistically significant.

Discussion

A new leadership instrument was modified and adapted for the sports setting; the instrument was the subject of comprehensive validity and reliability tests. The pilot study for the new instrument CPS proved to be very useful and helpful in making this instrument a practical addition for assessing leadership behaviour within this study and further studies in the sporting domain. In order to improve the instrument and make it relevant to the sporting context; future studies need to be conducted to enhance the relevance of the current items of the CPS. It is necessary for additional studies and pilot studies to be carried out so that new relevant items can be included in the CPS. The results of these studies could be improved by running factor analysis for all the items and categories of the CPS. This could be achieved by utilising mixed methodologies of quantitative and qualitative approaches which will result in running a factor analysis for all the items of the CPS.

This discussion examines the results obtained from the primary and secondary investigations and includes an overview and comparison with previous research in sport leadership. Even though there has been a dearth of studies involving research utilising the same 14 specific behaviours investigated in this study, it is possible to identify commonalities and draw comparisons with some of this research. The

discussion is presented in the following order: primary study results (coaches' and players' perceptions; coaches' years of experience) and secondary study results (level of competition; players' gender and players' age).

Discussion of Primary Study Results

The purpose of the primary study was to investigate coaches' and players' perceptions of the soccer coach leadership specific behaviours in relation to the following variables:

1. Players' and coaches' perceptions, and
2. Coaches' years of experience.

Players' and Coaches' perceptions.

Research in sport leadership has suggested that players' and coaches' perceptions are important for the coaching process. Shaver (1975) has suggested that an individual's perception of another's behaviour is more important than the behaviour itself in determining one's feelings or actions toward the other person. According to Smith and Smoll (1989), athletes' perception and recall mediate coaching effectiveness. This highlights the importance of studying coaches' and players' perceptions.

The results of the primary study indicated that there was a significant multivariate difference between players' and coaches' perceptions of coach behaviours. These results indicated that coaches perceived themselves higher than the players did in all

of the 14 specific behaviours. An examination of the results in Table 15 revealed that ten of the 14 specific behaviours were statistically significant. These results indicated that players' and coaches' perceptions varied considerably from these ten specific behaviours. These categories were: planning, clarifying, motivating, recognising, monitoring, problem solving, supporting, managing conflict, mentoring and rewarding.

A comparison of the findings of the present study with other studies investigating the coach leadership specific behaviours, reveals similar findings. However, these studies looked at different types of behaviours and examined them in different ways. For example, using a multidimensional model of leadership, Horne and Carron (1985) found that Canadian coaches in their study rated themselves higher on training and instruction, democratic behaviour, social support, and positive feedback than did their athletes. However, coaches' perceptions of their autocratic behaviour matched the perceptions of the players. Salminen, Liukkonen, and Telama (1990) reported similar results with Finnish coaches who perceived themselves to be more instructive, socially supportive, rewarding, and less autocratic, than did their athletes. The results of the research reported in this thesis coincide with other studies, such as Horne and Carron (1985), Salminen, Liukkonen, and Telama (1990), in that coaches perceived themselves higher than the players perceived them.

Coaches' years of experience.

The results for question two of the primary study indicated that there was a significant multivariate difference in players' perceptions relating coaches'

experience. This clearly indicates that the coaches' level of experience affects players' perceptions. The results gained from question two indicate that players coached by expert coaches had higher perceptions of their coaches' behaviours than players coached by less experienced coaches. The results in Table 17 reveal that eight specific behaviours are statistically significant. The differences were clarifying, motivating, monitoring, problem solving, managing conflict, networking, mentoring and rewarding. The results of the Bonferroni Adjusted T Test indicated that there was a statistically significant difference in players' perceptions of their coaches' behaviours and their coaches' years of experience.

The results gained from question two were different from a study conducted by Gary and Curtis (1991) who compared the self-reported behaviours of soccer coaches (n =111) on 30 coaching behaviours relating to risk management at three levels of coaching (NCAA Division I, NAIA, and high school levels). Their results indicated that no significant differences in selected coaching behaviours existed among the three levels of coaching.

Discussion of Secondary Study Results

The purpose of the secondary study was to investigate players' perceptions of the soccer coaches' leadership behaviours. It was designed to examine the coaches' leadership behaviours in relation to the following variables:

1. Level of competition,
2. Players' gender, and
3. Players' age.

Levels of competition.

When investigating the effect of the level of competition the results indicated that there was a significant multivariate difference in players' perceptions of their coaches' behaviours. This clearly indicates that the level of competition affects players' perceptions of their coaches. The results in Table 19 revealed that 13 specific behaviours were statistically significant. The only behaviour which was not significant was *supporting*. Results gained here have shown that the level of competition affects players' perceptions of their coaches' leadership behaviours. Vangucci, Potrac and Jones (1997) used a different approach in their research by observing elite women's soccer coaches. They used an observation technique to collect data and observed five coaches from three descending divisions at the highest level of women's soccer. The results obtained in their research indicated that the coaches at the apex of women's soccer in England were engaged in different coaching behaviours from those employed at lower levels. This corresponds to the current study in terms of the significant differences between coaches coaching at different levels, however, this finding needs to be read with caution as Vangucci et al. (1997) used observed behaviours while the current study investigated the perceptions of behaviour.

In a further study investigating elite coaches' behaviours, Bennett and Maneval (1998) used the (LSS) with 52 Dixie Youth baseball coaches. They found that the coaches of the youth elite baseball players scored high in positive feedback, training and instruction, and social support, moderate in democratic behaviour, and low in

autocratic behaviour. Although there are different behaviours investigated in Bennett and Maneval (1998) and this research, similar findings have been made in regards to high level coaches use of positive feedback which in this study was indicated in the behaviours of recognising and rewarding.

Gender.

The results showed a significant multivariate difference between male and female players' perceptions of their coaches' behaviours, indicating that gender affects players' perceptions of their coaches. An examination of the results in Table 22 indicates that these differences are reported in six specific behaviours: *clarifying, motivating, monitoring, problem solving, managing conflict and networking*. Table 21 indicates that male players perceived their coaches on the aforementioned specific behaviours more highly than their female counterparts. To understand the meaning of the higher and lower scores it is essential to know that the CPS five Likert response choices are as follows: Nearly always; Often; Sometimes; Seldom; Never. These choices are ranked from higher to lower in order from 5 to 1. Based on this ranking, it is important to remember that the higher scores means for males here meant the coaches applied these six behaviours more than the coaches of females. For example the significant differences for the claying dimension meant that male coaches were perceived to explain responsibilities and task expectation more often than did female coaches.

While limited research on gender differences and coach leadership specific behaviours has been published which is comparable with the parameters of this

research. However, previous studies have reported similar results in findings significant differences for the gender as variable. The findings of the previous studies correspond to the current study in terms of the significant differences and that the coaches and players differ in their perceptions about coaches leadership behaviours. These studies were conducted by the following researchers: (Chelladurai and Saleh, 1980; Dubois, 1990; Everhart and Chelladurai, 1998; Freeman and Lanning, 1989; Jambor and Zhang, 1997; Millard, 1991, 1996; Salminen, Liukkonen, and Telama, 1990).

In this research ANOVAs (See Table 21) indicated the key differences between players' perceptions by gender was that female players gave lower scores on all the 14 behaviours.

Age.

There were some significant multivariate difference between junior and senior players' perception of their coaches' behaviours. This demonstrates that the players' age affects perceptions of coaches. An examination of all the results in Table 25 indicates that *delegating* was significant, that is, the senior players perceived their coaches delegated tasks to them more than junior players did. This includes giving players the responsibility for the warm ups, making important decisions and implementing them, together with designing and using different strategies during the game. These differences would be expected in sporting environment, as the coaches of the junior players would be more autocratic in their approach, while coaches of

senior players would respect the experience of their players and be more prepared to delegate responsibilities.

Although there is limited comparable research results which has examined the specific behaviours in this study. However, the results of this study were similar to Hersey and Blanchard's (1977) situational theory in terms the differences in the leader behaviour according to the age and maturity of the group. Other researchers found differences in some behaviours when investigating the age of players as a variable; these differences means that coaches differ in their leadership behaviours when dealing with different age groups, (Case, 1987; Chelladurai and Carron; 1978, 1983;; Jambor and Zhang, 1997; Smith, Smoll, Hunt, Curtis, and Coppel; 1979; Serpa, 1990; Vos Strache, 1978).

Summary

The results of the study 1 (Primary and Secondary) indicated that there was a significant multivariate difference in all the variables under investigation. These include players' and coaches' perceptions, coaches' years of experience, level of competition, players' gender and players' age. These outcomes are important when consideration is being given to the training and preparation of young coaches. They need to be made aware of how their players may perceive them according to their experience and the player's gender and age. By creating an awareness of this in young coaches it is possible to train them to avoid many of the pitfalls that may occur through inexperience.

In the next Chapter the qualitative research investigation will be addressed. This includes the methods and procedures, the pilot study, data analysis, ethical considerations, findings and discussion.

CHAPTER FIVE

Study Two

Introduction

This study comprised two parts:

1. A pilot study which helped the researcher to get familiar with all the aspects of the in depth interviewing.
2. The qualitative study investigated the expert soccer coaches' knowledge in the 14 specific leadership behaviour. (See figure 1). The constructive theory approach was used to capture the many dimensions of the research (Crotty, 1998). Constant comparative analysis which stems from the grounded theory has lead to help in understanding the links between concepts and in turn to lead to the final conceptual models.

Study 2 Research Questions - Repeated

The following central questions initiated and directed the research:

1. What kinds of experiences have the coach had in each of the 14 specific behaviours?

2. What are the interactions between each behaviour and the other 13 behaviours?
3. What significant other factors prevent coaches from achieving their potential?
4. What conceptual model can be developed to understand and organise the behaviours, interactions, and significant other factors for each of the 14 specific behaviours?
5. What overall conceptual model can be developed to investigate the complex interaction between all of the 14 specific behaviours based on a real life coaching perspective?

Procedures

In the second study a qualitative approach was used. This involved in-depth interviews with expert soccer coaches in Western Australia (WA). The following steps were taken:

1. Soccer Administration of Western Australia (SAWA) was contacted to nominate coaches who met the objectives of the study and the criteria with regard to coaching expertise. One of the methodological problems in studying expertise was to find the relevant criteria to define expertise. In order to solve this problem the following criteria were established to select expert soccer coaches:
 - They had a minimum of eight years of coaching experience,
 - The coaches had themselves played at local and/or national and/or international level,
 - They were recognised by SAWA as elite coaches.

- They performed at an outstanding level of coaching that involved achievements at state, national or international level. These achievements could include win/loss records, premierships, and national titles. These criteria were developed after a survey and in-depth interviews with the assistance of the director of coaching at SAWA as well as with the director of Coaching Foundation of Western Australia (CFWA), himself a former elite British player and coach.
2. Contact was made with the expert coaches during which the objectives of the study were explained and the coaches were then invited to participate.
 3. In-depth interviews were conducted with the selected expert soccer coaches. The interviews were held in a quiet venue convenient to the subjects. The majority of the interviews were held at Edith Cowan University (Joondalup Campus), while other interviews were held at coaches' offices with a few interviews being conducted at coaches' homes.
 4. Data were analysed using the N6 computer program.

N6 is a software program specifically designed for qualitative analysis (QSR, 2002) and assisted the researcher in the analysis of the coaches' interviews. N6 provided an extremely powerful tool with the up-to-date information and online support to help. It is the latest version of the NUD*IST software for qualitative data analysis. N6 features a visual interface and controls that keep the researcher close to the data, allowing immediate accessing and exploring and swift data import, coding, searching

and management. The advanced electronic organisation of the data assisted in the understanding of the results by keeping a systematic classification of each meaning unit and its source. For instance, all the meaning units belonging to one behaviour were assembled in one place so that the researcher could read in a continuous fashion about every coach's experience. Moreover, the process of handling the data electronically compared to handling it manually reduced the chance of errors in the analysis and decreased the chance of losing the source of relevant pieces of information (Cote et al., 1993).

The Pilot Study

A pilot study was undertaken to ensure that the interview approach and other procedures were appropriate for the proposed research as recommended by Glesne and Peshkin (1992).

The pilot study was undertaken with two soccer experts. These experts were the director of coaching in Soccer Association of Western Australia (SAWA), and the director of Coaching Foundation of Western Australia (CFWA). These people were chosen for the following reasons:

1. They have considerable international and national experience as soccer players and coaches.
2. They are responsible for conducting workshops and seminars designed to assist with the development of soccer coaches in WA.
3. They are involved in coach education and training programmes.
4. They are fully involved in the coaching accreditation scheme.

To explore the depth of information regarding coaching behaviours and to test critical aspects of the interviewing procedure such as language, length and quality of the questions, each participant agreed to be interviewed on four separate occasions.

The first interview lasted for approximately 40 minutes and focused on demographic data, the experts' soccer experience and the career profile of each director. This interview proved to be of great value in achieving the aims of the pilot study. In the first interview an explanation of the purpose of the pilot study was given to the subjects. They were informed that the researcher could be asking them for feedback on the suitability and ease of understanding of the questions. Glesn and Peshkin (1992) suggested the following were useful questions that should be asked of the pilot study informants: " I would like to interview you with these questions and then talk to you afterwards about them: How clear are they? Are they appropriate? What else should I be asking?" (p.31). This was the format that was subsequently followed by the researcher.

The subsequent interviews, which ranged from 60 to 90 minutes, built on the process of refining the interview guide and developing the researcher's familiarity with the qualitative process.

Study Two

Participants

Twenty soccer coaches from Western Australia were nominated, after being identified by the Soccer Administration of Western Australia as being the most

knowledgeable and experienced coaches in WA. They were selected to get insight into expert soccer coaches in Western Australia and to investigate the coaches' patterns of specific behaviours.

The coaches were ranked from 1 to 20 as the best and most experienced coaches in WA at the time of data collection. The researcher ranked the coaches with the assistance of the director of coaching in SAWA. The coaches were contacted and the purpose and procedures of the study were explained. The researcher interviewed 11 of them. The following were the reasons why 9 of the 20 coaches were unavailable for interviews:

- 1 Three coaches refused because they were very busy working full time and coaching part time.
- 2 Three coaches did not reply to the letter sent and could not be contacted by phone.
- 3 Two coaches apologised, as they have been inactive coaches for the last two years.
- 4 One coach had moved interstate.

Of the 11 coaches interviewed two were high profile and experienced coaches for whom English was their second language and the remaining 9 coaches were native English speaking coaches. It is important to note that when the researcher transcribed the two of the coaches for whom English was their second language the transcripts were edited to give better clarity of expression. Table 27 reveals the expert coaches years of experience and their level of coaching.

Table 27 Identification of Coaches’ Years of Experience and their Highest Level of Coaching.

No	Coach	Highest Coaching Level	Years of Experience
1	A	International	29
2	B	State	15
3	C	International	12
4	D	National	13
5	E	State	9
6	F	International	16
7	G	International	10
8	H	State	9
9	I	State	10
10	J	State	11
11	K	International	45

Instrumentation

In Study 2, the researcher conducted the in-depth interviews. Open-ended questions were asked to elicit how expert coaches use different patterns of behaviours during their work. The interviews were audiotaped with permission of the interviewees. Two tape recorders were used, a major one with mains power and another one with batteries as a backup. This provided the most accurate data possible for analysis. According to Patton (1990), the initial data from an interview will consist of quotations from participants about their experiences, opinions, and prior knowledge. It is therefore important to use audio recorders as an intermediary step to

transcription, because the verbatim responses of the participants are essential. This method provided the most accurate data possible for analysis.

Gaujers (1996) recommends that the researchers recognise the importance of displaying sensitivity, integrity and methodological skills with the collecting and analysing data. In this case, the researcher established his reliability through his previous research studies and teaching and coaching experience. The researchers background is highlighted in the following points:

1. The researcher is familiar with research methods through previous research studies that include a master degree with two years course work in addition to writing a research thesis on coaching.
2. The researcher is an experienced soccer coach and has been teaching and coaching soccer at the elite college level for 14 years.
3. The researcher is an experienced physical education teacher and has been teaching physical and health education for 14 years at college and senior high school levels.
4. Currently the researcher is the head coach of an elite specialist soccer program in one of the Senior High Schools of WA and holds state level (Senior Licence) accreditation from Soccer Australia.

The open-ended questions were used to guide and organise data collection in a systematic way especially during the in-depth interviews.

Data Collection

The researcher collected the data by using in-depth interviews and asking open-ended questions. The same format was used for each interview. The interview format followed the guidelines for ethnographic interviews proposed by Spradley (1979):

- (a) Each interview began with general information about the objectives of the study.
- (b) The interviewer focused on background and demographic information.
- (c) The interviewer then used Spradley's (1979) three kinds of open-ended questions for in-depth interviewing.

These questions were used to guarantee that the information elicited by the researcher based on the coaches' knowledge would be understood in profundity. Spradley's (1979) questions were divided into three categories, the first being "descriptive questions", which were designed to help the researcher to learn about the expert coaches' activities. The second were the "structural questions". These allowed the researcher to investigate how the coach organised his knowledge, and the third were "contrast questions", which helped the researcher to define terms used by the coaches accurately (p. 60). Minichiello, Aroni, Timewell and Alexander, (1995) suggest that descriptive questions are more appropriate at the start of an interview. This allows the participants to discuss their experiences, giving them control over the delivery of information. According to Minichiello et al. (1995) structural questioning is aimed at finding out how informants organise their knowledge, while the contrast questioning enables the informants to make comparisons of situations or events within their world and to discuss the meanings of these situations (p. 88).

Some examples of descriptive questions are: “Could you please tell me about your planning?” or “Could you talk about problem solving?”. These descriptive questions were asked to identify themes and situations that the coach perceived as important. Once those specific situations had been drawn out, the researcher then asked structural questions to gain as much information as possible about each topic. For example, “You mentioned before that dealing with team and player problems is very important part of your job. What do you do when a player has a family problem? What do you do when a player is not performing on the pitch?” Finally, contrast questions were employed to clarify and distinguish between issues and situations. A typical contrast question was: “What are the differences between coaching fulltime and part-time?”. “What are the differences between coaching at international and national level and at a state level?” or “What are the differences between coaching soccer in Australia and overseas?”.

The interview format was designed to discover the issues most important to the coach and to focus on these issues in detail. By using Spradley’s three kinds of open-ended questions all through the interviews, the researcher ensured that all the concepts elicited by the coaches were expanded and detailed. Validation and credibility checks were ongoing and consisted of constantly questioning the coach’s interpretation; each coach’s interpretation was verified and communicated during the interview. None of the interviews was rushed, and the coaches always had time to clarify and reformulate their thinking. Before the end of each interview, the researcher checked that the coach had discussed all the major categories under investigation. Each interview lasted between 1-1/2 and 3-1/2 hours and was transcribed verbatim. Only two interviews lasted more than three hours, the coaches

were fully involved in the study and enjoyed talking about their experiences. The researcher asked the two coaches if they need a break but they refused and said that they prefer to keep going with out a break.

Data Analysis

Content analysis classifies the raw data into interpretable and meaningful themes and categories utilising either deductive or inductive procedures. The deductive approach involves using a predetermined set of themes and categories to organise the quotes, while the inductive approach allows the themes and categories to materialise from the quotes (Patton, 1990). This study investigated 14 specific behaviours for the expert soccer coaches. The data was therefore analysed in two stages, these were deductive and inductive. The two stages for the data analysis are explained as follows:

Deductive Analysis.

Due to the nature of the study the researcher used a deductive analysis in the first phase of data analysis. In this stage the researcher used a predetermined set of the 14 specific behavioursYukl (1989) to organise the experts' knowledge and to learn from the expert coaches the themes they have experienced for every behaviour. The deductive analysis was exhausted before the inductive analysis began.

Inductive Analysis.

The purpose of this analysis was to establish an organising structure of themes that become apparent from the unstructured data that represented the organisation and exploitation of the 14 specific behaviours as expressed by the expert coaches' knowledge.

In the second phase of data analysis an inductive analysis was used. Three main procedures played important roles in the data analysis of the coaches' interviews transcripts. First, the researcher became highly familiar with the participants and the transcriptions. This includes interviewing all the coaches, transcribing the interviews, reading the transcriptions several times, and writing individual profile for each coach. Second, there was the detailed examination of the interview transcripts. This procedure involved dividing the text into meaningful pieces of information called "meaning units" (Miles & Huberman, 1984; Richards, 2002). All 11 transcripts were analysed using N6 program on a line-by-line basis. Third, common features between meaning units were identified. This procedure, referred to as, "creating groups or sub-categories" involved comparing meaning units and grouping them into different sub-categories that were referred to as "properties" (Cote, Salmela, Baria, & Russell, 1993). Properties were named according to the common features its meaning units shared. For example, the following meaning unit was part of a property labelled "Identify the problem" which was a major sub-Behaviour for problem solving:

The problems, for me it's very important, what's happened on the pitch, on the park, but sometimes you have some private problems, maybe with the wife or with the kids or the player has financial problems or other problems and you have to talk about that straight and I have some rules, one rule is treating someone second class will never get a first class result.

Coach A

The following meaning unit was part of a different property labelled “Positional change ” which was a major sub-category for clarifying roles and objectives.

Very, very interesting, yeah, a very interesting one. Some coaches would not clarify; some coaches would not feel they have to justify team selection. Some coaches feel they don't have to justify positional change. I don't justify but I like to clarify why I am making it because I think if the players, because you are not dealing with one player, you are asking one player to play sweeper but it has a domino effect on the defence and even the goal keeper so as long as everyone is clear in their minds as to why we are making the decisions and are happy with it they will get on and do the job.

Coach G

As the data analysis continued, another level of understanding surfaced that consisted of comparing properties to organise them into larger categories and to see the relation and the order of occurrence for these emerging categories. For instance, all the properties that referred to how the coach monitors his team to solve their problems were assembled into a more inclusive sub-category called “Gather information”. This includes observing, testing, game statistics, video analysis and listening and talking to players.

This inductive building approach to qualitative analysis is usually referred to as the constant comparative method (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). This method involves the procedure of continuously comparing and contrasting the data until saturation is attained, that is, when no more encompassing categories emerged and no new ideas can be developed from the data. Therefore, each category of coach knowledge was

composed of several properties that were built from all the meaning units. The reliability of the decision process for creating the meaning units, properties, sub-categories was enhanced by addressing the following specific questions during the coding process:

1. Are all the meaning units regrouped into a property similar or different?
2. What are the similarities in the content of each property? Category?
3. Is there confusion or contradiction in the content of a category? (Cote & Salmela, 1994).

Creating Conceptual Framework of Categories

This study used a predetermined set of the 14 specific behaviours to organise the unstructured data. The researcher then used an inductive approach so that the themes and ideas could emerge from the coaches' own experience and knowledge. This was to develop and discover new ideas and themes for all the specific behaviours as well as interaction between the 14 specific behaviours.

The researcher focused on developing new conceptual models for all the 14 behaviours as the data emerged from the expert coaches. Figures 8 to 21 show the development of the 14 conceptual models, which were designed through the constant interchange between data collection and analysis.

It is conceptualisation rather than description that forms the basis of grounded theory in qualitative research. Conceptual models are based on the relationship between data gathering and analysis in order to determine grounded theory. Strategies are used in order to combine concepts and categories effectively to produce and integrate concepts (Strauss & Corbin, 1990, 1994). The next step of the project was to produce a comprehensive conceptual model of the interactions between the specific leadership behaviours of soccer coaches which would describe the relationships between different behaviours. Cote et al., (1995) used similar procedures in their development of their coaching model.

In this study, the conceptual models were established by the using the knowledge gained by expert coaches in life experience. The interaction between the 14 behaviours consisted of comparing and relating the different categories and sub categories of the coaches' knowledge. Interaction between the categories and sub categories was not much different than the "creation categories and sub categories" (Cote et al., 1993).

While the research questions have specifically set the nature and the path of the study. The grounded theory requires the researcher to extend the research process until all the major arising questions have been answered (Strauss & Corbin, 1990, 1994).

Credibility of the Data Interpretation

Suggestions by Lincoln and Guba (1985) and Patton (1990) were adopted in the present study to guarantee the integrity of the analysis. Credibility was established by having the researcher carry out all the interviews. The researcher is the data gathering “instrument”. Concerns of researcher capability were eased to a large degree by conducting the pilot study, which was very useful for the researcher, and throughout a long and current coaching and teaching experience. In the data analysis, the reliability of coding was enhanced by through the use of N6 computer software.

The participants’ responses were probed to ensure their responses were complete and understood. Participants were always invited to return to any issue or idea that they felt was important or needed further clarification. Furthermore, the following measures were taken to improve the reliability of the results. External reliability was addressed by identifying the researcher’s task and position, describing the types of people serving as subjects and detailing the data collection and analysis methods. While using an audio tape recorder to obtain word for word version of participants’ dialogues and to facilitate accurate transcription improved the central reliability.

Further credibility was contributed by the frequent checks of the collected data. The “theoretical saturation” was reached after no new themes emerged after analysing all the interviews (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). In addition, the thorough examination of the emerging themes and the interconnected process of data collection and data analysis added more to the data interpretation. Similar procedures were used by Cote et al., (1995) to establish the credibility of their data interpretation. They also applied the grounded theory approach and developed a coaching Model.

Ethical Consideration

The need to carefully consider ethical issues in qualitative research has been highlighted by Spradley (1979):

No matter how unobtrusive, ethnographic research always pries into the lives of the informants. Ethnographic interviewing represents a powerful tool for invading other people's ways of life. It reveals information that can be used to affirm their rights, interests and sensitivities or to *violate* them. All informants must have protection of saying things "off the record" which will never find their way into the (researcher's) field notes (p.36).

The importance of considering ethical issues in qualitative research has also been outlined by Minichiello et al.. (1985):

Confidentiality does not refer to simply protecting names and keeping confidences but sometimes to protecting other information about the informant. This is often done by altering details in description of people, places and/or events (p.207).

In order to address the ethical concerns for this study the following procedures were undertaken. Firstly, the research proposal was subjected to conditions established by Edith Cowan University's Ethics Committee. Secondly, the purposes of the study were explained to all the expert coaches who were also made aware of the importance of the research. Third, the coaches were required to complete a consent form (Appendix H). Fourthly, neither the coaches interviewed during this study, nor

their clubs, were identified by name. Fifthly, all interviews were confidential and conducted in a place where privacy was guaranteed. Furthermore, to protect other information about informants the details of the events and examples provided by coaches have been replaced by symbols. Finally, interviewees were assured that the data gathered would not be used for any purpose other than that outlined for the study, and feedback on the findings would be provided to all participants.

Audiotapes and written transcripts have been securely stored and are accessible only to the researcher and the supervisor. All records will be destroyed after five years. The quotes used in this thesis from the 11 expert coaches are taken verbatim from the transcripts and as a result some clearly indicate that the coach is using English as a second language.

Findings

In this section, the deductively derived 14 specific leadership behaviours are presented in separate models to show the findings of both the deductive and inductive analysis process. To simplify the presentation of the findings a model of each of the 14 specific behaviours has been developed (see figures 8 to 21). These models explain the themes and subcategories that emerged from the coaches' interviews. Within each category, the results are presented in the following order: First, the themes that emerged from the coaches experience for each behaviour category; second, the interaction between that behaviour category and others; Third, significant other factors preventing coaches from achieving their potential; Fourth, 14 diagrams are presented as a summary for the themes, interactions and the significant other factors preventing coaches from achieving to their potential for all the 14 behaviours (see figures 8 to 21). Coaches' quotes were presented as examples where possible.

Initially interaction is shown in each individual behaviour in a diagram that outlines the other themes with which it interacts. For example, in Figure 8, planning, there is interaction shown between the behaviours of planning, clarifying, motivating, rewarding, informing, consulting and monitoring.

The findings regarding all the 14 behaviours will now be discussed to show how they emerged as a result of beginning with Yukl's (1989,1994) taxonomy and applying it to the sport setting. The findings are presented for each behaviour first, then a

conceptual model of the interaction between all the specific behaviours. Third the coaches effective leadership model and finally, the challenges to coaches leadership are presented.

Planning and Organising

Emerging Themes for Planning and Organising.

The major category found in *planning and organising* is the club's needs, priorities and goals, which leads to two lower categories, of: short term and long term planning. Nine of the eleven coaches expressed concern that the clubs are more interested in winning, which forces them to focus on short term planning more than on long term planning. An example of this is:

I would never take another job on unless I had a three year contract. I had a three year contract with the ... but I had my hands tied, I wanted to introduce some certain systems into place with regards to a youth policy, etcetera. but I couldn't control that because the people that paid the bills weren't prepared to do that, they just wanted to purchase players for the sake of instant success which to me is still not right. ... I don't agree with that sort of planning. I would like to be able to set in place a system where you could develop younger players in your club and plan to bring those through into the senior club.

Coach D

Coach G, who begins by declaring the difficulty of long term planning, outlines a further illustration of the coaches having to plan short term here:

It has all been very difficult to plan long term, I know it goes against the grain because successful business people say you must have a plan and you must have goals and you must set out to achieve your goals.

He followed this immediately with the reality of short term planning:

And whilst I do have goals and aspirations, I think there is a difference between being a dreamer and being realistic and I have learnt in coaching as well as playing, that you can't plan too far ahead because you never know what is around the corner and it is an old cliché that many coaches use, that you take one game at a time and you plan for one game at a time.

Continuing on he provides an example:

For example, we won our game yesterday and we enjoyed our victory last night and probably a little bit this morning but we will now start planning for the weekend's game and we really focus on one game at a time.

In soccer short term planning is based on a one-year plan which includes the five phases of pre-season, early season, mid season, end of season and close off-season. The coach reassesses each phase and identifies the players' strengths and weaknesses. The coach then readjusts the plan therefore there is a need for flexibility in planning, one coach explained:

I think you have to be flexible, I believe you have to set yourself goals but just be aware that the goal posts can move and it can change so whilst we are hoping again to make the top six, which we should make the top six this season, we would like to host the finals and then take it from there.

Coach G

Interaction Between Planning and Organising and Other Specific Behaviours.

The coaches expressed concern that planning and organising is an active process which requires a lot of interactions between the following specific behaviours: consulting, monitoring, motivating, clarifying roles and objectives and rewarding. The coach consults with the club committee, the club's needs and goals for the season, he also consults with his assistants regarding planning for the season. Then the coach uses his methods of motivating his players within his planning as he sets up a planned training program, which includes competitive training methods to motivate the players. Clarifying roles and objectives were very important for the coaches in their planning as the coaches planned their system of play and made sure that every player knew his role and his team mates roles in a planned training sessions with a lot of repetition. During the planning informing was involved as this required talking to the players about the season plan and reviewing it throughout the season. Finally, rewarding was considered in the coaches' plans even early in the season.

Significant Other Factors Affecting Coaches Reaching Their Planning and Organising Potential.

Significant other factors perceived by coaches as preventing them from achieving their potential to implement their plans were:

1. Lack of job security affected long term planning.

2. Coaches need long term contracts to have long term planning.
3. Players' suspensions and injuries affects game planning.
4. Lack of support from club committee.
5. Losing games affects coaches long term plans.
6. Lack of training resources affects planning.
7. Being part time and not having a professional set up affects planning.

Figure 8 presents a summary for the themes, interactions and the significant other factors preventing coaches from achieving to their potential for planning and organising.

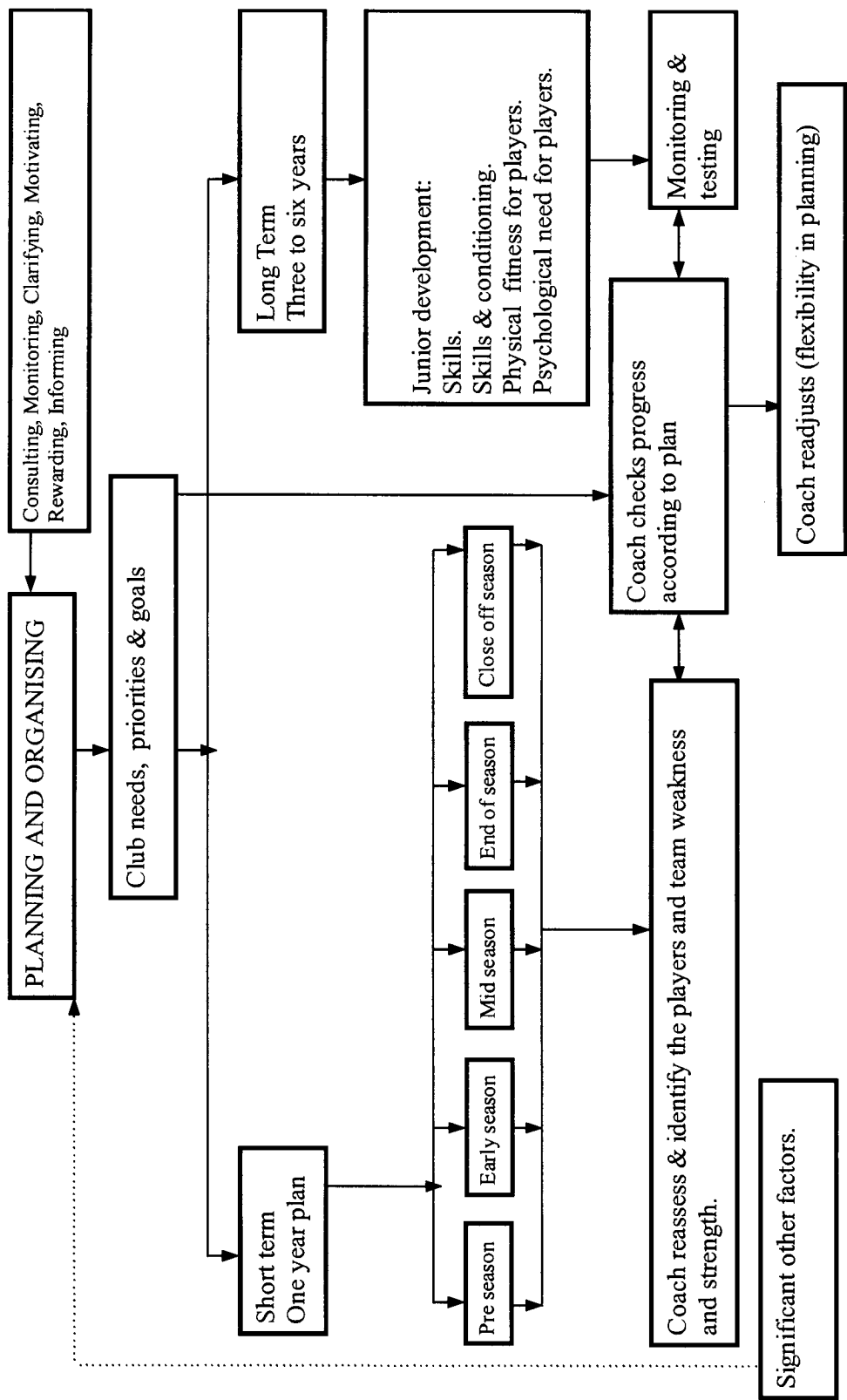


Figure 8. Planning and Organising Model.

Problem Solving

Problem solving was one of the most interesting categories for the coaches to talk about. This review will focus on the main issues in the qualitative study that are the themes as they emerged from the coaches, the interaction between the specific behaviours and the significant other factors that prevent coaches to achieve to their potential.

Emerging Themes for Problem Solving.

The coaches were found to follow a typical problem solving model which they apply when dealing with individual and team problems, with out formal training to do so. In the sport environment six different types of problems emerged: technical problems, tactical, player-club related, fitness, private problems and players attitude.

Problem solving in the context of sport requires the coaches to use a range of skills. For example after the coach identifies the problems he gathers information about it by observing, testing, reviewing game reports, game statistics, video analysis, listening and talking to players. Then the coach is able to analyse the problem and compare the results of an alternative solution. The coach might require extra training if it is technical or tactical problem. Following is an example of how the coach uses a

systematic approach in solving his players and team problems. The coach offers extra training with the help of the assistant coach to solve a particular player's technical problem, which in turn, affect team performance and become a whole team problem.

Coach C begins by identifying his players' technical problems:

Two of my excellent players were having some problems in the game. One was having a problem with his passing from the back to the front and the other, who is probably one of the quickest players in the local league, was having a problem with his crossing.

He followed identifying the problem by gathering information using his observation skills and by conducting a positional test with the help of the assistant coach:

So we just took them on a Friday afternoon, my assistant coach and myself. We would take them out onto the training ground and we would set up a grid, maybe five yards square, about 25 yards away, 25 metres away, 30, 40 and we would just pass the ball to him and ask him to have one touch control and then just chip the ball into the grid without bouncing.

Continuing on he mentioned how he analysed the results of the test to the players and how he explained it to them:

I think about the first 25 times K did it he probably got three passes in there so we were explaining to him that every 25 times he has got the ball he has given it away 22 times which is very important. You can't do that. You can maybe give it away three times and keep it 22.

The coach concludes by describing how he solved the problem by offering extra positional training to his players:

So K worked on it by doing extra training and the same with T they both worked on it and I am pleased to say K's passing has improved 95%. He is a lot better. He has a different range of passes, they are varied and T's crossing has also improved.

Coach C

This example not only shows how the coach, with the help of his assistant, solved the players' technical problems, it also indicates how the coach initially identified the problem by monitoring and observing the games and training. It also shows how the coach worked with his assistant and offered extra training to help come up with the solution.

Interaction Between Problem Solving and Other Behaviours.

The coaches explained mutual interaction between problem solving and 5 other specific behaviours. These behaviours were: managing conflict and team building, monitoring, motivating, supporting and consulting.

Significant Other Factors Affecting Problem Solving.

Significant other factors were perceived by coaches as preventing them from achieving their potential in solving players' individual and team problems, these were performance related:

1. Club committee not backing the coach against experienced players.
2. Being part time for both coaches and players does not allow enough time to solve problems especially technical and tactical problems.
3. Strong players' union rules prevent the coach from giving heavy fines against players.
4. Lack of support, in semi professional clubs, for the development of the coaching team, lead by a head coach and including an assistant coach, a sport trainer, a physiotherapist and other support staff.
5. Players are reluctant to change technique and tactics.

An example on how being part time affects coaches from achieving their problem solving potential:

First of all you have to identify the problems and then fix them. It's the same as anybody, you try to repair what other people are doing to you and make sure it doesn't happen again. So we can do that tactically or we can try and work on things. Again when you are working full time with professionals, they are playing because they are good enough to play at the highest level so it's a lot easier when you are working five days a week with people than it is just working with them for two evenings a week or three evenings a week.

Coach B

The analysis of this behaviour resulted in a hierarchal structure. Figure 9 provides a summary for problem solving.

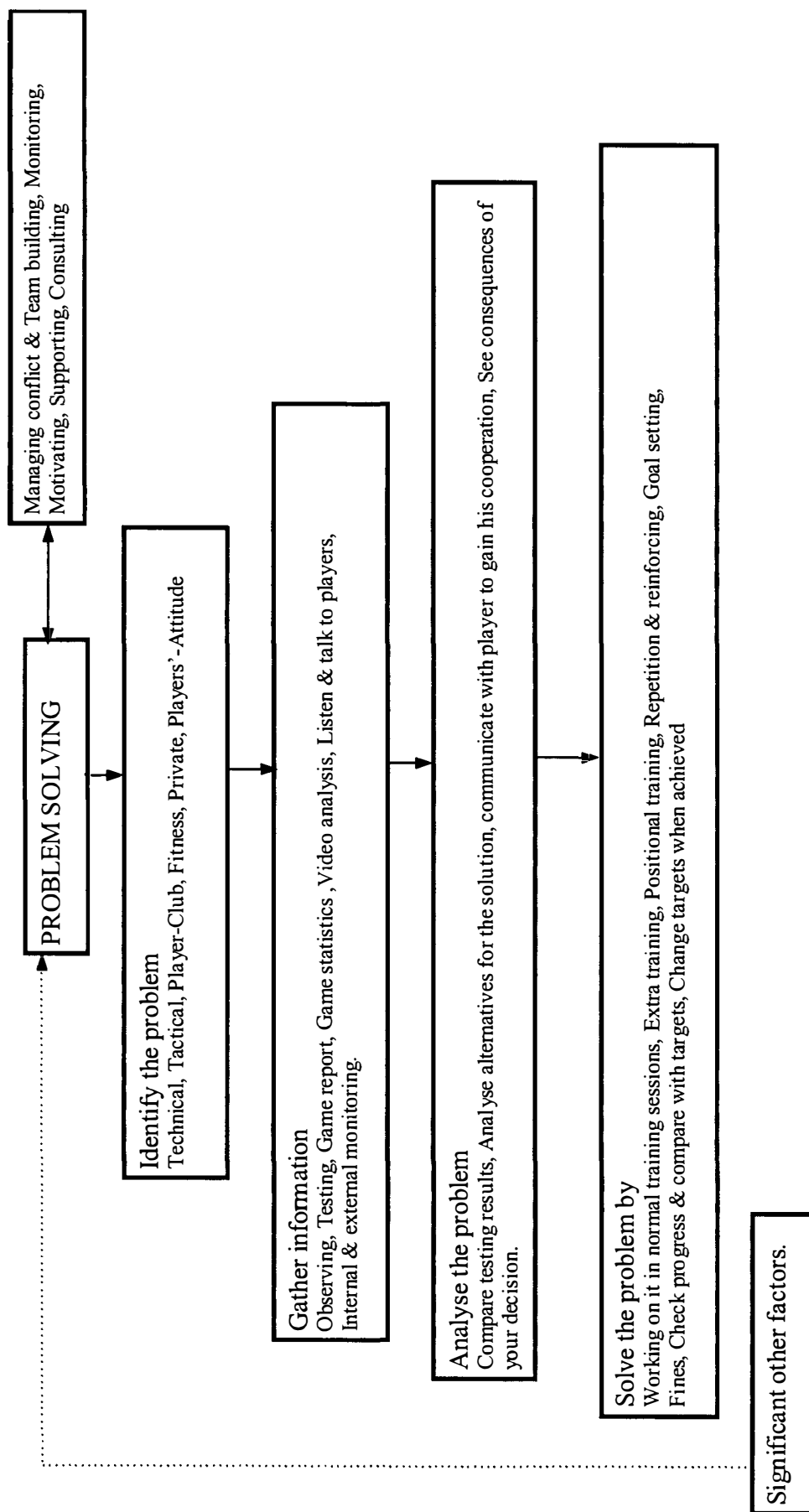


Figure 9. Problem Solving Hierarchy

Monitoring

Emerging Themes For Monitoring.

Gathering information is the main activity in monitoring. All the coaches claimed that monitoring is a very important part of their job. They described experiences of both central and perimeter monitoring. In Yukl's work central monitoring is called internal monitoring and perimeter is external. In central monitoring six major categories emerged as an important source to gather central information about the coaches' own teams. These were: training, games, reserves/juniors, outside the club, club functions and junior development. In perimeter monitoring two major categories which emerged were: functional training and other teams games.

An example of monitoring on how a coach gathers information about players when they are outside the club is described here by Coach E. He begins by declaring:

Monitoring, yeah well. I think monitoring from a coaching point of view is to try and pick up as much information as I can about my team and other teams.

He followed this immediately by outlining the importance of monitoring the players when they outside the club:

Monitoring players, I like to know what a player does for a living, if he works inside or outside or a labouring job, if he works in the elements. When he comes to training that night obviously he could have lost a lot of sweat through work and things like that you know. If someone is an accountant you

know that he is going to have a lot less physical things through the day so they could actually respond better at training than someone that's been working physically.

Continuing he explained what actions he had to take as a result of monitoring:

In the past I have had to stop some players working on a Saturday morning because they think they can go in from 6 till 12 and then turn up at 1.30 dressed and then try and play the game and wonder why they are tired in the second half.

Finally, Coach E described how he uses monitoring to improve his players performance:

I have tried to monitor this year our nutrition, how the diet can help give the player more petrol and more energy to burn. I have been introduced to a nutritional guy and have bought him to the club and he has done a very, very good job.

Coach E.

The previous example showed how the coach monitors his players' jobs. Another factor which coaches mentioned was players' life style and how it affects performance on the pitch . In training the coaches reported the following ways of monitoring: weekly observation, players' evaluation, fitness testing, skills testing, use of physiologist, heart rate monitors, pressure drills, points system, and keeping records. In games the coaches reported the following ways of monitoring: reviewing game, analysing the videotape of the game, focusing on own performance, taking notes during the game, evaluating players' performance, analysing how goals were

scored, creating a points system for all the players, measuring results against plans, and keeping records. Monitoring the reserves and juniors involved: talking to their coaches, training with reserves and watching their games. In club functions the coaches reported: socialising with players and their families and finding out information about players' personal environments. In junior development coaches reported that the main was is to identify any talented youth and develop him and help put him on the right track.

Another example of the central monitoring how it helps to identify the reasons underlying to players' poor performance on the pitch, as coach C explained:

We have just had a case, one of the boys at the moment who was outstanding last year, he was one of our most consistent players and he is only a young lad and this season he has been very poor. One of the reasons to start with was he said he wasn't making training on a Tuesday because he was getting a bit loaded up at work.

Coach C followed this immediately on how monitoring helped him on what to do to help the player get back on the right track.

So we said to him, last week after training on a Thursday, not to come to the game, just complete rest. A lot of people, if they get left out, they play in the reserves first and be subbed for the first game and we just said stay away completely, have a complete week off, catch up with what you have to catch up on at work and come back to training next week. He done that and he was back to his form.

Continuing on he clarified that he would not do the same with other players:

And we will try that with him. With other players it's just a question of knowing people. You have to know who to put your arm around and you have to know who needs a kick. And the players that need a kick up the backside get it and the players who need an arm around their shoulder get that. It's man management which is very important in football.

Coach C.

Interaction Between Monitoring and Other Specific Behaviours.

The coaches explained that monitoring is a very important part of the coaching process and it is a daily routine of gathering information and it is involved in every training session as well as in all games. They also emphasised that monitoring is an active process, which requires a lot of interactions between other specific behaviours. This interaction has two types, the first one is mutual interaction as shown in figure 10 (two-way arrows between networking, informing and monitoring. The second type of interaction is shown in figure 10 between monitoring and the following behaviours: recognising, rewarding, clarifying roles and objectives, planning and organising, managing conflict and team building, consulting, problem solving and motivating. The coaches outlined mutual interaction between monitoring and networking and also between monitoring and informing. The coaches stated that monitoring helps the coaches in the other specific behaviours such as recognising, rewarding, clarifying roles and objectives, planning and organising, managing conflict and team building, consulting, problem solving, motivating.

Coach B outlines an example on how he uses monitoring during games to help him in planning and preparing for next time he meets the same team. He begins by describing his methods of monitoring:

Well, I gather information, probably through going to watch games, make mental notes, I don't make too many written notes, I've recently started taking a tape-recorder with me, so if I put things on tape, every time we'd play, I would do a report after every game, on what we did, what I think the opposition did, the good points, the bad points about the game, and I'd keep a record.

Coach B followed this immediately with an explanation on how he uses previous game records to help him to plan for next time he meets the team:

And when we played them again, I'd refer back to that record to say, okay, we lost 6-nil to this team or we lost 1-nil. Look this is how and why they beat us, this was the team we had on the day, that was the team they had on the day, it may be the same, it may be different. So I sort of tend to keep records of games we've played, and that's one way of getting data for when you play them again.

Coach B.

In this example the coach explained how he monitors other teams as well as his own team. He mentioned the following: watch games, write notes, tape record, then makes a report about the game and to keep for the future when they play them again, talks to other people and asks players. In monitoring his own players he mentioned the following: observing them in both training and games, talking to players, fitness testing and keeping records.

Significant Other Factors Affecting Coaches Reaching Their Monitoring Potential.

Significant other factors perceived by coaches as preventing them from achieving their potential in monitoring were:

1. Club does not support you to watch games live in the NSL mainly because of financial reasons.
2. Lack of support from club committee.
3. Being part time and not having a professional set up affects monitoring.
4. Very difficult to monitor players' private life.
5. Coaches should not get too involved in players' private life.

An example of how difficult it is to monitor players' private life is expressed here by one of the coaches:

It's very hard to do that, especially in Australia. We had a problem where we had this A player who came out and I was very concerned that he was obviously doing other things in his private life. I asked the club to provide someone to tail him for a couple of days. They said, "No". I actually thought, and I heard rumours that he was out till 3-4 o'clock in the morning constantly and I didn't think that was good for football. Now you can only, if that was a problem, I would think that in the best interests of the club you would have to put someone on his tail, maybe it may cost you but if the fella earns good amount of dollars a week, it's a lot of money. For few dollars they would tail him for 4-5 nights, it's not a big deal. I don't like to do that but at the end of

the day, the principles are that if we've got training in the morning we would expect that you have an early night.

Coach D.

The following is an example of a significant other factor:

I am not so involved in social and family and private things with the players because soccer coach is a short time job, it's two to three years and you can't be involved too much in private things. I try to separate private and sport and it changes a little bit, in amateur soccer it's very important but in professional soccer there are in a group of players some problems all the time because they are open ends to earn the money. Sometimes if you get involved too much it will have an impact on your job and that's very dangerous, that's why I don't like that. It's enough to have some cultural highlights, in the beginning of the season,

Coach A.

This example shows how the coach does not get too involved in players personal life.

A summary of all the results regarding monitoring is presented in Figure 10.

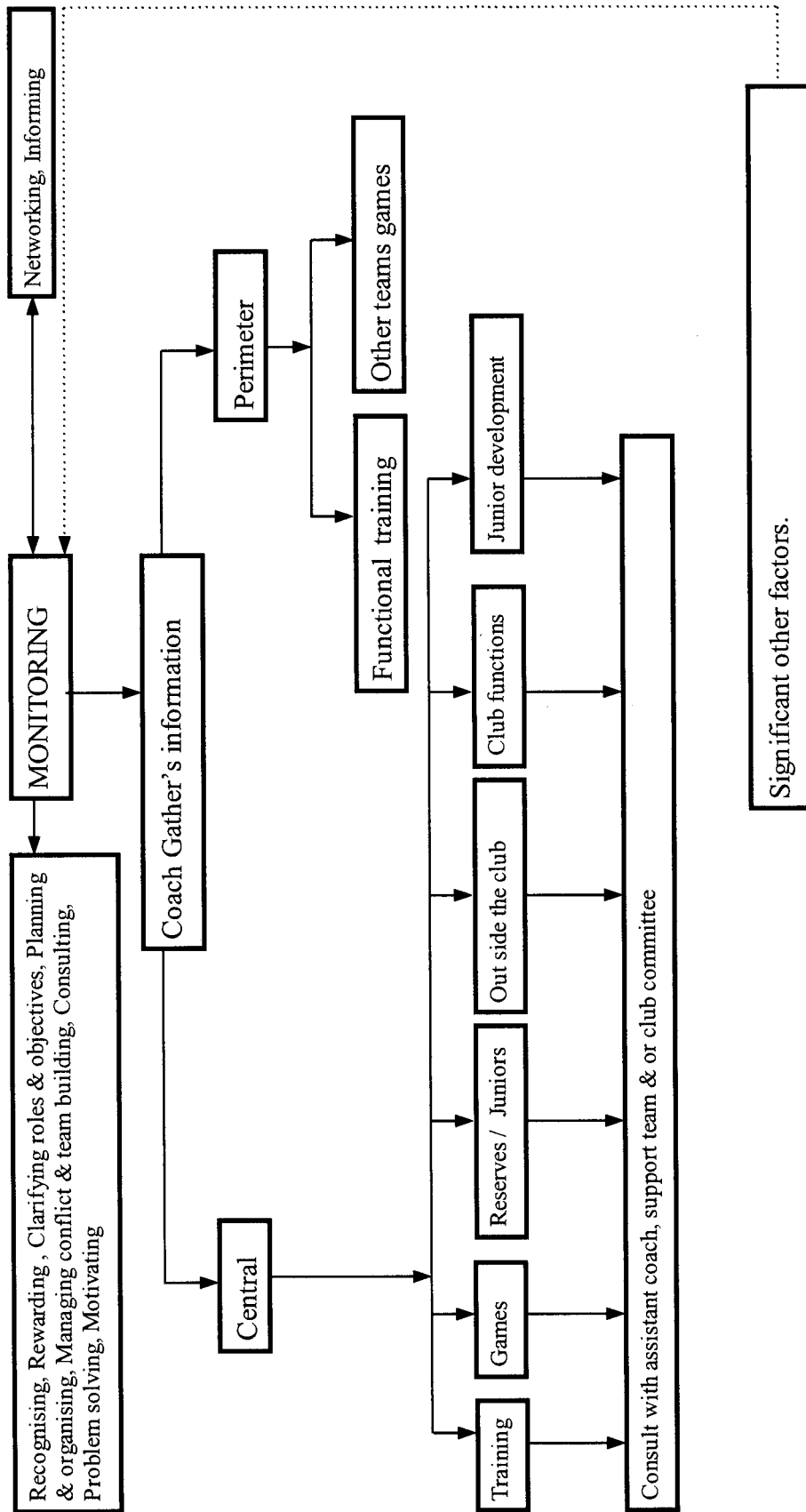


Figure 10. Monitoring Model

Networking

Emerging Themes for Networking

All the coaches explained that networking is an integral part their job. They described experiences with both types of networking. In central networking the six major categories to emerge were support team, club committee, players, social events, sponsors, and others. In perimeter networking the five major categories were other coaches, media, membership, social events, and latest literature.

The six central categories encompass the different ways that coaches networked. They networked with the support team through regular meetings, direct contact if needed and by sharing information about the latest coaching updates and new ideas in their field. When networking with the club committee the coaches held regular meetings, had direct contact if needed and kept up to date with the club's future plans. During their work with the players, the coaches established special networking relations with the senior players, the captain and players who had been coached in other clubs. When networking at social events they got to know players' families, their players' lives and met new people. When networking with sponsors, the coaches were required to keep in touch with sponsors, establish good relations and get involved with sponsors at team functions. When networking with others, these included front office staff, maintenance workers and cleaners showing oneself being friendly, supportive.

The coaches described five different ways of perimeter networking. When networking with other coaches they were open to their counterparts and saw them as colleagues, helped them if they sought advice, make comprehensive inquiries with other coaches before signing on a new player and built relationships with other coaches. When networking with the media, the coaches maintained contact, used the media to send messages to supporters and tried use it to their psychological advantage. In networking with organisations, the coaches joined coach associations, joined strength and conditioning organisations and attend coaching seminars and subscribed to coaching magazines. The coaches' networking at social events involved meeting other people, maintaining relationships with other club managers. The coaches also networked by keeping up to date with the latest opportunities for international competition and travel to Europe, by finding new ideas or methods for training, by reading the latest literature on nutrition, fitness, conditioning, and tactics, by reading coaching magazines, FIFA updates on the World Cup, and UEFA updates all European championships.

An example of central networking between the head coach (first team coach) and the club president, team manager, players, committee, other club coaches (reserves, under 18) is demonstrated in the following response:

We tend to have a committee and coaches' meeting every month, which I think, is very important. [It's] good to talk about lots of things at the committee meeting, and that's things that happen on the park and things that happen off the park. Maybe that's something that doesn't happen at all clubs and I am talking both premier league and national league. I think it is important that you do communicate with the committee and other coaches and when we do get together monthly it's not just the first team coaches, it's

the reserves coach and under 18 coach, so we are talking about how the younger players are developing as well. It's amazing what you find out and we encourage players to be promoted from our under 18's to our reserves to our first team. You only find out if you get together and you talk.

Coach H

Further example of the networking shows the coaches' job has changed to include public relations:

My job changed to a public person with sponsors and media. It's nearly 30% of my job, has never been before in soccer but now in Europe as well, it's the same, you need more coaching staff because you are a public person, everybody wants to talk with you about everything and that's why it's harder. ... I am sick of too many public things, there's a function and there are letters and letters. A day has just 24 hours and I can't do more.

Coach A.

Interaction Between Networking and Other Specific Behaviours.

The coaches explained that networking is a very essential part of the coaching process. Networking has interactions with seven other specific behaviours: monitoring, managing conflict and team building, consulting, recognising, mentoring and developing, supporting and informing. The coaches' own network helps them in monitoring their own teams and also the other teams. Networking helps in managing conflict and team building. Networking and consulting complement each other as the coaches use their networks to consult with other professionals on certain issues, especially with those coaches who are not competing in the same league. Because of the competitive nature of the sport there is limited information that can be shared if

competing in the same league. Therefore successful coaches will not be too open in sharing information with other coaches as this would clearly work against them and create a conflict of interest. Central networking also helps in recognising individual efforts. Networking and mentoring have mutual interactions when coaches network with others to update their knowledge, to develop their own players by recommending that they play at a higher level or by assisting them to make an important career move. Networking and supporting mutually interact when coaches using their own networks to support their players. An example of this would be using media reports or interviews to support their players. Networking and informing mutually interact when coaches use central and perimeter networks when informing their players and the club committee.

Significant Other Factors Affecting Coaches Reaching Their Networking Potential.

Significant other factors perceived by coaches as preventing them from achieving their potential in networking were:

1. Reluctance between coaches to share certain technical and tactical information, especially between coaches of teams in the same league.
2. Lack of quality coaching updates for elite level local coaches in Western Australia. Some coaches have had to travel overseas to update their knowledge.
3. A lack of financial support from the club to improve coaches' perimeter networks.

An example of these significant other factors is expressed here by one of the coaches:

I don't do a lot of reading. Unfortunately, it is to my demise really. I watch a lot of soccer videos, perhaps I see something and I rewind it and try and work it out. I have now got some information through world class coaching, picking drills up and everything because basically in WA there's not a lot of new things that go on and it is so far away from Europe you can't just say well I am going over to Europe for a month to have a look at Man U training or Barcelona. If the club paid me I'd love to go, I would go wherever they want me to but it doesn't happen.

Coach E.

A further example highlights these significant other factors.

I am a member of the FA Coaches' Association in England, the Senior Members and I get information from them about every six weeks. I get a magazine called *Insight*, which comes every three months I think, every twelve weeks, which is a fantastic magazine. Lots of ideas in it. There is another magazine called *Success in soccer*, which is a good magazine. A lot in it for juniors and some for amateurs, a lot for seniors, so I like to get them, I like to look at them and look at what new training methods there are but ultimately football is a very simple ... But I do like to keep up to date with what's going on. I have still got many friends in England and I like to keep in touch with them. They're all at professional clubs and they are all working there so I like to give them a call and find out what they are doing and how they are going about it. I went over to England just after Christmas in January and I spent a week over there at a club and what they do and what we do are not far apart but, of course, they have got a bit more quality than we have got.

Coach C.

The results regarding networking behaviour are presented as a summary in Figure 11.

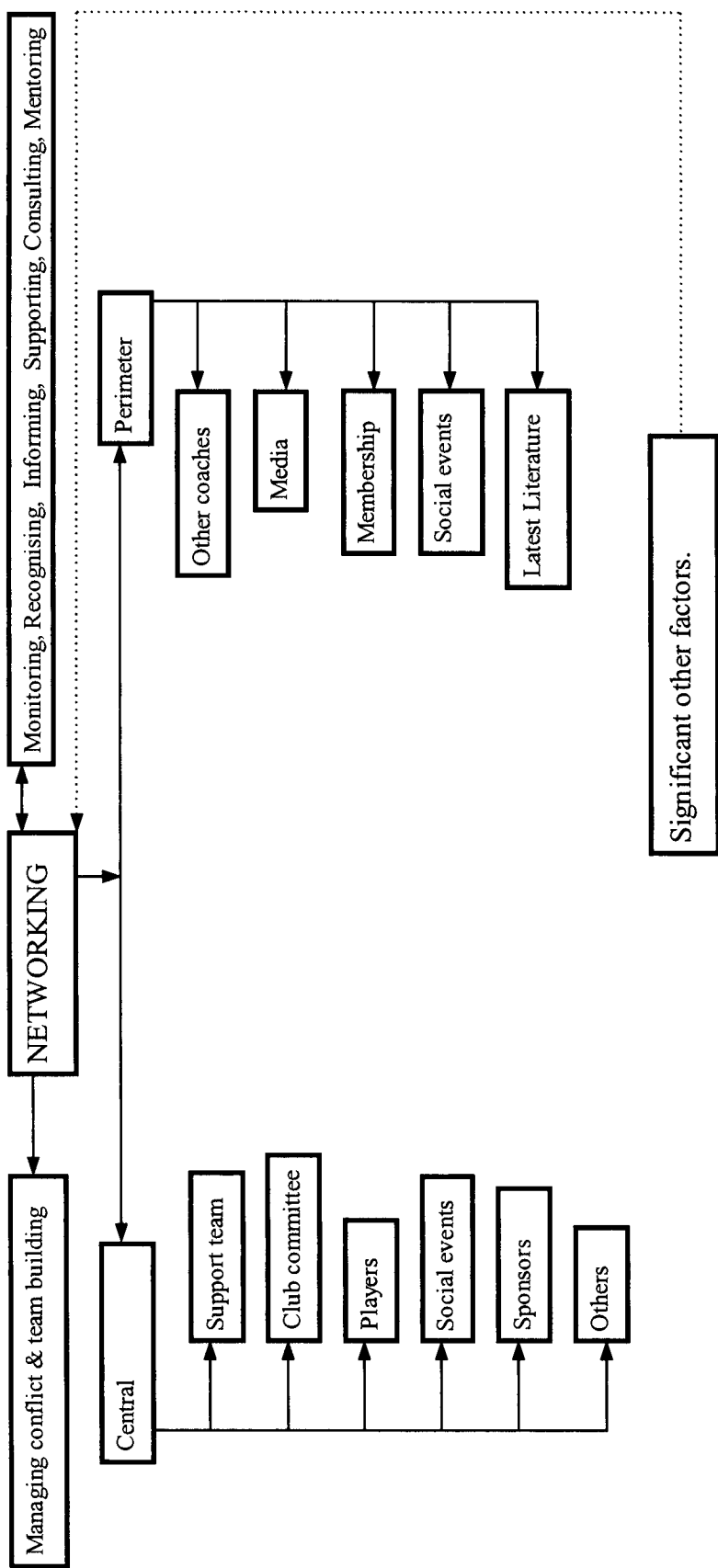


Figure 11. Networking Model.

Clarifying Roles and Objectives

Emerging Themes for Clarifying Roles and Objectives.

The player's roles and responsibilities were the key themes in the coaches' task of clarifying roles and objectives. In assessing this, the coach had two sub categories to consider: the player's normal role and positional change. All the coaches stated that it is very important to clarify players' roles and objectives and to do it at almost every training session, especially at functional training sessions where the team practises the game strategy.

When coaching players for their normal positions, the coaches focused on defining each player's role according to their position, explaining in detail all responsibilities attached to that role, and identifying the specific responsibilities of each position such as goalkeeper, defender, midfielder and attacker. When coaching players to prepare them for positional change because of injuries, suspensions, team weakness, or an opponent's strength, the coaches explained to the whole team the roles of these players, so that the players can appreciate each other's position. The coaches would also train these players in the different positions to prepare them for this sudden change.

The clarifying of players' roles and objectives requires explanation and demonstration, practice of the roles during functional training, practice during planned small sided games, gaining for feedback from players and clarifying every player's role on paper or with learning aids such as board with markers and sticks on

the field. An example of clarifying roles and objectives to the team is provided by coach F:

... get them to play to their strengths, and if they can play to their strengths then match up with somebody else and get some team understanding. And let players in the team understand the other players' strengths.

He followed this immediately by describing a specific situation:

I mean, when we used to play we used to have a full back on the right hand side that used to love going forward, and that suited the team because we had a midfield player on the right side who was very good at distributing balls with early passes. Now, he wouldn't work too hard but because the fellow kept getting forward it was quite easy for him to fill in if the full back went forward. So we were able to say "And when he goes forward, you fill in you know, if he's there, just pull behind and give him the ball and he can play it to you and you can work off other people". And I think it's really identifying the strengths and weaknesses of players and sort of marrying them up within the team and making players understand other players' strengths and weaknesses.

Continuing on Coach F explained another situation where players work together to achieve better team understanding:

... and the thing about leaving space for our strikers, particularly the one striker, he was very quick and very alert, and we'd play balls into space and he'd lose defenders quickly and he'd be facing goals and finish with a striker goal. Now, when we used to get players [to] crowd that space, then we had a problem, we had conflict. But sometimes the players used to sort it out because the players at times when I would not necessarily argue and say "Hey, that's not your job, you know, you're killing somebody else's space,

your job is to go out there and draw the defender wide, things like that". So, basically identifying what they're good at doing, getting them to do it and getting the other players to understand that.

Coach F.

Interaction Between Clarifying Roles and Objectives and Other Specific Behaviours.

The coaches explained that clarifying roles and objectives is a very important part of their job and lead to a better team understanding, which in turn lead to team success. Clarifying roles and objectives interact with three other specific behaviours: planning and organising, managing conflict and team building and monitoring. Monitoring helps in identifying players' strength and weaknesses and these help the coach in clarifying on players' roles and objectives. In addition, clarifying players' roles and objectives helps in planning and organising and in managing conflict and team building.

Significant Other Factors Affecting Coaches Reaching Their Clarifying Roles and Objective Potential..

For clarifying roles and objectives the significant other factors were:

1. The nature of the game.
2. Players' shared responsibilities in game situations.
3. Interaction between players' roles.
4. Difficulties facing the coach when position change can not be avoided.

Figure 12 presents a summary for the themes, interactions and the significant other factors preventing coaches from achieving to their potential for clarifying roles and objectives.

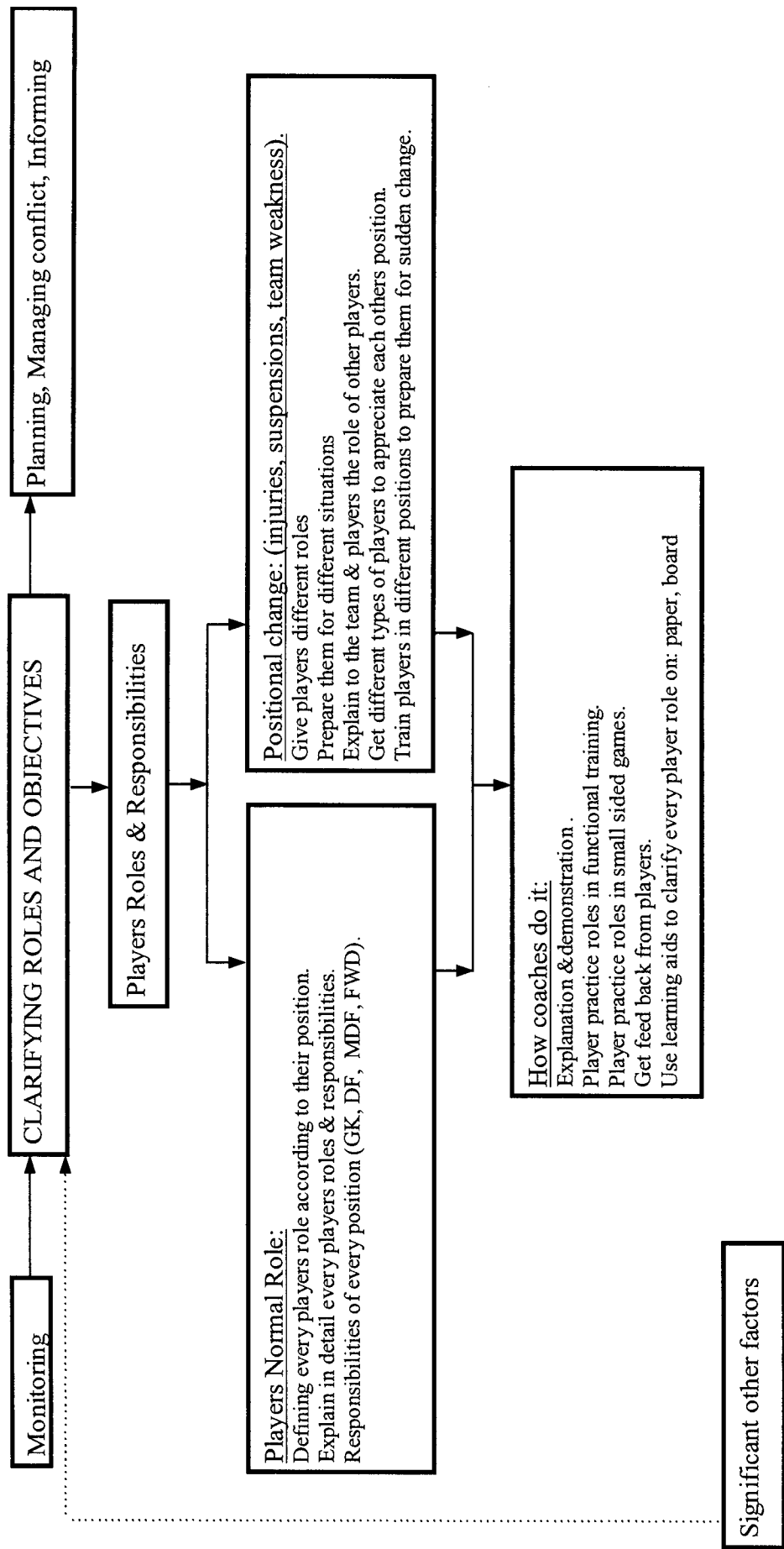


Figure 12. Clarifying Roles & Objectives Model.

Managing Conflict and Team Building.

Emerging Themes for Managing Conflict and Team Building.

The first of these behaviours is managing conflict and team building. Although this may appear to be two categories and they separated in sub-categories within the model because of their different tasks, the interaction between them is so strong that one cannot be divorced from the other. For this reason they are grouped as one behaviour in these findings as they are in Yukl's (1989, 1994) taxonomy.

All the coaches mentioned that managing conflict and team building are very important components of their jobs. They noted that good team building strategies lead to less conflict and created a better team spirit among players which contributed success. However, the coaches had different ways of dealing with the conflict.

The coaches showed that they used eight stages in managing the conflict. The first was defining the conflict. They described a range of conflicts types such as player-coach conflict, player-player conflict and player-club conflict. In player-coach conflict players' discipline and attitude are frequently reported. For example, high profile players may challenge the coach's authority, when required to make a positional change, or to sit on the bench. Player-player conflict occurs between senior and junior players, between players in different positions, between new and old players, when players are self centred, and when cliques form within the team. Player-club conflict arises from players' contracts, rewards and the need to improve training facilities.

After defining the type of conflict, the second step in managing the conflict is to identify its causes. Third, a coach needs to gather information and points of view from both sides involved in the conflict. Fourth, the coach bring with both sides together by inviting them to his office and talking to them. The coach then acknowledges the facts by explaining the context within in which the conflict exists. Considering a range of acceptable solutions is the sixth step in managing the conflict. Finally, the coach works out the best solution by placing team interests first. On some occasions a coach might need to go a step further by reporting the conflict to the club committee if he can not resolve it.

For team building, the coaches' responses followed three themes: training, games, and social and other events. Training differs according to the stage of the season. For example, in the preseason camp such as an army camp, the focus is on fitness in a competitive way between different groups of players, fun fitness work and mixing newcomers with older players. Early and mid season training involves: fun activities between players, harmony activities for group units and for the whole team, clarification of players' roles and the importance of every player's role, mixing juniors and seniors and preparing the team for all game situations. At the end or close of the season, the training includes: fun activities, harmony activities for the whole team, building better squad for next year, bonding circle before games, players with good attitudes are used to bring the team together, senior players and the captain support juniors, team celebrations after winning games are supported, positive and constructive comments are provided by the coach, and team bonding is enhanced using media reports. Social and other events for team building include: barbecues

and meetings, outings for players and their families, charity work, positive comments in the media, and club promotions.

Interaction Between Managing Conflict and Team Building and Other Specific Behaviours.

Managing conflict and team building interact with seven other specific behaviours including monitoring, clarifying roles and objectives, consulting, networking, motivating, supporting and problem solving. Central monitoring helps the coach in managing conflict and team building. Central and perimeter monitoring helps the coach in clarifying players' roles and objectives. Consulting also helps the coach in managing conflict and team building. A coach's own network also helps him in managing conflict and team building. Coaches also use their motivational abilities to lessen conflict and for better team building. A coach's support for his players helps in managing conflict and team building. Managing conflict and team building helps in problem solving.

Significant Other Factors Preventing Coaches Reaching their Managing Conflict and Team Building Potential.

Significant other factors perceived by coaches as preventing them from achieving their potential in managing conflict and team building were:

1. A lack of financial support for camps.
2. The club committee not backing the coach against high profile players.

3. When players are part time and do not have professional status they are often unavailable for camps.

An example of managing conflict and team building is explained here by Coach J who begins by explaining how he established a good team atmosphere within the team:

We play silly games at training sometimes, little group games, split them into small teams usually twos or threes, do relays and drills, really primary school sort of exercises. The losing team is punished by doing a lap of the oval or a silly exercise. We make sure that we ridicule one another and we change the teams regularly. So it's those sorts of things that create good team atmosphere.

He followed this with a description on how he uses competitive games to help him in team building:

We have groups of five players, which makes three teams so we can have five versus five and a team resting and we play and the losing team is penalised. So, it makes it competitive and it also binds the players in the group.

Continuing on he describes how he mixes juniors with seniors to help in more team building:

We change those groups and make sure we get two or three of the younger players with two or three of the senior players each time. The relationship builds up because they don't have any other things in common, they don't mix socially because the kids are 16, 17, they don't mix with the older guys, they don't have any common friends, they don't have any common work

experiences, they don't have common school interests. So you've got to somehow get them together on the training track and bind them.

In this example the coach mentioned how he uses things like fun activities, competitive exercises, mixing juniors with seniors to help him in team building

Coach J also talked about the financial difficulties, which affect team building, such as lack of money for camps and players' availability because of the time factors:

So, yeah, also things like, rock climbing, silly games, some training sessions, very rarely, but once every two months we just have a fun session for an hour and that would be it. And we'll arrange for a barbecue at the club, we'll finish at 8 o'clock and have a team meeting for half an hour, barbecue 8 o'clock. We won't tell the players that when they arrive, it'll just happen. So, it's a bit of a bonus for them and we also get home early that night and this makes them pretty happy. And yeah, again, it's difficult to take players away. I mean I'd love to take them away for a weekend in Margaret River for a exercise but it's going to cost me two grand which I don't have and we couldn't get the time down there either. So it's difficult.

Coach J.

Figure 13 presents a summary for the themes, interactions and the significant other factors preventing coaches from achieving to their potential for Managing conflict and team building.

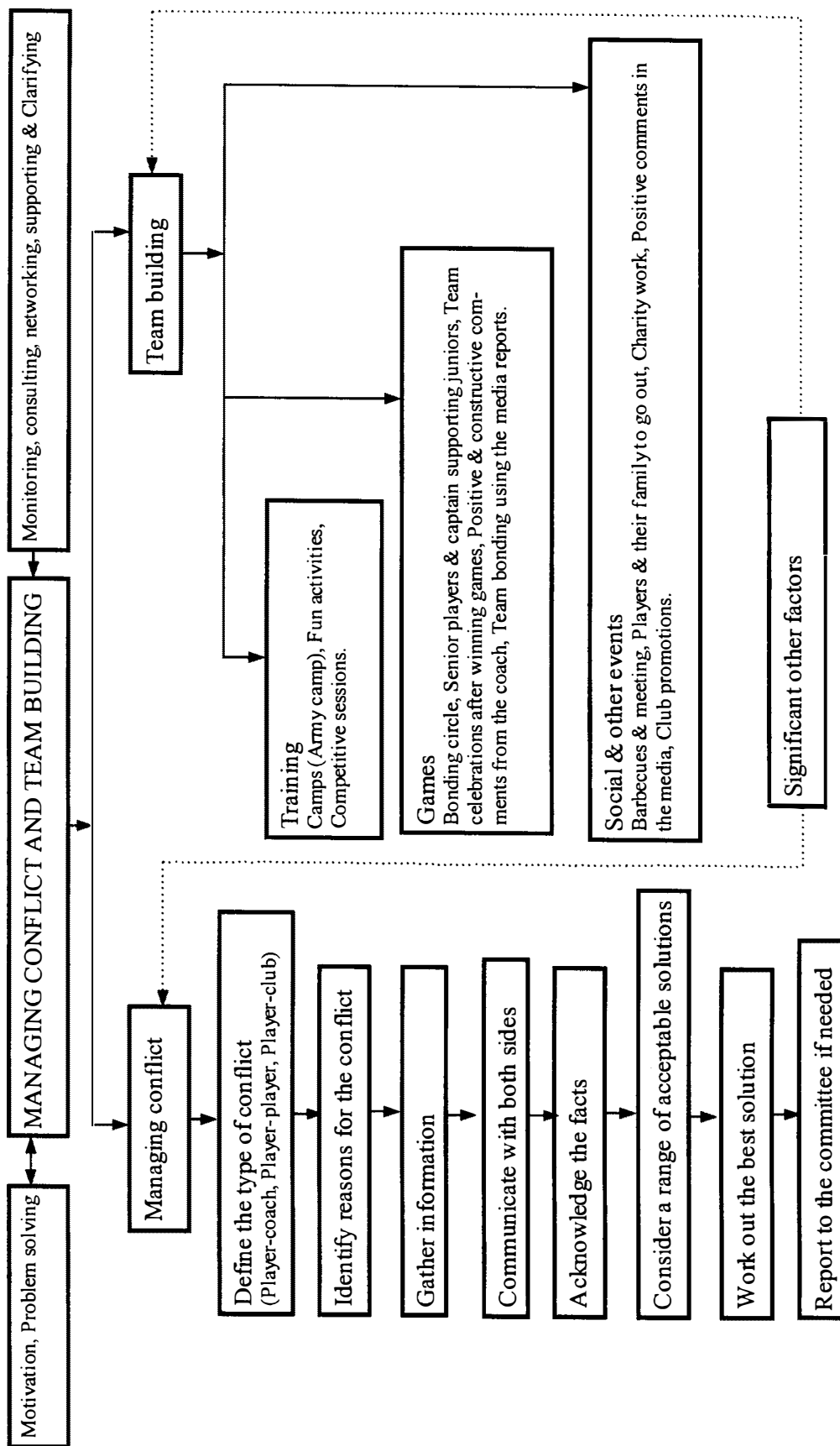


Figure 13. Managing Conflict & Team Building.

Mentoring and Developing.

Emerging Themes for Mentoring and Developing.

All the coaches explained that mentoring and developing was a very important part of their job. Five major themes emerged from the coaches which included developing junior players, developing player strength and addressing weaknesses, assisting career movement, providing extra training and fitness. For junior development: seniors were often named as mentors for the juniors, Juniors were given opportunities to play in the first team where possible, regular fitness testing was carried out, regular testing of skills under pressure was conducted, results were compared with bench marks standards, and some juniors were recommended for a higher level NSL or for professional career overseas. For players strength and weaknesses: pressure drills to improve players' strength were instigated, any weaknesses were identified and practice introduced to improve them, strengths were identified and practice introduced to improve these game situations were discussed so that players would play to their strength and avoid their weakness. For players' career movement: coaches use their own networks if requested by players, coaches offered advice without getting too involved in any transfer, they helped players with training and organised meetings with other professional players. For extra training: the coaches used a lot of positional training, show players how to share responsibility, showed players what exactly needs to be done, give them feedback on their development, ask them for their opinion how they feeling, and practised set pieces. For fitness: evaluate players fitness, set specific fitness goals, conduct regular

fitness testing during different sections of the season (preseason, midseason, and off season) and adjusted players personal goals depending on testing results.

Interaction Between Mentoring and Developing and Other Specific Behaviours.

Mentoring and developing involves developing their players to their full potential. The coaches showed that mentoring and developing interacts with: networking, monitoring and supporting. The coaches' own network has mutual interaction with mentoring. While mentoring and supporting contributes to mentoring and the development of players.

Significant Other Factors Affecting Coaches Achieving Their potential in Mentoring and Developing.

For mentoring and developing the significant other factors were:

1. Coaches face a dilemma in that they want to keep their best players but, at the same time they need to support players' careers by recommending them to overseas clubs.
2. Coaches need to exercise caution when recommending players, because this puts the coaches' own reputations on the line.
3. In part time situations it is difficult to offer extra training and fitness work after training sessions because it is difficult to balance the demands and the needs of all the players in the team.

An example of how a coach uses mentoring to improve a player's weakness is explained here:

It comes down to assessing them individually. If he is looking to advance his career from my club to say P or to NSL or Europe, then I think what you have to do is identify his weaknesses and get him to work on them and work with him to improve those weaknesses. Because the higher the level you go, the weaknesses will be exploited so you have to reduce the number of weaknesses you have in your game. But also make it aware really of what he is good at. Because you have to keep doing what you're good at. You've got to keep doing, whatever level you playing at, you've got to do what you're good at, what makes you a good player. You have to make sure that he knows what he is good at, know what he's not good at and work on both things. Obviously the weaknesses you've got to work on a little bit more. You have to pick him up as an individual and improve his game in that respect.

Coach I.

Another example of how a coach uses mentoring and developing to improve player's strength is described here:

What you do is that you would say to these guys, you might have a guy who is good at dribbling but he doesn't do it enough or he doesn't recognise when he should do, or he does it at the wrong times, so in that case we would point out situations where, if he gets a defender one on one with no cover, that's the time to dribble, have a go at him and dribble past him. If he's got a defender stood up and there's three or four defenders in behind him, who are waiting for him to go past this one then, that's not the time to go, you know. It's making him recognise when to use his strengths and when not to do it. I think that's important.

Coach I.

An example of the interaction between monitoring and mentoring is highlighted here by one of the coaches:

I speak with the players about the problems. I have had a lot of testing programs, stamina testing, sprint testing, power testing, jump testing, skin folds testing and such a lot and then I can see where are the problems. And then I give them directions what they have to do, maybe with a nutritionist, maybe with more gym work, maybe different, very different from men to men, absolutely different.

Coach A.

Figure 14 presents a summary for the themes, interactions and the significant other factors preventing coaches from achieving to their potential for mentoring and developing.

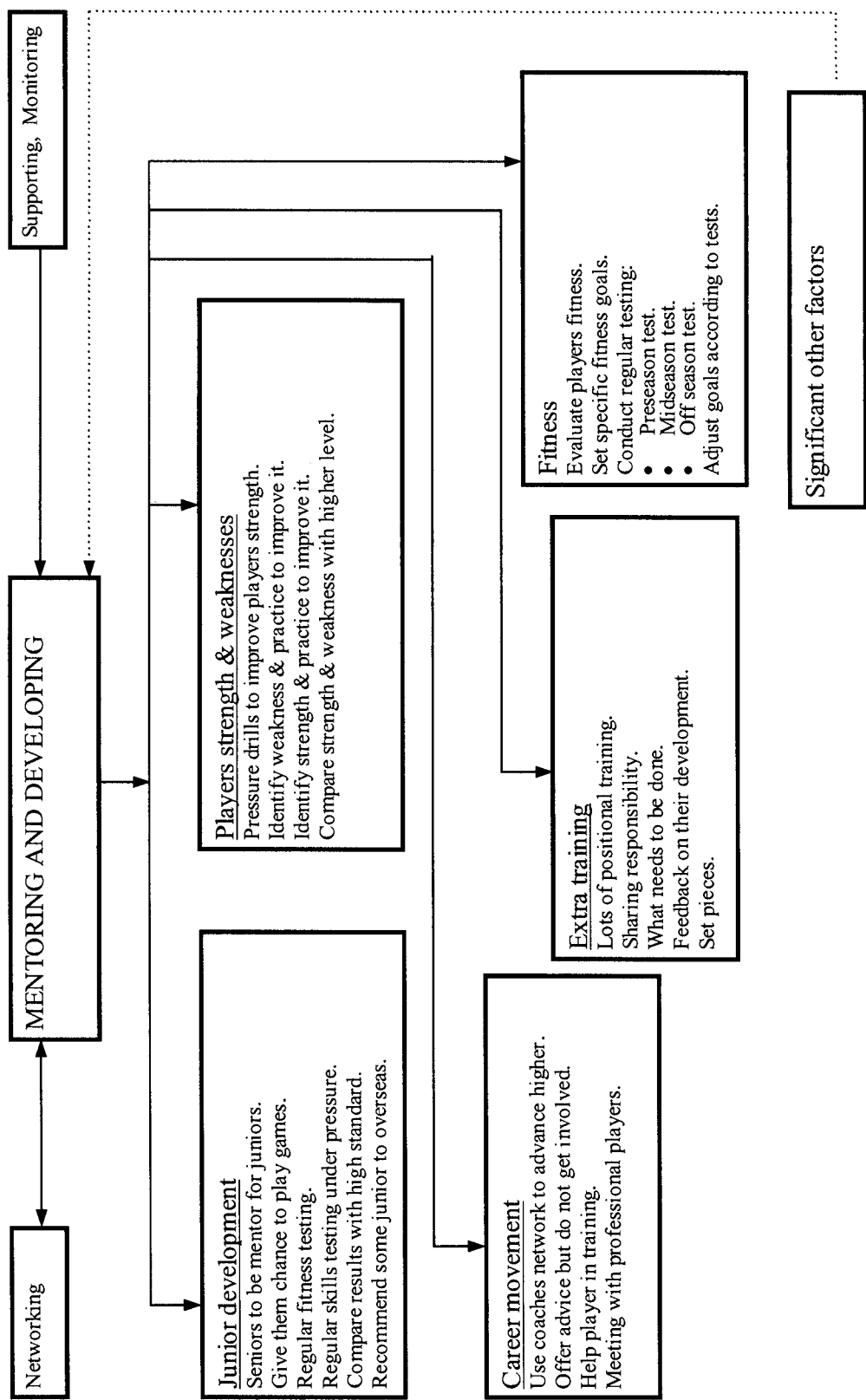


Figure 14. Mentoring and Developing Model

Informing

Emerging Themes for Informing.

All the coaches commented that informing was an active process in coaching and that it is a daily routine in all types of training and for all games. Coaches provide information to the support team, to the club administration and to the players. The coaches indicated that they shared a lot of information on a daily basis with their assistant coaches about training and games.. They also informed the club committee on a regular monthly basis about team performance. The coaches pointed out that the initial meeting with their players was very significant. Written instructions were also given to all the players to cover the whole season. An explanation of the coach's expectations of the players and a timetable for the season were also distributed. After the initial meeting, coaches conducted team meetings once a month to re-assess on a seasonal basis, to consider the game report and statistics, to explain the video analysis and to obtain feedback from players. In training, coaches passed on verbal information on the pitch, provided repeated demonstrations and explanations of what they requested, created game situations, talked to players individually, drew up diagrams or pictures of game strategies, listened to players and answered their questions. In game situations, the coaches' informing occurred at three different stages: before, during and after the game. Before the game the coach would: explain positions, announce starting line up, reinforce what had been practiced in training, and use a board to draw pictures or diagrams. During the game the coach would be very specific reminding players of their job, using the captain to pass information and sending messages with the closest player to the sideline. After the games: brief

talk on the outcome of the match. This talk would be affected by the result of the match. If the team wins, coaches celebrate with the players. In the case of a loss, the coaches explained that they prefer to cool down themselves as well as the players, and leave the analysing, reporting and informing until the next training session.

An example of informing players is outlined here by Coach I who begins by talking about his way of informing before the game:

Before the game we have a team meeting. Everyone's roles and objectives are pointed out in that team meeting. Generally, the team meeting is just to reinforce what we have done at training through the week so I don't spend an hour talking about the game. I spend ten minutes reinforcing what we have done at training because I am a big believer that you aim your training at the game and if you are doing your job on the training ground then it makes it easier to turn up for a Saturday. So I spend fifteen-twenty minute team meeting before the game, identifying certain things I expect these players to do, reinforcing them, so yes that basically why I would do that.

Continuing on he said:

During the game I would send a message on the pitch through a player who is close to me I don't yell to the other side unless its when I try to change something on the pitch or I try to change somebody's role on the pitch. I send a message across through the player closest to me. Try to get a message to the team that way.

He then talked about his approach of informing after the game:

After the game I never or very rarely do anything immediately after the game and I'll say I'll never do anything after a loss because if the team loses generally the feelings of emotion are running high and you might spark somebody off and an argument might erupt. Last thing you want. I think let the players stew on the game, let them think about it, next training session then you discuss what happened on the Saturday. And work out your problems from there but I don't believe in coming in and yelling and screaming at teams just because we lost a game. Sometimes you can lose a game and play really well, that's life, you know. There's no point in screaming and yelling about it. Coach I.

Interaction Between Informing and Other Specific Behaviours.

The coaches considered that informing was a daily routine occurring between the coach and the players and between the coach and the support team. On the other hand, it is a monthly process with the club's administration. Informing interacts with monitoring and networking. Perimeter monitoring helps the coach to get information about other teams and to analyse other playing styles and present in a final report for the players. Central monitoring helps the coach to inform the players of their own progress and development. The coach's own network helps in getting this information.

An example of the interaction between informing and monitoring is described here by coach K who begins by declaring:

... So you give the basic information about the next opponent, how they play, usually in normal circumstances, if it is a full professional team, you would have a session on the, TV session. Watching their game and the game of the next opponent, how they are playing and making certain suggestions,

and certain remarks on their own game and that how it starts. During the whole week, it is step by step closer and closer. And we would mimic the game against them in way that it is usually Wednesday, and partly Thursday as well, we would put together the reserve team exactly the same way, even their physical attributes, as their opponent, and try to use that team in a defensive and offensive way, that we are completely rehearsing the game, how we are expecting it to unfold. So that is the real information.

He then explained his methods of informing if the team is playing in the finals:

The information of the players would be, if we are playing a big game, for example, if it is a grand final, or semi final and I had so many of them, I would give every player in writing my vision of the opponent, and how they play, and then, they would report back to me in a way that I know what I have to do and so on, so on.

Continuing on coach K mentioned how he monitored the other team to help him in providing the written instructions for each player in his squad in an important international game:

One of those things I [have] done probably the most successful game in my life, when we played international game against ..., I went to watch them in ..., and then I seen what they are doing and how they are doing it, and I put everything in writing to the players, and then they had to repeat to me, from word to word, what is expected, how, where he does and surprise, surprise, we won the game. Exactly the way I been telling them that we do.

Coach K.

Significant Other Factors Preventing Coaches reaching Their Informing Potential.

No Significant other factors prevented coaches from achieving their potential in informing. Figure 15 presents a summary for the themes and interactions for mentoring and developing.

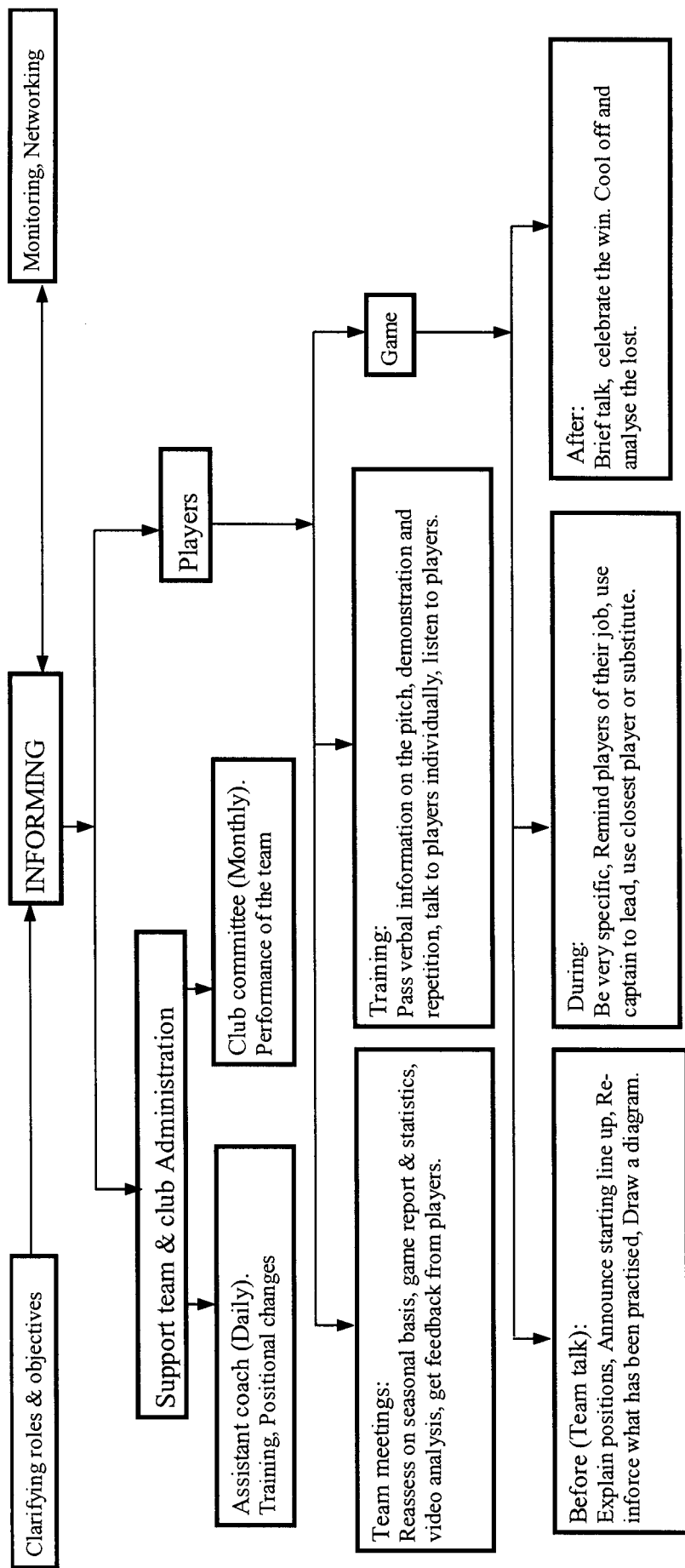


Figure 15. Informing Model

Consulting

Emerging Themes for Consulting.

The coaches consulted with six different groups of people: the assistant coach, reserves coach, club committee, other support team, captain and senior players and others.

The coaches indicated that they consult on almost everything with their assistant coaches including the training program, planning, training sessions, set pieces, positional training and game plans. Consultation with the reserves coach focused on the training program, long term planning, training sessions, reserves' improvement and availability the of reserves. Consultations with the club committee were important to discuss progress, to listen to any concerns, to check their reaction to certain issues, to evaluate the year's plan and to plan for next year. In consulting with the support team (e.g., under 18 and under 16 coaches, the physiologist, and the physiotherapist), coaches concentrated on players' development, injuries, rehabilitation, fitness testing, and individual fitness program. In consulting with the captain or the senior players, coaches mentioned training that this included training sessions, players' problems, team building, motivation, encouraging junior players and getting feedback from players. In consulting with other coaches, the main reason was for signing new players.

Interaction Between Consulting and other Specific Behaviours.

Coaches emphasised that the behaviour of consulting mutually interacts with both behaviours of networking and monitoring. Networking and mentoring helps coaches to consult on some issues in order to improve team performance. Consulting also interacts with problem solving, delegating, managing conflict and team building, organising and supporting. Consulting also interacts with 5 other behaviours, these behaviours are: problem solving, delegating, managing conflict and team building, planning and organising and supporting.

Significant Other Factors Affecting Coaches Reaching Their Consulting Potential.

A coach's consulting behaviour is affected by the following significant other factors:

1. Being a part time coach and having part time support staff makes it very difficult to find the time to meet and talk about certain things.
2. A coach cannot be too open to the players and other staff. Therefore, it is difficult to explain everything such as positional change, substitution and starting line up.
3. Financial problems prevent the assistant coach travelling to all the games and finding time to talk with the coach.

An example of how the coach consults with his assistant and the significant other factors is demonstrated here:

My main ones would be that I would always be talking with my assistant coaches, obviously before training we would be having an assessment. I had the problem where when we travelled interstate I never had the assistant coach with me other than occasionally whereas now the assistant coach goes

all the time. A financial problem. With him working as well, very difficult, so most of our consulting would have been before training, because we change in the room together, after training and you know after a game we may have a social drink for half an hour and talk about it. In a part time situation very difficult. He just doesn't have the time, he's got a family, he has to come to training, come home, have his meal, work during the day. In a full time situation, a different kettle of fish because you could have regular meetings.

Coach D.

Figure 16 presents a summary for the themes, interactions and the significant other factors preventing coaches from achieving to their potential for consulting.

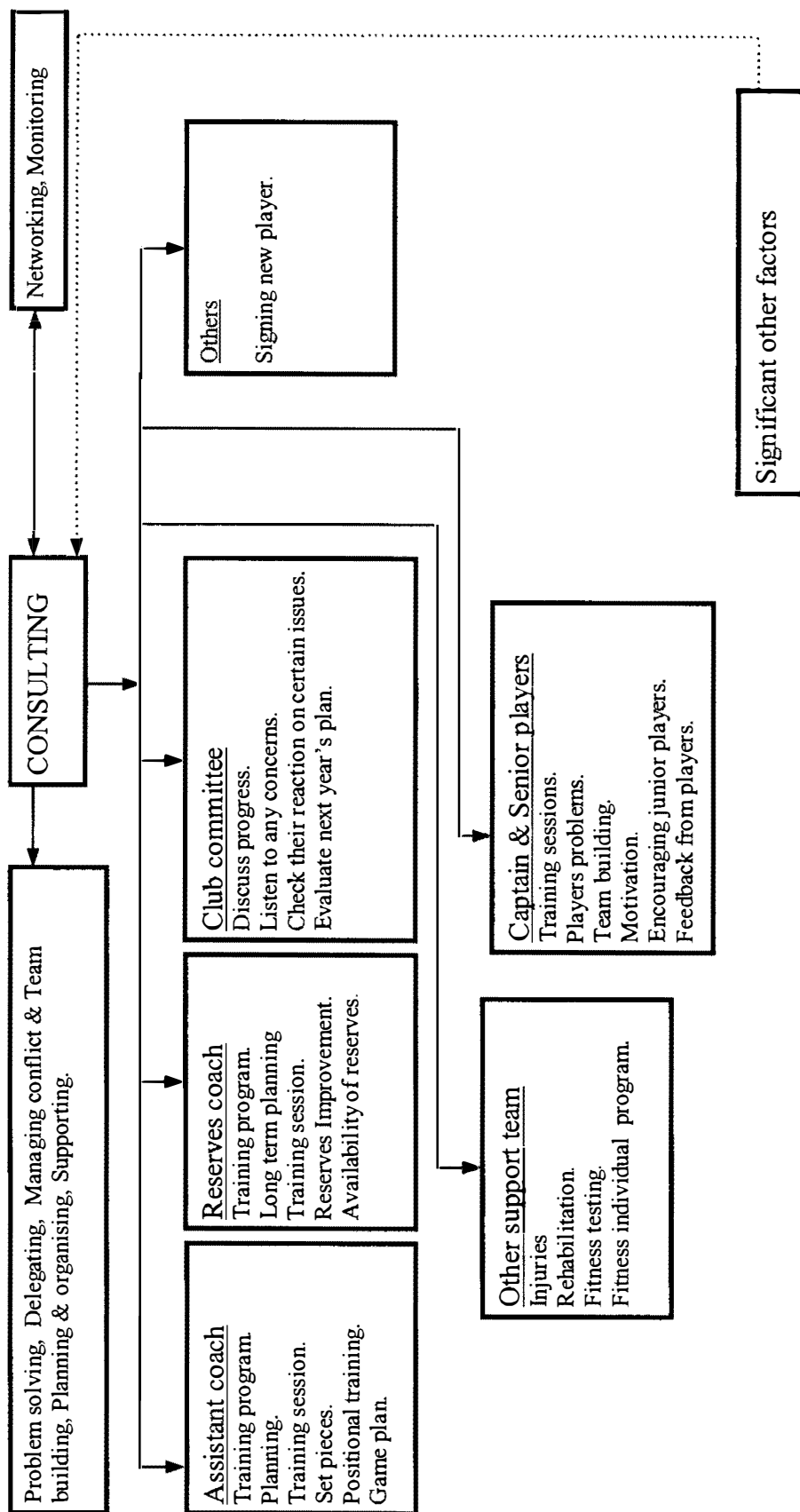


Figure 16. Consulting Model.

Delegating

Emerging Themes for Delegating.

Most of the coaches indicated that they were comfortable delegating to the appropriate person for the task (e.g. assistant coach to work with the strikers). Furthermore all of them also said that they can delegate only certain things. For example, they could only delegate to the people whom they trust will do the job. However, a lot of them also stressed that the coach has a big responsibility and should not delegate his main duties. The two major groups delegated to were the support team and the players. Coaches delegate some tasks to their support teams which include the assistant coach, the reserves' coach, other support team (medical staff, fitness trainers, psychologist) and scouts. Small group training, positional training, team plan and team selection were delegated to the assistant coach. The reserves' coach would be asked to share training, monitor reserves, and to contribute to team planning and reserves' replacement. Other support team members were delegated to assist in player development, injuries, rehabilitation, fitness training and out of form players. Coaches asked their scouts to focus on junior talent, new signings and the analysis of other teams' tactics. Among team members, the coaches delegated some responsibilities to the captain, and to the senior players. They would ask the captain to take care of team discipline, leadership on the pitch, to remind players of their duties and to managing conflict between players. When delegating to senior players, the coaches mentioned solving problems, supporting junior players, and managing conflict between players. The coaches also stated they asked players to

encourage each other to do extra training, to help to resolve their problems, and to learn from each other and to make change during a game.

Interaction Between Delegating and Other Specific Behaviours.

Consulting links directly to delegating. The interaction between the coach and his assistant, the support team, scouts, captain and senior players helps in discussing ideas and methods for training which in turn helps in delegating to the assistant coach, other support team, captain and senior players strategies to use on specific players. This helps the coach and the players which improve team performance.

Significant Other Factors affecting Coaches Reaching Their Delegating Potential.

Most coaches said that they are happy with few delegations for minor issues and when they do delegate they carefully choose to whom they delegate. Coaches seem to delegate only minor duties and it is unlikely that they will delegate major duties.

An example of a coach not delegating very much and only delegating specific things to his captain, or senior players, assistant coach or reserves coach is shown here:

I don't delegate that much, in terms I wouldn't say to a player "you take the warm up". I might say to some of my senior players, "Right, just keep your eye on this while I just talk to so-and-so". Other than that I don't delegate all that much work, sometimes I use the assistant coach or the reserve team coach, if they're available to do some things within the training ... Because as a coach you have a big responsibility. and I think you can only delegate so much, but if I do, I just make use of my senior players.

Coach B.

Another example on how a coach delegates to players to achieve their own goals is declared here:

yeah, I encourage my players to set up their own personal goals which should contribute to the team goals. These individual goals are to help the players improve and the mostly fitness oriented goals. So through goal setting, yeah, I try to help them to break their goals down and help them to achieve those things through communication, extra practice and things like that; and start pointing them in the right direction probably that's about all.

Coach B.

Figure 17 presents a summary for the themes, interactions and the significant other factors preventing coaches from achieving to their potential for delegating.

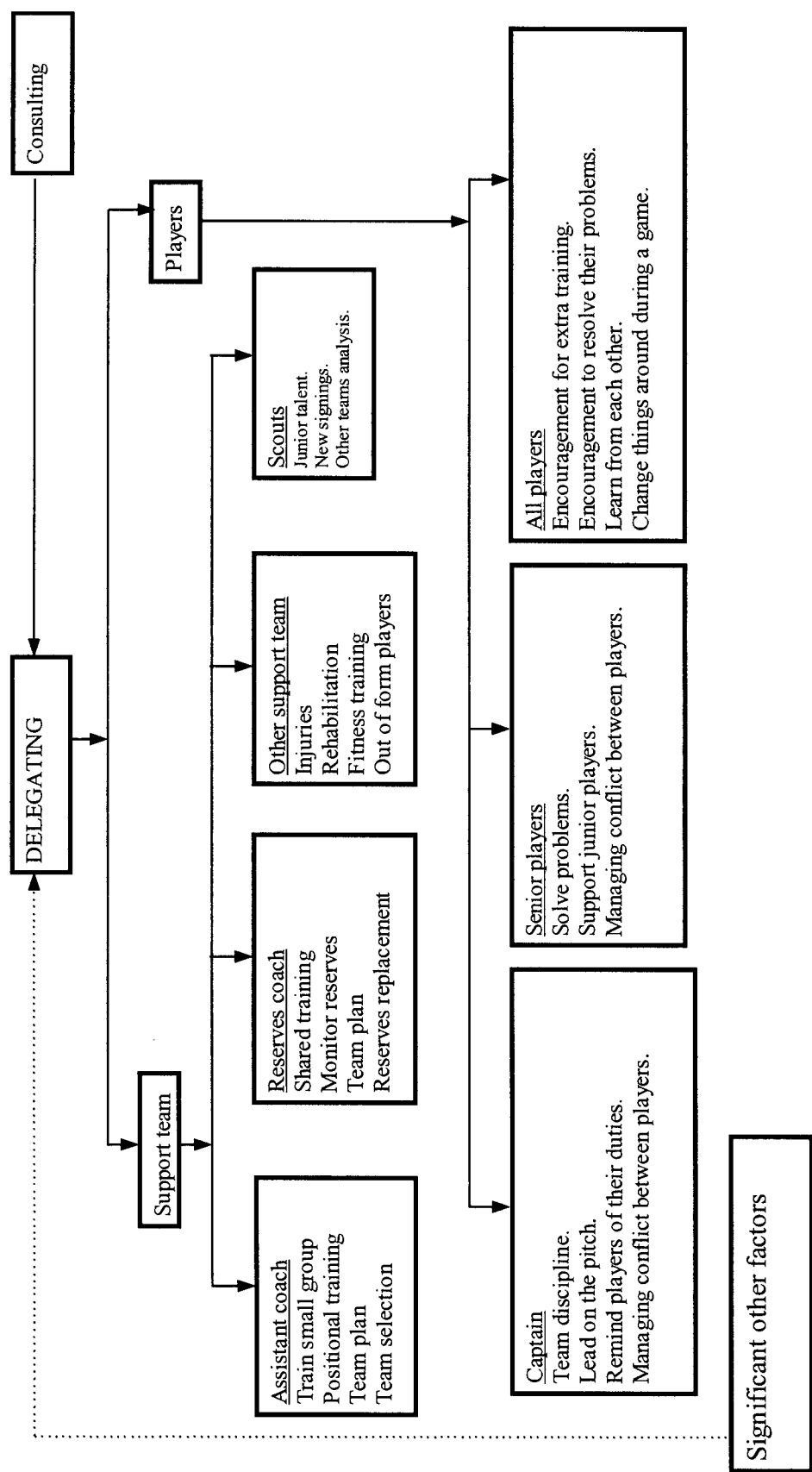


Figure 17. Delegating Model.

Motivating and Inspiring.

Emerging Themes for Motivating and Inspiring.

Motivating and inspiring is, according to most coaches, an important part of the coaching process. Two major themes emerged for motivating and inspiring and these were training and games. Coaches listed several actions which they used to motivate and inspire players during training. These included setting goals for players, writing these down in the dressing room, changing goals when players had achieved them, using competitive fitness work, using competitive games in training, setting up challenges between the goalkeeper and the striker, setting up challenges between the midfielder and defenders, encouraging juniors, new players and loners to become part of the team, encouraging out of form and injured players to get back into the team, using motivational pictures in change rooms and using of famous quotations to encourage team work. While in games coaches highlighted the importance of motivating their teams by using records of previous game results, checking out the opposing team history and sharing these facts, countering negative comments in the media and asking players to challenge them, appealing to players' pride, and the joy of winning and achieving something new, using the crowd factor in home and away games, raising self-image and personal satisfaction, and focusing on apprehensive players.

An example of the coaches motivating and inspiring is expressed here by one of the coaches:

I often work with different motivational pictures (posters), these pictures usually contain action shots of groups of people working together to achieve

a common goal. An example could be a picture of a large orchestra where the result depends on every musician contributing to the end result. I compare this to a team of soccer players where every player must contribute where a satisfactory team performance is to gain teamwork. Then I say ask the players what can we learn from this example and everyone agrees that the value of the team is more than the sum of all individual experts. If you have one man in this orchestra who does a wrong thing, the whole performance is destroyed and the people pay a lot of money to see the symphonic orchestra.

Coach A.

Interaction Between Motivating and Inspiring and Other Specific Behaviours.

Motivating and inspiring is directly related to managing conflict and team building, planning and organising, problem solving, monitoring and supporting. Motivating and inspiring and managing conflict and team building, planning and organising, problem solving were mutually interactive. For example, the coach uses team building strategies to keep the team motivated, and uses different motivational methods to encourage and sustain team building. While the interaction between monitoring and supporting helps the coaches to motivate the players. For example, monitoring players help in identifying players needs and these needs could be improved by using motivational methods. Also supporting players who are experiencing certain problems would improve their motivation.

Significant Other Factors Affecting Coaches Reaching Their Motivating and Inspiring Potential.

Coaches listed the following significant other factors affecting them reaching their motivating and inspiring potential:

1. It was very difficult to motivate players against weak teams.
2. There were huge individual differences in players' levels of motivation.
3. Players often need to find their own way of motivating themselves especially if they are playing in a semi professional or part time league.

An example of the individual differences between players' motivation is made provided below:

There is team motivating or there is just motivating people who you think need motivating. Some people don't need motivating, believe it or not. They turn up and you know they want to win so you don't have a problem with them but the problem is getting the other ones onto the same wave length as them and again I think that's man management and just how you do it.

Coach C.

An example of the difficulty of motivating the team when playing against a weaker side is revealed here by one of the coaches:

When I was at B... (third division club in England), this would be in ..., third round of the FA Cup, we got drawn against M... (one of the best clubs in England), M ... of course were 1st division then full of Internationals and we

get drawn against them in the FA Cup. We actually, won the game 2-nil so we knocked M... out and I would say that day not one person would need any motivating, you don't need motivating for that because you played M..., you are in the spotlight the cameras are there, the press were there and I think our next game was away from home at somewhere like S... (third division club in England), and we lost. So maybe we needed motivating for that game, we certainly didn't need it for the M... game but we beat them and I think you think to yourself we have beaten M... now what's S..., we should be beating them but of course we didn't.

Coach C.

Figure 18 presents a summary for the themes, interactions and the significant other factors preventing coaches from achieving to their potential for motivating.

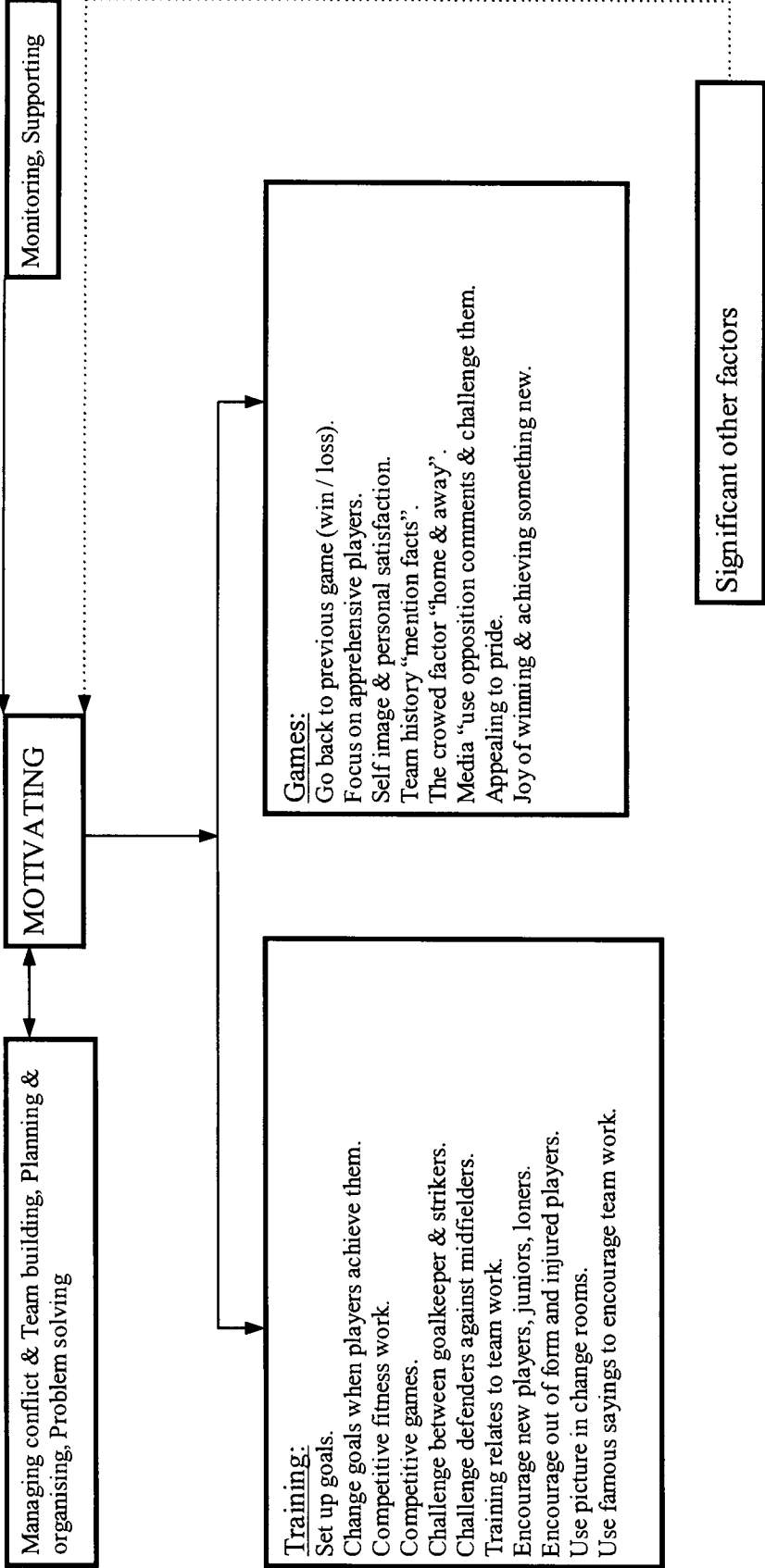


Figure 18. Motivating and Inspiring Model.

Supporting

Emerging Themes for Supporting.

Two major categories of supporting individual players and supporting the team as a unit were seen as integral to a coach's role (see Figure 19).

Opportunities to support individual players depended on each player's situation, such as whether there were injured players, junior players, out-of-form players, players with personal problems or players in good form. On the other hand, situation where the required support were when they lost a game or when playing a difficult game.

When the coaches support the injured players, they encouraged them to keep going, attended physiotherapist sessions with them, designed special training sessions, showed sympathy and support immediately after the injury, and kept checking player's progress. In supporting junior players, who play in the first team, coaches provided special care such as making sure they are fitting well within the team and gave them extra support, encouraged seniors to support juniors, be friendly with them, and got to know them, consoled and advised them, and built their confidence by not blaming them for team mistakes. When supporting out-of-form players, coaches showed their friendly side, were patient, offered extra training, showed care and sympathy, offered the chance to play in games, and tried to build their self-confidence. In supporting players with their personal problems, coaches were approachable and helpful but did not get too involved. When supporting players in

good form, coaches focused on advancing them to higher level, directing them to professionals, and helping them to improve more.

After losing a game, most coaches preferred to wait for the next training session to fix problems rather than offer immediate support and address the outcome. They used positive language, focused on positive points in the game and worked on bad points in training. When teams were experiencing a difficult game, the coaches' support included mental preparation, focusing on the teams' own performance rather than that of the opposition, and giving the team encouragement and support to build their confidence.

The following example demonstrates how one of the coaches described his support for junior players:

If a game goes the wrong way, the captain and the most experienced players are the players I criticise. I don't criticise the youngsters, the 18, 19, 20-year-old boys, they have to play and they have to give 150% and I don't criticise them if they make mistakes, I try to support them as much as I can. If they have a good performance if they have discipline, if they follow the way, then I don't criticise, I criticise just my captain and two or three leaders. They are the hardest criticised players in my team. If I have a problem then, I criticise the seniors and the veterans in my team because only these players can change a game, not the youngster, that's my way. I know a lot of young coaches criticise the youngsters because they are afraid to attack the established players, because they believe if they attack established players then there is trouble in the team, but I attack established players and the youngsters they should follow. It means I have a good hierarchy in my team.

Coach A.

Interaction Between Supporting and Other Specific Behaviours.

The coaches showed that supporting is directly related to the following specific behaviours: consulting, networking, motivation, managing conflict and team building and problem solving. The coaches mentioned that consulting and networking help the coach in supporting the players. While supporting the players it helps the coaches in motivating the players, managing the conflict and team building and problem solving.

Significant Other Factors Affecting Coaches Reaching Their Supporting Potential.

The significant other factors for supporting were:

1. Coaches want to keep hold of their best players, but at the same time they need to support them to go overseas and play at a higher level.
2. Coaches like to support players having personal problems, but they need to do so without getting too involved.

An example of the coach support to injured players is outlined here by coach K who starts by decalrying:

If you are employed to manage a team, if you are employed to be a leader of a group, when the member of your group is in danger, or having any problem, it's your duty. It's not once or twice, I been getting cars or, day care for a kid,

or whatever, financial support or getting hospital for someone, and get them to Europe.

Continuing on he stated:

There are so many things happened... For example, I had a goalkeeper by name of J, And he was in the National team, and in one single tackle, his knee was off, he was completely distraught, and his marriage was on the brink ... He was saying "I'm not going to be anymore a goalkeeper, I'm finished" and so on. They operated and he could not walk. What I done, I said, "You are not going to recover that way". So I took him to a physio and we started that day for the next four months, I was working with him. And then ... after four months he was back and he played in the National team again. Similar thing happened with JW, and I helped him get back completely by organising everyday session, special session

Coach K.

Figure 19 presents a summary for the themes, interactions and the significant other factors preventing coaches from achieving to their potential for supporting.

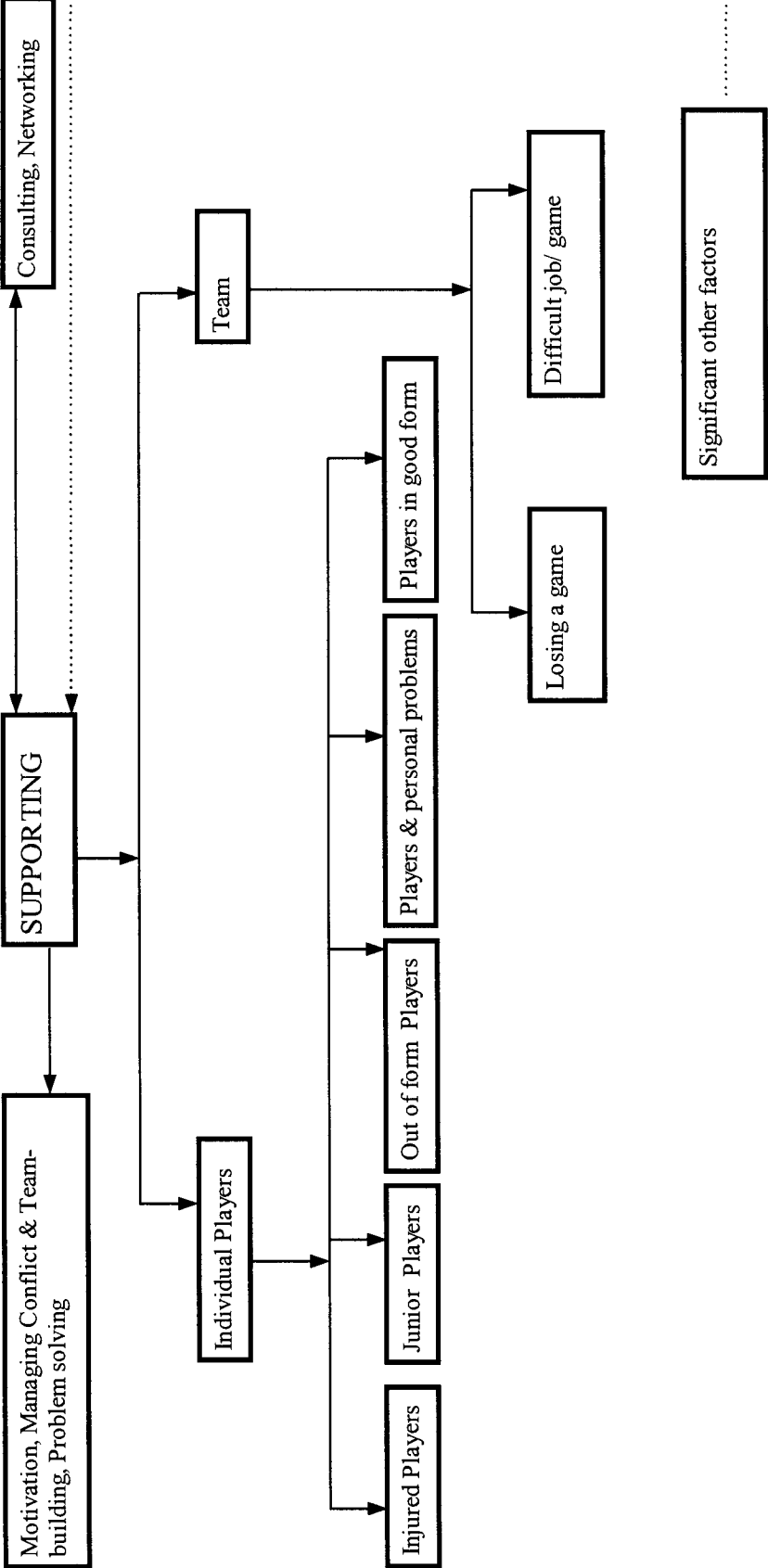


Figure 19. Supporting Model.

Recognising

Emerging Themes for Recognising.

The major categories for recognising were praise, awards, ceremonies and recommendations. For praise the coaches demonstrated the following themes: verbal praise to players and praising players in the press. Verbal praise included praising players on one on one basis and praising players in a team meeting. Praising players in the press included praising them in interviews and comments on television, radio and newspapers. For awards the coaches stated: certificates of recognition, pictures of a player in a game or at training, an article about the player in the club's newspaper. The coaches also highlighted giving a trophy, recognising a player by naming him "man of the match" and recognition by giving the "man of the month" award. Other rewards or recognition of good performance include giving players a holiday and offering them a bonus. Recognition can also be included in an end of year function. The following themes emerged from the data: recognition for the best and fairest, recognition for the most improved player, recognition for the best junior player and recognition for player of the year. Recognition can also come in the form of recommendations such as recommending players for a higher level such as playing in the state team, playing in the National Soccer League (NSL) and playing in Europe.

Interaction Between Recognising and Other Specific Behaviours.

Recognising is directly related to rewarding, monitoring and networking. The coaches said that monitoring and networking helps the coach in giving recognition for players' efforts. An essential part of recognising is rewarding. Networking between the coach and other coaches helps to recognise player's effort which could help players to play at a higher level.

Significant Other Factors Affecting Coaches Reaching Their Recognising Potential.

Recognising has two significant other factors:

1. Some players might misinterpret the recognition they receive from the coach.
2. The West Australian Premier League does not have enough media coverage and crowd support to be able to use media coverage as a means of recognition.

An example of a coach's recognition to his players is described here:

Well, the main thing I do then is I probably encourage them as a group, immediately after the game, if they've done well then I probably go and talk to them as individuals and tell them 'yeah, you did well today, this, that and the other' and probably talk to them about the good things that they've done in

the game. 'Do you remember, you three, you know that shot and the keeper saved it' so you know, you encourage the good things, when you talk to them about what they've done in the game, as I say, as a group then individually and then again on Tuesday, 'hey, we played well on the weekend, let's go out and have some fun games, don't need to talk about it'. So, you tend to recognise.

Coach B.

Another example of the coach recognition to his players and how the coach used monitoring and his own network to recognise the players and reward them for their hard work by helping them to advance to a higher level is explained here by coach D, who begins by saying:

If I see there has been a marked improvement in the player and that's obviously if you have a team for three or four years, I keep records and if I seen an improvement, then I would pull the player aside and make sure I let him know that we planned to do this, do this, do that. You have achieved all these aims, give him a pat on the back but then also say you keep going, there's going to be something at the end of the tunnel which could be like selection in an Australian team and that's like then setting him another goal that if he keeps working and he keeps improving at that rate then I would be putting him forward and that's a coach's responsibility to be nominating kids for those sort of positions.

He followed this immediately with a detailed explanation on how his network helped take his players to a higher level:

It's very important that you know the coaches in the right places as well. I will give you an example, ... I had three boys V, T and M. They were in my state under 13's 14's 15's team, they played in my under 18 team when they were 15. I then picked them in the state senior team when they were 17. I

then rang the national coach up and said: “Hey you don't come to Perth, you never come to see what we have”. I said to him we have these three players that I think they are better than kids you've got. Have a look at them. We played an overseas team, we beat them. They came over and watched the game. They then were selected and played in the World Youth Cup and V, M and T played in every game and T scored the winner against U in the quarterfinals. He ended up getting a contract in England for it. So what I am getting at is, unless you have the networks of coaches and you have the ability to speak to them, it is very difficult to recognise players. So, what I am getting at, that's one way of recognising achievement is being able to put forward a fella who is showing a lot of improvement to the national selectors and if you then get selected then it's up to the player to continue to work hard.

Coach D.

Therefore, there is a significant link between the behaviours of recognising and rewarding, where the former is a pre cursor to rewarding the players.

Figure 20 presents a summary for the themes, interactions and the significant other factors preventing coaches from achieving to their potential for recognising.

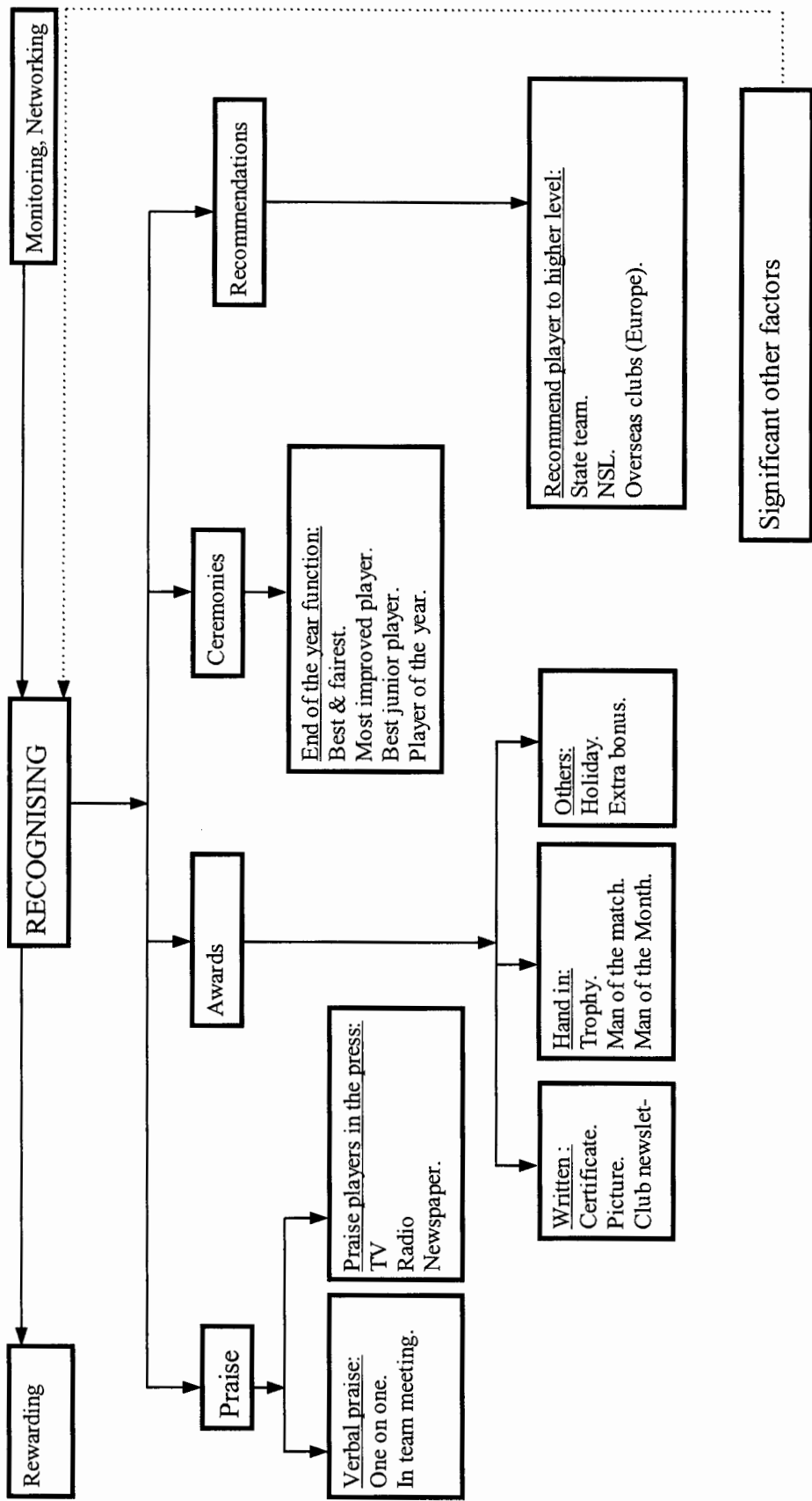


Figure 20. Recognising Model.

Rewarding.

Emerging Themes for Rewarding.

Rewarding the players is a common behaviour for coaches. However, some coaches do not believe in rewarding too much at the elite level because it is a player's job to perform well. They explained that, these days, players at an elite level receive a lot of rewards from the media and fans and that should be enough for them. As shown in Figure 21, the major categories for this behaviour were financial rewards, media and crowd, sponsors rewards, social events and end of year rewards. For example, in financial rewards a player might get increased pay as an incentive for winning games, or a bonus, or better contract the next year. Media and crowd awards included reports in the media, player's action photos, crowd acknowledgement for the player, player interviews on radio, and player and game images on television. Sponsors also offered rewards such as offering vouchers to players, offering bonuses, offering a man of the match reward and a man of the month reward. Among the social events rewards included inviting players and their families for a dinner, inviting players and their families to a barbeque or simply having a barbeque after training on a monthly basis, inviting the players and their families to a club party or function. End of the year rewards included players' nomination for end of year rewards, for example, the best and fairest reward, the most improved player, the best junior player and the player of the year.

Interaction Between Rewarding and Other Specific Behaviours.

Rewarding is directly related to planning and organising, recognising and monitoring. Monitoring and recognising helps the coach in rewarding players. While rewarding helps the coach in planning and organising. The benefits of rewarding the players helps them to be highly motivated and that interacts with planning in terms of the coach adjusting the plans accordingly to the players positive respond to rewarding.

Significant Other Factors Affecting Coaches Reaching Their Rewarding Potential.

Significant other factors perceived by coaches and preventing them from achieving their potential in rewarding were:

1. Lack of financial resources for the part time, semi professional level.
2. At elite level there are too many rewards as it is part of the players' job to perform well.
3. Lack of opportunity for coach input in contracts. Most coaches do not have a say in players' contracts.

An example of the coach rewarding his players is revealed here:

In a club you have the club's best and fairest which can be quite lucrative. If he's playing well he gets rewarded in that regard. If he's in the top three players in the club the clubs sometimes have incentive bonuses that the best player or the top three get a bonus and that's an incentive for the players to work hard. Also there might be a coach's award for most improved player and those are the sort of things that you would aim your players for ... but anyone that shows some sort of improvement, the way I would see it if I was handling the contracts or had some sort of input into it, any player that showed a marked improvement would be offered a better contract the next time and that's how you would then create a sort of stability in your club and how players would go on to a higher wage. If performance indicators go up then I would expect that their contracts would go up accordingly.

Coach D.

Figure 21 presents a summary for the themes, interactions and the significant other factors preventing coaches from achieving to their potential for rewarding.

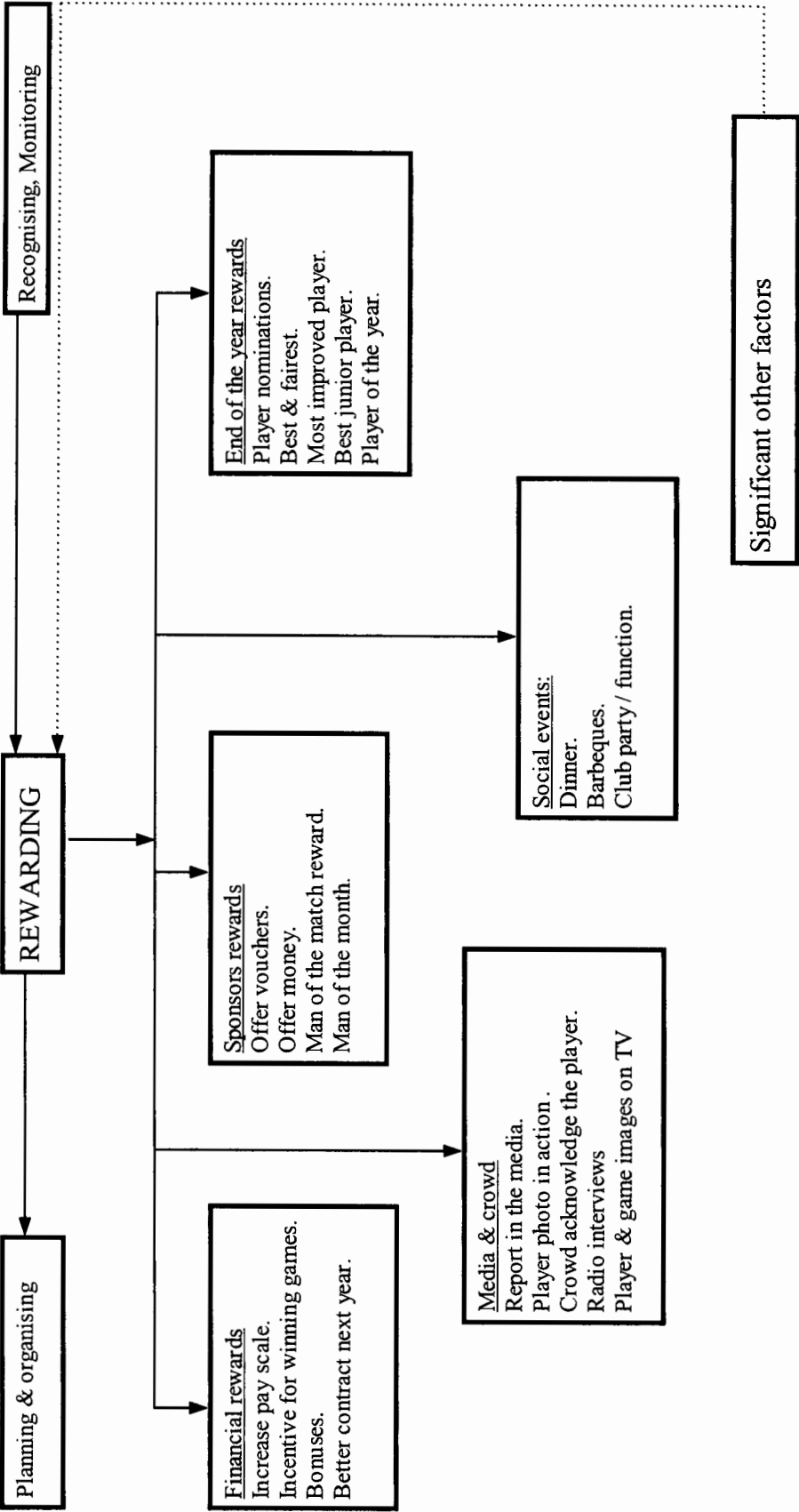


Figure 21. Rewarding Model.

Representing

Although representing was raised by 2 international coaches, both incidents required significant input from the coaches to act on behalf of the players. Therefore future research in sport should include representing for future investigations. The researcher found that representing was mentioned as specific behaviour in early research by Yukl & Nemeroff (1979) and Yukl (1981). However, representing has been removed from Yukl's the current taxonomy (Yukl, 1989, 1994, 2002). In sport coaching representing occurs in crisis situations and it is mostly seen as part of supporting. However, after analysing the data representing seems to be a specific behaviour which depends on the coaches own network and monitoring.

The following are the 2 examples for representing which came to light throughout the coding process and data analysis:

One of my young players was having lots of problems home with his mum. He was very upset after his parents separated. His father moved interstate and the kid stayed with his mum. He never listens to his mum and got used in getting in trouble even with police. One night his mum called me and asked me if I could offer any help for him. So I made some personal contacts and went and bail him out.

Coach K.

Another example on representing is:

While I was coaching at ... my team won the national championship. The players were promised extra incentives and better contracts for next season. When the new season started the club administration did not deliver any of its promises. The players were very stressed about this and they started talking

about it in the change rooms, training and it affected all our preseason. I realised that early because I know my players very well. So I called the captain and three senior players and said “ Lads what is the deal? ”. They discussed it with me and told me that they are going on strike because the club is not listening to them. What I’ve done is I picked up the phone and talked to the president of the club straight away and he was not informed. So when I went back to the players they asked me to represent them in a meeting with the club administration. Their message was clear “deliver your promises or we are going on strike”. So I took it to the administration with the president’s support who I knew very well and used my good relationships with both sides and negotiated a compromise for both sides. We actually won the championship back to back.

Coach G.

As previously mentioned representing was significant therefore it is included in the findings. It shows an interaction between monitoring, networking and supporting.

In the next section the background to the presentation of a conceptual model of the overall interaction of the 15 specific leadership behaviours is presented.

Conceptual Model of the Interaction Between the 15 Specific Behaviours

The objective of grounded theory is to not only describe categories but to build up conceptual links between concepts (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). The interaction between the specific behaviours has lead to the development of a conceptual model which clarified the links between different categories. These links are presented in different colours to help understand this complex interaction in the sporting environment. These dynamic relationships are identified in Figure 22.

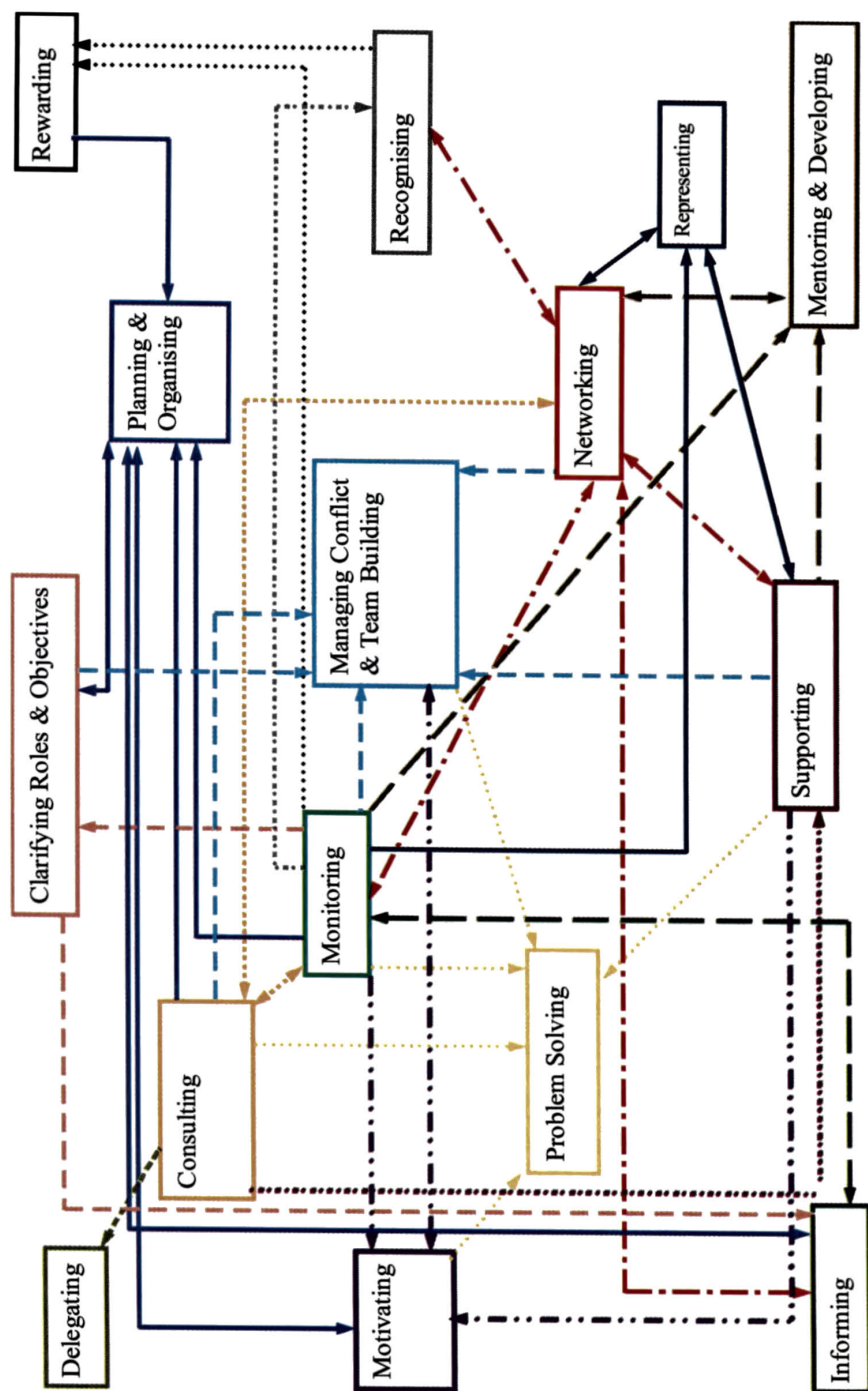


Figure 22. Conceptual Model of the Interaction Between the 15 Specific Behaviours.

These interactions among the specific behaviours have the benefit of being “grounded” in coaches’ experiences. Therefore a better understanding can be gained based on practical knowledge of coaches. For instance, these interactions explain how the coaches solve a problem and what other behaviours helped them to do so.

This “grounded” interaction is demonstrated by quotes from the expert coaches. An example of the interaction between monitoring, consulting, planning and delegating as it emerged from the interviews is demonstrated in the following quote:

Every week I ask my players about how they are feeling with the training, what do they think. It's good they are feeling well physically, should we work a little bit harder or not. If they need to train harder I modify my plans and if we are say over training I might give them a day off or reduce the intensity of the physical side of the training. I don't ask the players about my decisions. I ask them for training and sometimes for travelling, what would you like to eat? What movie you would like to watch? or such things. Other than that I don't consult too much the players. You need one man, my coach assistant ... we talk about everything and we talk about our mistakes, which we made and that is it, nothing more.

Coach A

In this quote it is obvious that the coach monitors his players if they are overtraining by asking them for feedback on the physical side of training and then adjusts his plans accordingly. The coach also explains how he consults with his assistant coach and generates rapport with the players by talking about topics other than soccer. For example, consulting with the players on what movies they like to watch during

travel. As shown in Figure 22 there is a link between monitoring and planning and a link between consulting and delegating.

Another example of the interaction is between networking, consulting and mentoring and developing which is illustrated here:

We keep contact. I am a member of the ... Coach Association. We have a yearly international coaching conference in ... Every year I used to go to this conference and we talk about new ideas about the results of the Euro, results about Olympics, results about the world cup and about soccer. We like to share certain information about the latest in the game and I read just ... special soccer newspapers about the new results of international soccer and I know all the results from the internet and I have phone calls every week with my friends ... coaches, we discuss the latest information, we ask each other what do you think of this and that, da da da , we are in touch on the phone on regular basis, or they will be here for a holiday. Very close contacts. I am not isolated.

Coach A

In this quote the coach uses his own network to help him in as consulting and mentoring and developing. This is demonstrated by the coach's consultation with his own network of other coaches and how he gets feedback or advice from them on the latest information to help him keep up to date. Also the coaches own network by being a member of certain coaching association helps him in his mentoring and developing. This is shown in Figure 22 in a link between networking and consulting and also between networking and mentoring and developing.

The interactions between the 15 specific leadership behaviours are presented from the highest to the lowest. As seen in Appendix I 1, monitoring has the most interactions between the specific behaviours. These involved interactions between 12 other specific behaviours of consulting, planning and organising, recognising, clarifying roles and objectives, rewarding, managing conflict and team building, networking, informing, problem solving, motivating and representing. So how do the coaches use monitoring with interactions of other specific behaviours?

The coach uses central and perimeter monitoring to gather information in order to do certain things for the team. The researcher named Yukl's (1989, 1994, 2002) internal and external monitoring central and perimeter monitoring in the qualitative study. The same principal was applied for internal and external networking which is called central and perimeter networking. After gathering the information he might consult with the assistant coach, the captain, club committee or others. Monitoring is very useful for establishing the team plans. It also helps to check on the planning and readjust plans if there is a need for that. Monitoring can be used to clarify players' roles and objectives. An example of this would be when the coach makes a positional change for a player, he needs to use monitoring to help him clarify that change to the same player and the rest of the team. When the coach is considering rewarding players central monitoring is very important. The coaches' ability in monitoring players' performance will help in managing conflict and team building. Perimeter and central monitoring would help the coach to share important information with other coaches and other people outside the club. This is done in association with the coaches' central or perimeter network. In other words the coaches network helps him in his central or perimeter monitoring. The coach uses monitoring before informing

his players or support team or club committee with specific information. Monitoring is very important in problem solving and helps in motivating players. Finally, monitoring helps in representing if needed.

Networking, consulting and managing conflict and team building have the second highest interactions amongst other specific behaviours; they have 8 interactions for each one of them. The researcher will report these specific behaviours in the following order: networking, consulting and managing conflict and team building and representing. The interaction between networking and the other behaviours is presented in Appendix I 2.

Networking is very important for the coaches to help them in their work. Networking has the second highest interactions between the specific behaviours. These involved interactions between seven other specific behaviours: monitoring, managing conflict and team building, consulting, recognising, mentoring and developing, supporting and informing. The coaches' own network helps them in monitoring their own teams and also the other teams. Networking helps in managing conflict and team building. Networking and consulting have mutual interaction as the coaches use their network to consult on certain issues especially coaches who are not competing in the same league. There is certain degree of information coaches can share if they are competing in the same league. Central networking helps in recognising individual efforts. Networking and mentoring have mutual interaction in terms of coaches using their network to update their knowledge and to develop their own players in recommending them to play at higher level or assisting them to make an important career movement. Networking and supporting have a mutual interaction in terms of

coaches using their own network to support their players. An example of this would be using the media reports or interviews to support their players. Networking and informing have a mutual interaction in terms of the coaches using their central and perimeter network to help them when informing.

Consulting emerged as very important for the coaches. As mentioned previously it has seven interactions with other categories: planning and organising, conflict management and team building, networking, monitoring, problem solving, supporting, and delegating. The coach consults with the club committee and his support team when planning for the season. The coach might consult with his captain or senior players to solve a conflict between two players. As mentioned before networking and consulting have a mutual interaction between them. Monitoring whether it is central or perimeter has a mutual interaction with consulting. Consulting helps the coach in problem solving; the coach consults with his assistant or others in solving team problems. The interaction between consulting and the other behaviours is presented in Appendix I 3.

Managing conflict and team building has interactions with seven other behaviours other categories: monitoring, clarifying roles and objectives, consulting, networking, motivating, supporting and problem solving. Central monitoring helps the coach in managing conflict and team building. Central and perimeter monitoring helps the coach in clarifying players' roles and objectives. Consulting also helps the coach in managing conflict and team building. The coaches own network helps them in managing conflict and team building. There is a mutual interaction between motivating and managing conflict and team building. That means the coaches, use

their motivational abilities in managing conflict and team building. Also the coach benefits from team building by having less conflict between the players. The coach's support for his players helps in managing conflict and team building. Managing conflict and team building helps in problem solving. The interaction between managing conflict and team building and the other behaviours is presented in Appendix I 4.

Supporting has seven interactions with the following specific behaviours: mentoring and developing, networking, managing conflict and team building, problem solving, motivating and consulting. The coaches support for their players helps in mentoring and developing individual players and as a consequence team performance. The coaches' central and perimeter network helps them in providing support for their team. The coaches' support for their players helps in managing conflict and team building. The coaches' support for their individual players and the team helps in problem solving. The coaches extra support for injured players for example could help in motivating them to recover. The coaches might use consulting with others in supporting his players when they need to. Representing could be an interaction with supporting; the occasion where several coaches mentioned representing interacting with supporting of their players indicated the importance of coaches needing to undertake the multiple roles when a difficult situation or incident arose that demanded this type of behaviour from the coaches. The coaches mentioned representing the players and their parents on important occasions helped offering extra support for their players. The interaction between supporting and the other behaviours is presented in Appendix I 5.

Planning and organising has 6 interactions with other specific behaviours: motivating, clarifying roles and objectives, rewarding, monitoring and consulting. Motivating players is used as part of planning in almost any training session where the coaches use some fun games or challenging activities to help in planning. In planning training sessions, especially functional training, the coach needs to consider clarifying roles and objectives of each player's role in the team. Rewarding is considered when planning and organising the season by the coach. Monitoring helps the coach in planning and in checking to see if the plan needs adjusting according to the goals. Consulting with the club committee, support team and others helps in planning and organising. The interaction between planning and organising and the other behaviours is presented in Appendix I 6.

Motivating also had five interactions with other specific behaviours, these were: planning and organising, monitoring, managing conflict and team building, supporting and problem solving. All of these interactions have been explained before except for the interaction between problem solving and motivating. The coach motivates the team which helps in having fewer problems and that helps in establishing a highly motivated team. The interaction between motivating and inspiring and the other behaviours is presented in Appendix I 7.

Problem solving also had 5 interactions with other specific behaviours, these were: consulting, monitoring, motivating, managing conflict and team building, and supporting. The coach consults with the assistant coach and the team captain in order to find solutions for the problems. The coach uses central and/or perimeter monitoring to gather information to help him in solving the problem. The coaches'

ability to motivate the team and to solve the problems helps in creating a healthy team environment with fewer problems and manages to keep the team highly motivated. The coaches' capability of managing conflict and team building helps in problem solving. The last interaction for problem solving is the coaches' support to their players, which means the coach offers support to his players when they need it and that helps in solving problems. The interaction between problem solving and the other behaviours is presented in Appendix I 8.

Clarifying roles and objectives has 4 interactions with other specific behaviours these are: planning and organising, managing conflict and team building, informing and monitoring. All of these have been explained earlier. The interaction between clarifying roles and objectives and the other behaviours is presented in Appendix I 9.

Informing also has four interactions with other specific behaviours these were: monitoring, networking, planning and organising and clarifying roles and objectives. These interactions have been explained earlier. The interaction between informing and the other behaviours is presented in Appendix I 10.

Rewarding also had three interactions with other specific behaviours, these were: planning and organising, monitoring and recognising. The interactions between rewarding and planning and organising and monitoring have been explained earlier. Recognising players efforts helps in rewarding them. The interaction between rewarding and the other behaviours is presented in Appendix I 11.

Recognising also had three interactions with other specific behaviours, these were: monitoring, networking and rewarding. All of these interactions have been explained earlier. The interaction between recognising and developing and the other behaviours is presented in Appendix I 12.

Mentoring and developing has 3 interactions with other specific behaviours these were: networking, mentoring and supporting. All of these have been explained before. The interaction between mentoring and the other behaviours is presented in Appendix I 13.

Representing has 3 interactions with other specific behaviours: monitoring, supporting and networking. The interaction between delegating and the other behaviours is presented in Appendix I 14.

Delegating has one interaction with consulting as the coaches might consult with their assistant coach, captain or senior players before they delegate any task for them. The interaction between delegating and the other behaviours is presented in Appendix I 5.

The mutual interaction between two behaviours means that the two behaviours feed each other, while the straight interaction is one way from one behaviour to the other.

The number of interactions for all the 15 specific leadership behaviour is presented in Table 28.

Table 28.

Number of Interactions for all the 15 Specific Behaviours.

No	Behaviour	Interactions
1	Monitoring	12
2	Networking	8
3	Managing Conflict and Team Building	7
4	Consulting	7
5	Supporting	7
6	Planning and organising	6
7	Motivating	5
8	Problem solving	5
9	Clarifying roles and objectives	4
10	Informing	4
11	Rewarding	3
12	Recognising	3
13	Mentoring and developing	3
14	Representing	3
15	Delegating	1

To summarise the relationship between specific behaviours and their level of interaction the following concentric diagram (Figure 23) has been designed to demonstrate the reduction in interaction as the diagram expands.

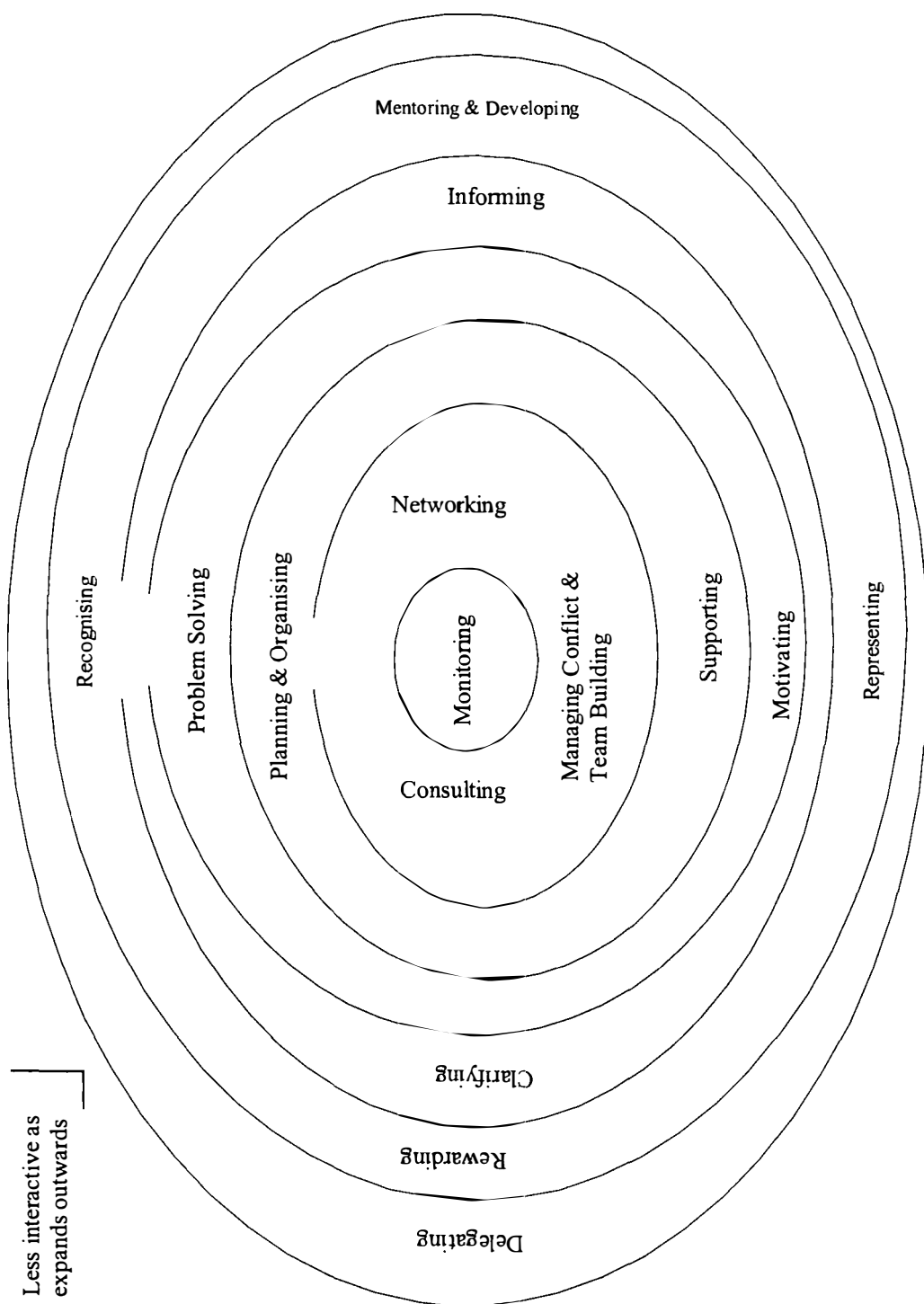


Figure 23. A Concentric Diagram of Coaching Behaviour.

The Coaches' Effective Leadership Model

Yukl (1989, 1994) developed an integrative model of effective leadership behaviour (see chapter 2) in which leader's behaviour was explained through four primary tasks. These are: (a) influencing people; (b) building relationships; (c) making decisions; and (d) giving-seeking information. Within each task there are further specific behaviours. Yukl notes the limitations of measuring managerial effectiveness because of the lack of comparable studies in the field, thus rendering it speculative. Nevertheless, he suggests that there is enough information to formulate four tasks to define certain managerial activities. Yukl stresses, however, that these tasks are mere "themes" manifested from exploratory descriptive research and that further explicit research would have to be undertaken to measure rates of managerial effectiveness. He states that the findings of the descriptive research "are still quite speculative" (Yukl, 1989, p. 67).

The objective of grounded theory is not only to describe categories but also to build up links between concepts (Strauss & Corbin, 1990, 1994; Cote et al. 1995). Conceptual models can be developed through frequent interchange between data collection and data analysis. In this study, once the empirical study of soccer expert coaches in Western Australia was completed using Yukl's (1989, 1994) model, it became evident that a new model specific to sport needed to be developed.

Considering the limitations outlined by Yukl (1989, 1994) regarding his model, it was also important to develop a new model for leadership effectiveness which is not purely speculative. Yukl's taxonomy which includes 14 specific behaviours was the

basis for this new model. The classification process for the new model is based on the both deductive and inductive analysis of all the behaviours. It was found that the coaches' quotes and emergent higher order themes and categories reflected more detailed classification for the model than Yukl's 14 behaviours. In the sports environment certain coach behaviours clustered together reflecting major new categories. This is an indication that at the highest level of team sport expert coaches have a definite and unique method of leading. The coaches effective leadership model explains coaches' leadership behaviours through five major headings. These are: (a) sharing and analysing information; (b) reinforcing positive behaviour; (c) managing challenges; (d) goal setting and (e) liaison. Each major heading has specific behaviours outlined. (See Figure 24).

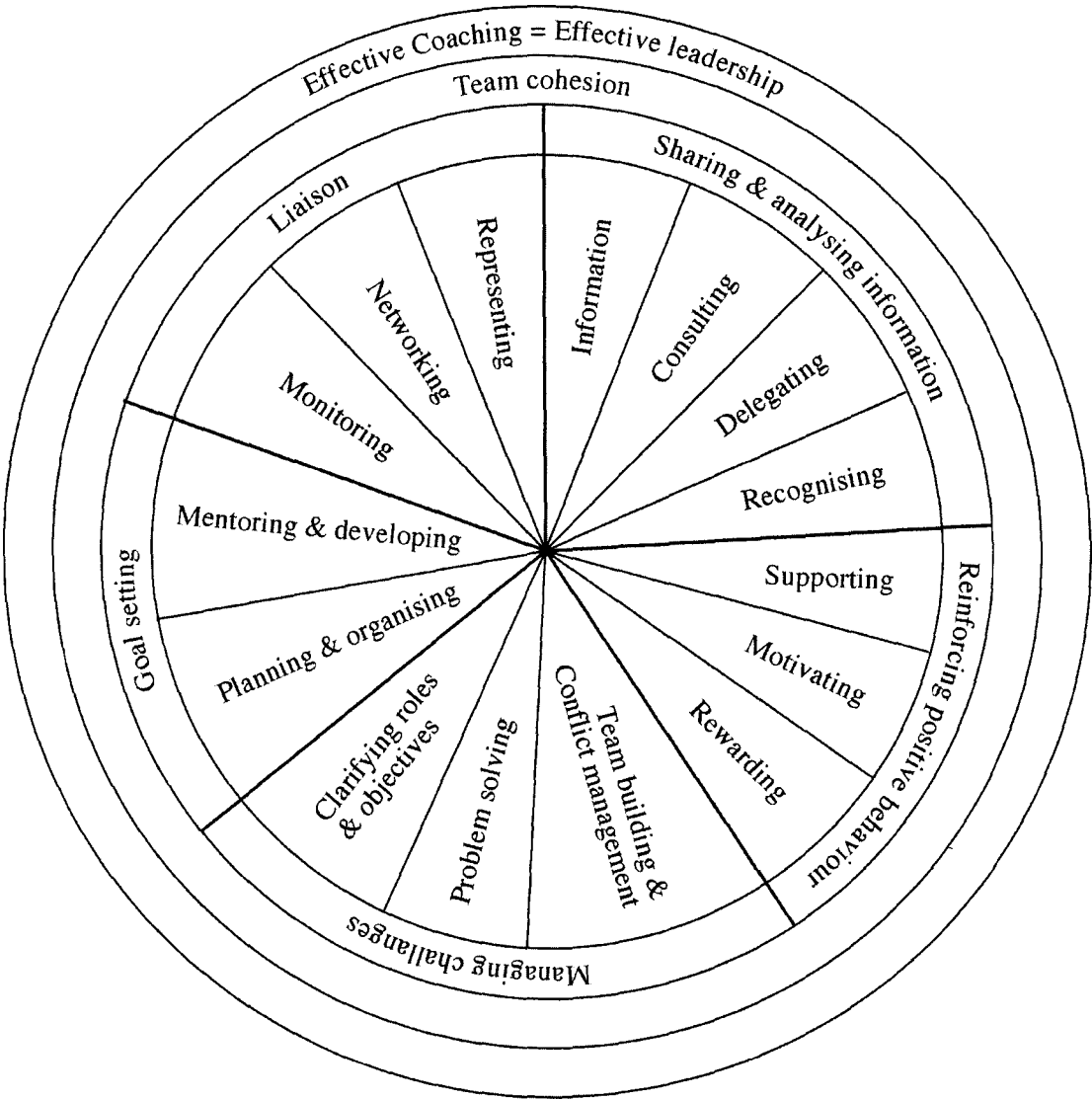


Figure 24. The Coaches Effective Leadership Model.

The initial validation of the new model is based on consensus validation of the inductive analysis process. Consensus validation is the agreement by the analysts on the final form of coding and themes development (Scanlan, Stein & Ravizza, 1989). The researcher and two experts in qualitative research verified the “construction” of the new model and agreement was reached on all aspects.

Seeking to describe what the expert coach behaviours were trying to achieve and how that linked with effective coaching and leadership, the outer circle of team cohesion was developed through a process of deductive reasoning. The researcher used a critical path analysis to validate the inclusion of the two outer circles. The two main questions were: Do all of the specific behaviours lead to team cohesion? And, Does team cohesion lead to effective coaching and subsequently effective leadership? To answer these questions the researcher followed a critical path analysis and found that all the behaviours lead to team cohesion which in turn, leads to effective coaching and subsequently to effective leadership. For example, clarifying roles and objectives, team building conflict management and problem solving led to managing challenges which then lead to team cohesion which subsequently leads to effective coaching and effective leadership. The coaches demonstrated this interaction between the specific behaviours in this study. For example, one of the coaches mentioned how he used monitoring to identify technical problems for two of his players and how, in consultation with his assistant coach, he acted and solved the problem by offering extra and positional training to his players.

This model is unique to coaching team sports. In addition to the previous investigations of the complex interaction between specific behaviours, it is hoped that these new results may also provide a useful explanation of effective leadership. Yukl (2002) acknowledges that:

It is likely that specific behaviours interact in complex ways, and that leadership effectiveness cannot be understood unless these interactions are studied. For example, monitoring is useful for discovering problems, but unless something is done to solve problems when they are discovered it will not contribute to leader effectiveness. (p. 74).

When the researcher found significant other factors preventing coaches from achieving to their potential, it became apparent that these were all negative factors which challenged the coaches' leadership effectiveness and where these factors emerged amongst the behaviours they are discussed under the heading challenges to coaches' leadership.

Major Challenges to Coaches Leadership:

After reviewing all of the significant other factors for each of the 14 specific behaviours it was necessary to group them together. The significant other factors items were clustered under headings which described and organised them into more complex themes and categories (Scanlan, Stein & Ravizza, 1989). This was done to reduce the number of the significant other factors. Six major sources of commonality emerged from this data: lack of organisation support, lack of stability, coach interaction, environmental issues, conflict of interest and motivation. This categorisation demonstrates the complexity of the demands on coaches, sport organisations and players in the pursuit of success in a sport setting.

The large number ($n = 42$) of the significant other factors for the 14 specific behaviours suggested that a further analysis was required and is presented in Figure 25.

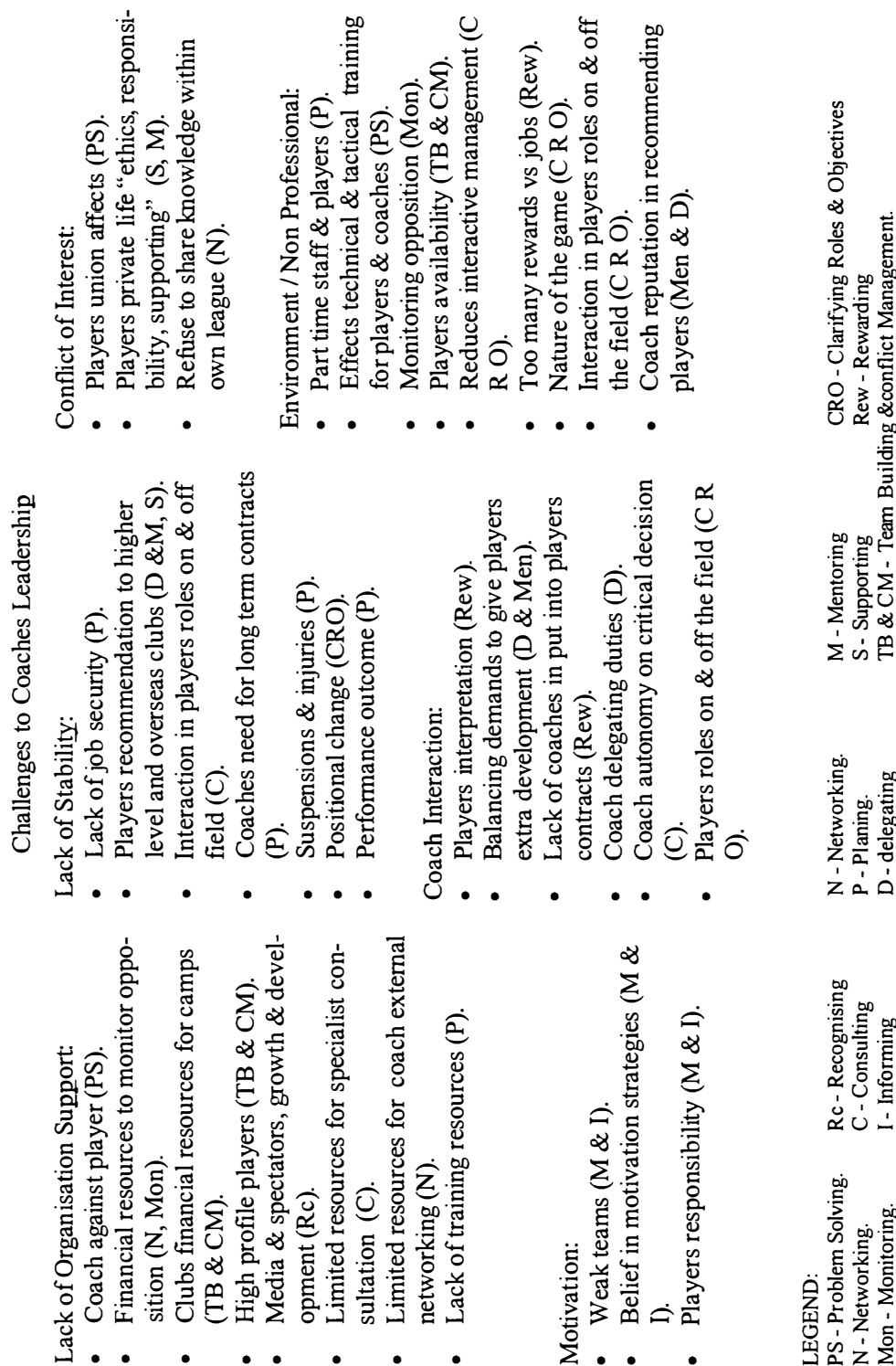


Figure 25. Overall Interaction for the Significant Other Factors.

While Yukl's taxonomy does not address 14 specific behaviours of leadership, it does not discuss the significant other factors that could impact negatively on coaches' leadership. The quality and quantity of these negative factors that emerged from the coaches in this study suggests that they be reported.

The negative factors raised further questions: what are the positive other factors the coaches have experienced in their coaching career? And how did the coaches cope with all these negative factors to become leaders at the highest level?

This suggests further analysis to find the positive other factors the coaches have experienced. The flexibility in qualitative research allowed the researcher to do this. The flexibility of using N6, also, meant easier access to the stored data and helped to re-analyse the data. After analysing all of the positive significant other factors for each of the 14 specific behaviours it was necessary to cluster them together. The positive items were clustered under headings which described and organised them into more complex themes and categories (Scanlan, Stein & Ravizza, 1989). Once again the items were organised into more complex themes and categories and clustered into sub headings (Scanlan, Stein & Ravizza, 1989). These clustered items represent common features. Six major sources of commonality emerged from this data: flexibility, opportunities, personal issues, quality work ethics, mentoring future coaches and life educators. The result of this further analysis is presented in Figure 26.

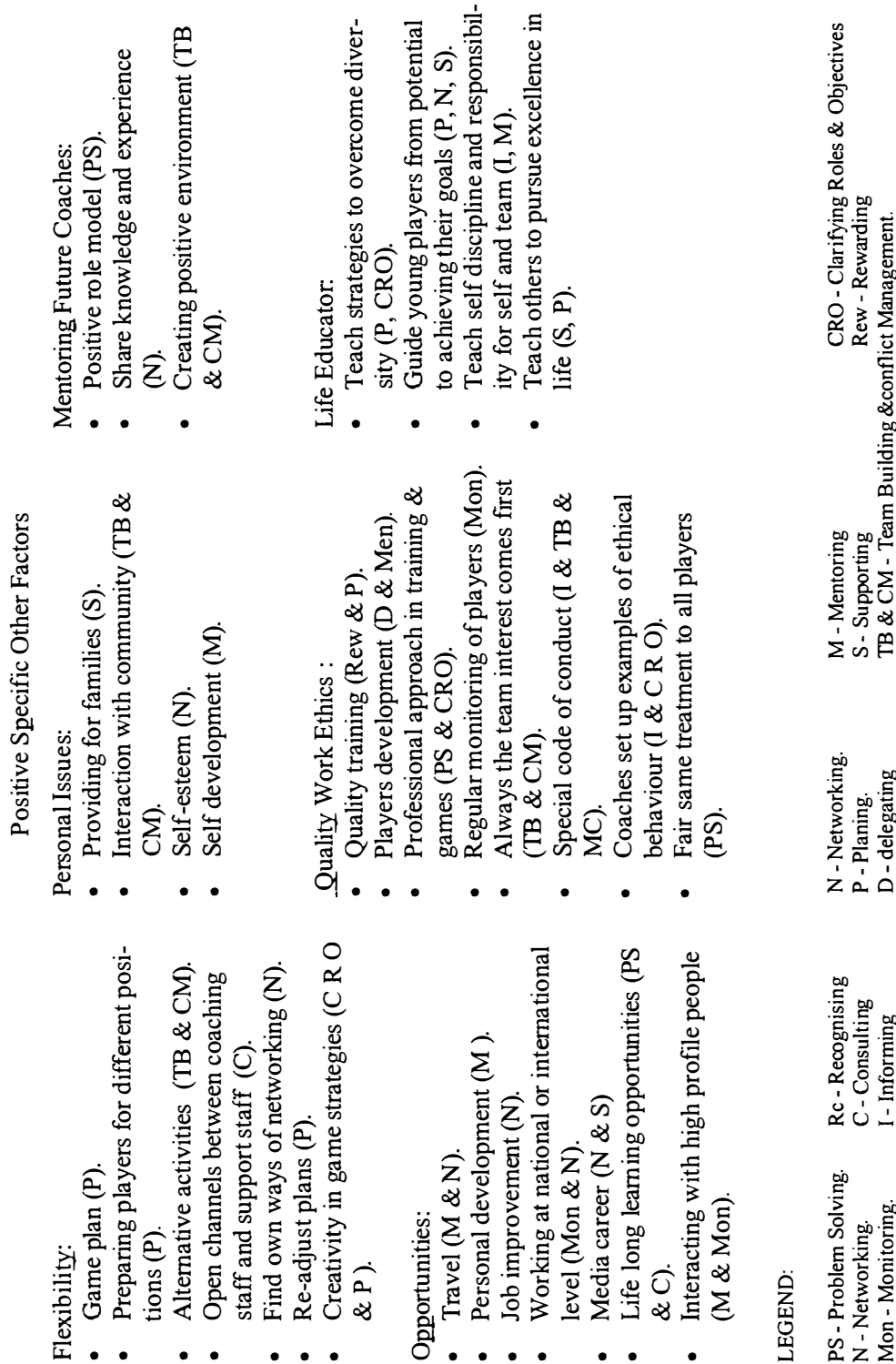


Figure 26. Positive Significant Other Factors.

The challenges to coach leadership and the positive other factors highlighted further analysis. This analysis organises the coaches methods of overcoming the challenges facing them. This can help coaches to overcome some of the current barriers to their success. After further critical path analysis, it was revealed that the coaches used certain steps in their methods of overcoming challenges. Coaches knowledge was organised into more complex themes and categories (Scanlan, Stein & Ravizza, 1989). These clustered items represent common interaction, this was based on the deductive analysis. The result of this further analysis is presented in Figure 27

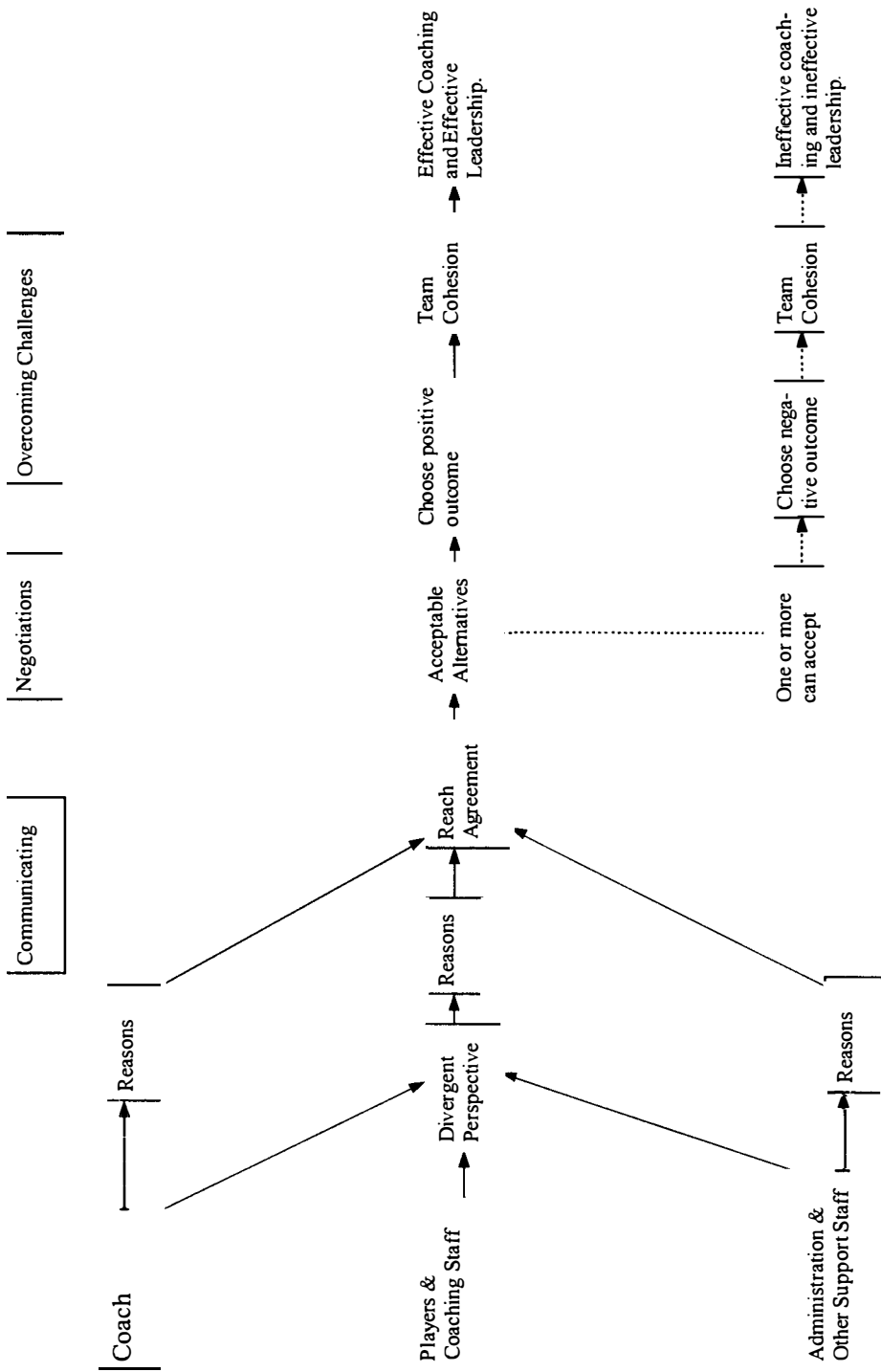


Figure 27. A Critical Path Analysis for Coaches Overcoming Challenges.

Discussion

The purpose of study two was: firstly, to gain knowledge of the experiences of expert coaches in all of the 14 specific behaviours. Secondly, to learn from the coaches the interactions between specific behaviours. Thirdly, to gain an understanding from expert coaches about significant other factors that prevents them from achieving their potential in each specific behaviour. Fourthly, to develop a summary model for coaches' knowledge and experience for each specific behaviour. Finally, to develop a conceptual model to demonstrate the complex interactions between the 14 specific behaviours.

Although there has been limited research on the coaches' leadership specific behaviours, it was important to compare the results of study two with other leadership and coaching studies. It is important to realise that because of the lack of detailed academic resources given to studying specific behaviours in coaching, it is necessary to draw and compare the results with the popular press, autobiographical and biographical text where possible.

It was noted that there was a significant consistency in the results gained from study two and those previously obtained in research performed in management and coaching. For example, the themes that emerged for all the 14 specific behaviours were similar to Yukl's (1989, 1994) definitions (see table 3) and findings and guidelines for the specific behaviours. For example, planning and organising

depended on the club needs and goals, which has a major impact on the long or short term planning. The coach checks progress according to a plan and readjusts which provides flexibility in planning. While this is unique to the sporting environment it corresponds to Yukl's definitions of planning and organising and his guidelines for managers (Yukl, 1989, 1994, 2002).

The discussion is presented in the following order: the kinds of perceptions experienced by the coaches for the 14 specific behaviours, the interactions between each of the 14 specific behaviours, the significant other factors preventing coaching from achieving their potential, the conceptual models for each of the 14 behaviours and the overall model for the interaction between the 14 specific behaviours.

The Kinds of Perceptions Experienced by The Coaches for the 14 Specific Behaviours

The results regarding all of the 14 behaviours will now be discussed to show how they emerged as a result of beginning with Yukl's (1989) taxonomy and applying it to sport.

Planning and Organising.

The themes that emerged for planning and organising were similar to Yukl's (1989, 1994) findings and guidelines for the specific behaviours. However, the further emerging themes within the behavioural category were unique and specific to the

sport context. For example, planning and organising depended on the club needs and goals, which has a major impact on the long or short term planning. The coach checks progress according to a plan and readjusts which provides flexibility in planning.

Problem Solving.

The results here provided an other example of the consistency between the results of this study and Yukl's work on the 14 specific behaviours. Yukl (1994) stated that "problem solving involves identifying work-related problems, analysing them in a systematic but timely manner, and acting decisively to implement solutions and deal with crises" (p.87). According to De Marco and McCullick (1997) expert coaches are extraordinarily observant and are excellent problem solvers. This corresponds to the results of this study. It has been clearly seen that expert coaches follow certain procedures in solving team problems, these includes identifying the problem, gathering information, analysing the problem, and solving the problem. Furthermore the result showed what could be done to solve the problem depending on the type of the problem.

Monitoring.

Monitoring was found to be one of the most practiced behaviours by all the coaches. While these themes were common to Yukl (1989,1994) they do have a special and unique relationship to sport coaches. In terms of the importance of monitoring and interactions with other behaviours the results were similar to those of Meredith and Mantel, (1985) who found interaction between monitoring and planning and problem

solving. The importance and practice of monitoring by expert coaches was mentioned in coaches' biographies such as Lusetich (1992) and Smithers and Appleby (1996).

Networking.

Networking emerged as an important behaviour practiced by the coaches. It involved central and perimeter networking. This was highlighted by Smithers and Appleby (1996) in their biography of Joyce Brown (Australian netball coach). They mentioned that her network included netball coaches and experts, and extended to other sports such as Australian rules football coaches and experts.

Clarifying Roles and Objectives.

Clarifying roles and objectives is an important behaviour particularly in team sports. Players must be made aware of their responsibility to work together as a unit. The coaches mentioned that they define and explain in detail players' roles and practice it in training. They give players different roles if they have to change a player's position due to an injury, suspension or team weaknesses. The emerging themes from the coaches show that the coaches used different ways to explain to the players their roles. In providing guidelines for managers on how to provide instructions in how to do the job Yukl (1994) mentioned similar instructions. In an interview with Bill Walsh (a legendary American football coach), Rapaport (1993) reported similar results to these found in study two. In the interview with Rapaport (1993), Walsh stated that: "But the point is everyone's job is essential. Everyone has a specific role

and specific responsibilities. And each player has to be prepared both mentally and physically to the utmost to play that role” (p.117).

Managing Conflict and Team Building.

All the coaches mentioned that managing conflict and team building is a very important part of their job. Coaches stated that good team building strategies led to less conflict and created a better team spirit, which contributed to the team success. However, different experiences were related where coaches were selective about how much they intervened in conflict. Different understandings also emerged on the team building strategies used during their coaching careers. As previously shown in Figure 13 different categories emerged for managing conflict and team building.

Mentoring and Developing.

Mentoring and developing is a very important part of coaches’ job. Five major themes emerged from the coaches on the ways they mentored and developed their players: junior development, player strength and weaknesses, career movement, extra training and fitness.

Informing.

All the coaches expressed that informing is an active process in coaching. It is a daily routine in all types of training and in all games. As earlier shown in Figure 15 the

coaches provide information to the players and support team and the club administration.

Consulting.

For consulting 6 new groups of people coaches consult with, these were: the assistant coach, reserves coach, club committee, other support team, captain and senior players and others. The coaches indicated that they consult almost every thing with their assistant coaches. In consulting with other coaches the main theme was signing new players.

Delegating.

Most of the coaches indicated that they are only comfortable with delegation to the right person, therefore they would delegate only certain things. They mentioned that they only delegate to the people whom they trust will do the job. They also noted that the coach has a big responsibility and should not delegate his duties too ready. As previously shown in Figure 17 a new level of categories has emerged. The major two categories were delegating to the support team and the players.

Motivating and Inspiring.

Most coaches claimed that motivating is an important part of the coaching process. As previously shown in Figure 18 two applications of motivating have emerged. These were motivation in training and motivation in games.

Supporting.

Most of the coaches outlined that supporting the players is a very important part of their work. As previously shown in Figure 19, new level of categories has emerged. The major two categories were supporting individual players and supporting the team as a unit.

Recognising.

Most of the coaches explained that supporting the players is an important part of their work. As previously shown in Figure 20, a new level of categories has emerged. The major categories were praise, awards, ceremonies and recommendations.

Rewarding.

Some coaches explained that rewarding the players is a usual part of their work. Others mentioned that they did not believe in rewarding too much at the elite level because it is a player's job to perform well. They mentioned that these days players at an elite level receive lots of rewards from the media and fans and that should be enough. As previously shown in Figure 21, new level of categories has emerged. The major categories were financial rewards, media and crowd, sponsors rewards, social events and end of year rewards.

Interaction for Every Behaviour with the other 14 Specific Behaviours

The interaction between behaviours shown in this study has extended Yukl's work on the specific behaviours. The findings of the interactions have been reported in the Figures 8 to 21 and in Appendices I (1 to 15). This is the first time that the interactions have been studied in a sports setting.

Yukl's (1989, 1994) guidelines for managers on all the specific behaviour corresponds with the results of study two. For instance, the coaches linked planning with the following behaviours: clarifying, motivating, rewarding, informing, consulting and monitoring. According to Yukl (1989, 1994) other behaviours involved in planning are clarifying, motivating and informing.

Conceptual Models for the Themes, Interactions, and Significant Other Factors.

The themes, interactions and significant other factors between each behaviour and the other specific behaviours have extended Yukl's work on the 14 specific behaviours. The findings of the themes, interactions and significant other factors were previously reported in Figures 8 to 21. These figures provide special models for all the 14 specific behaviours. These models provide a detailed, specific and easy-to-follow guide for new coaches, researchers and coach educators to help them improve their knowledge based on the real life experiences of expert soccer coaches. This is the first time these themes, interactions and significant other factors have been

specifically extracted to a sport setting with specific areas for consideration by expert soccer coaches.

Conceptual Model of the Interaction Between all the Specific Behaviours

The final objective of study two was to develop a conceptual model for the interaction between all the specific behaviours. The conceptual model demonstrated the complex relationship between the specific behaviours. It provides a framework to coaches and make them aware of the behaviours involved in their work. In addition the model explains the complexity of the interactions between all the specific behaviours. By understanding these complex interactions, it is hoped to improve coaches' effectiveness and leadership effectiveness. Coaches' effectiveness can be improved if the coaches understood these interactions. For example, the coaches will learn how to use monitoring to gather information in order to do certain things for the team. After gathering the information he might consult with the assistant coach, the captain, club committee or others. Monitoring is very useful for establishing the team plans. It also helps to check on the planning and readjust plans if there is a need for that. Monitoring can be used to clarify players' roles and objectives. When the coach understands the interaction between monitoring and other behaviours this helps him to apply more effective strategies when doing his job.

Yukl (1994) highlighted the importance of understanding the use of different patterns of specific behaviours by effective leaders. The results provide an insight into how expert coaches utilised the specific behaviours in their work. According to Yukl (1994) understanding leadership effectiveness can be improved by studying the

interactions between the specific behaviours. The final conceptual model is also useful to understand effective leadership. It also provides further directions to the study of leadership in general and in sport leadership in particular.

The Coaches Effective Leadership Model

The Coaches Effective Leadership Model (CELM) offers a new conceptual framework through which coaching behaviour is shown to develop effective leadership. It is the first model to be developed through empirical research using expert coaches in the Australian soccer environment.

The model has extended the work of Yukl taxonomies (1989, 1994) by contributing five additional themes, these were: liaison, sharing and analysing information, Reinforcing positive behaviour, managing challenges and goal setting. The model also demonstrated the effect on team cohesion which is critical task of a team sport coach. It has also revitalised the representing theme which was incorporated in Yukl's earlier work but has since been eliminated. Representing was identified as a critical component in the responsibilities of few expert coaches in Australia. The extent of this theme in other sport and leadership environment will require further research.

Significant Other Factors Preventing Coaches Achieving Their Potential

The coaches outlined significant other factors preventing them from achieving their potential for each behaviour. The overall large number ($n = 42$) of the significant

other factors for the 14 specific behaviours suggested that a further analysis was required. The further analysis was previously presented in Figure 25. This was done to reduce the number of the significant other factors which were organised into more complex themes and categories representing common interaction. Six major sources of communality emerged from this data: lack of organisation support, lack of stability, coach interaction, environmental issues, conflict of interest and motivation. These findings further demonstrate the complexity of the demands on coaches, sport organisations and players in the pursuit of success in a sport setting. Furthermore, these findings have been specifically applied into the sport setting for the first time with specific areas for consideration by coaches.

The significant other factors expressed by the coaches highlight the need to do more research on problem solving and coaching. For example, if a club committee does not back the coach against experienced players there is a need to investigate the club's policy and practice on problem solving. The research has also highlighted the need to do more research on monitoring and coaching. For example, since elite players are paid very high wages, what is the club's policy and practice on monitoring players who could be doing the wrong thing outside the club? This question emerged from one of the coaches in which he provided an example previously mentioned. (p.180).

Another example of factors which prevent coaches from achieving their potential is planning and organising. That is the lack of job security, affected long term planning showing that coaches' need longer contracts, At elite level these significant other factors included the fans demanding success which puts pressure on coaches, players

and clubs. other Significant other factors included being part time and lack of training resources. These are due to the West Australian Premier League being semi professional.

Positive Other Factors Based on Coaches Experience

Having identified negative factors related to the experience of expert coaches it was seen as equally important to delineate the positive factors which motivated coaches to complete their tasks and responsibilities to a high standard of excellence. As a result six major categories were found to influence coach behaviour in this process. Each of these contributions to our understanding of coaches' behaviour and motivation for achieving their career and personal goals.

Overcoming Challenges to Coaches

With many negative influences having an impact on the coaches life it was important to determine each of these and then to understand how coaches' overcome the critical issues which confronted them. As a result of this analysis, six major categories were identified which challenged the coaches leadership and then a critical path analysis was designed to show how the coaches, working with the resources available to them prefer to overcome these challenges.

CHAPTER SIX

Summary, Conclusion and Recommendations

This research provided a new direction in the study of leadership in general and the study of leadership in sport psychology in particular. The research investigated 14 specific leadership behaviours. It consisted of two studies, each based on Yukl's (1989, 1994) integrative model of effective leadership behaviour in which he proposed 14 specific behaviours. These were: (a) team building and conflict management (b) developing (c) supporting (d) rewarding (e) recognising (f) motivating and inspiring (g) delegating (h) consulting (i) problem solving (j) planning (k) monitoring (l) clarifying (m) informing (n) networking.

The research involved two studies, the first being quantitative and the second being qualitative. The quantitative study required the development of a new questionnaire to measure coaches' specific behaviours. The study utilised this questionnaire to research leadership behaviour in sport, thereby expanding the body of knowledge of leadership behaviour. The quantitative study had two parts these were: a primary study and a secondary study and focused on players' and coaches' perceptions of soccer coaches' behaviour.

The qualitative study focused on investigating soccer coaches' specific behaviours based on coaches' experience and expertise. It required conducting in-depth interviews with the coaches to collect the qualitative data. The qualitative study focused on learning from the expert coaches on how they apply the 14 specific behaviours during their work. The qualitative study explored the interaction between the 14 specific behaviours and established a conceptual model for the interaction between the 14 specific behaviours as they emerged from the coaches' own knowledge. Furthermore, the deductive and inductive analysis process allowed the meaning units of the interviews transcripts to be regrouped into new components. The components emerging from the analysis lead to the development of a new model. This model was called the coaches' effective leadership model. The model consisted of the following major components: (a) sharing and analysing information, (b) Reinforcing positive behaviour, (c) managing challenges, (d) goal setting and (e) Liaison. Another major outcome of the qualitative study was learning from the coaches how they overcame the major challenges to their career.

Conclusions

Previous research has not been concerned with the application of coaches' specific leadership behaviours, the conclusions are restricted to the 14 behaviours of soccer coaches in Australia in general and Western Australia in particular. The conclusions are represented in the form of answers to the research questions, which were formulated when the direction of the study was established.

Conclusions for Study One

Primary Study

The first question for the primary study was: “Do players perceive the leadership behaviours of their coaches differently from the way that their coaches perceive their own behaviours?”

The results showed that there was a significant multivariate difference between players’ and coaches’ perceptions of coach behaviours. Coaches’ and players’ perceptions differed significantly on ten of the 14 specific behaviours. These were planning, clarifying, motivating, recognising, monitoring, problem solving, supporting, managing conflict, mentoring and rewarding. Coaches’ response on the CPS items had consistently higher means in all of the 14 specific behaviours than those of the players. It can be concluded therefore, that coaches’ perceptions of their own behaviours were higher than the players’ perceptions of their coaches’ behaviours.

The second question for the primary study was; “Does a coach’s level of experience affect players’ perceptions of leadership behaviours?”.

The results revealed a significant multivariate differences between players’ perceptions. These differed significantly on eight specific behaviours: clarifying,

motivating, monitoring, problem solving, managing conflict, networking, mentoring and rewarding. The results of Bonferroni adjusted t tests indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between players' perceptions of their coaches' behaviours. This evidently indicates that the coaches' level of experience affects players' perceptions of their coaches. A further examination of the results revealed that these differences for the eight specific behaviours were reported between different coaching levels. These differences were:

1. Between novice and intermediate in the following specific behaviours: clarifying, monitoring, problem solving, managing conflict and networking.
2. Between novice and expert in the following specific behaviours: clarifying, motivating, monitoring, problem solving, managing conflict, networking, mentoring and rewarding.

On the evidence of this research it can be concluded that the coaches' level of experience affects players' perceptions of their coaches' leadership behaviours. In other words, players coached by intermediate coaches reported that their coaches apply the following behaviours categories: clarifying, monitoring, problem solving, managing conflict and networking, more than the players coached by novice coaches. It also can be concluded that players coached by expert coaches perceived their coaches to employ the following specific behaviours: clarifying, motivating, monitoring, problem solving, managing conflict, networking, mentoring and rewarding, more than the players coached by the novice coaches.

Secondary Study

The first question for the secondary study was; “ Does the level of competition affect players’ perceptions of their coaches’ leadership behaviours?”

The results revealed that there was a significant multivariate difference in players’ perceptions of their coaches’ behaviours. This clearly indicates that the level of competition affects players’ perceptions of their coaches. A further univariate ANOVAs test revealed that 13 specific behaviours were statistically significant. These were: informing, planning, clarifying, consulting, motivating, recognising, monitoring, problem solving, managing conflict, networking, delegating, mentoring and rewarding. The only behaviour category, which was not significant, was supporting. The results of Bonferroni adjusted t tests indicated that there was a statistically significant difference in players’ perceptions of their coaches’ behaviours. An examination of these results reveals the differences for the 13 specific behaviours between different levels of competition. The following differences were found:

1. Between NSL level and PL level in the following specific behaviours: informing, planning, consulting, recognising, problem solving and rewarding.
2. Between NSL level and division one level in the following specific behaviours: clarifying, monitoring, managing conflict and networking.
3. Between NSL level and junior level in the behaviour category, recognising.
4. Between PL level and division one level in the following specific behaviours: planning clarifying, consulting, motivating, monitoring, problem solving, managing conflict, networking, mentoring and rewarding.

5. Between PL level and junior level in the following specific behaviours: clarifying, motivating, monitoring, managing conflict, delegating, mentoring and rewarding.
6. Between division one level and junior level in the following specific behaviours: clarifying, motivating, managing conflict and networking.

Players competing in the West Australian Premier League (WAPL) perceived their coaches to use more of the following behaviours: informing, planning, consulting, recognising, problem solving and rewarding, than players playing in the National Soccer League (NSL). Players playing at the NSL level perceived their coaches to employ more of the following behaviours: clarifying, monitoring, managing conflict and networking, than players at the Level One Division. On the other hand, players at the junior level perceived their coaches to use, recognising more than the players at the NSL. Players competing at the WAPL level perceived their coaches to use planning clarifying, consulting, motivating, monitoring, problem solving, managing conflict, networking, mentoring and rewarding more than division one level coaches. Players competing at the WAPL level also perceived their coaches to use more: clarifying, motivating, monitoring, managing conflict, delegating, mentoring and rewarding, than junior level coaches were perceived to do. Finally, junior level players perceived their coaches to use more: clarifying, motivating, managing conflict and networking than division one level coaches were perceived to do.

The second question for the secondary study was; “ Are there gender-related differences in players perceptions of their coaches’ leadership behaviours?”

The results showed significant multivariate difference between male and female players. This clearly indicates that players' gender affects players' perceptions of their coaches. Further univariate ANOVA tests indicate that players' perceptions differ significantly on six specific behaviours. These were: clarifying, motivating, monitoring, problem solving, managing conflict and networking. On the basis of this research it can be concluded that male players perceived their coaches higher on the following specific behaviours: clarifying, motivating, monitoring, problem solving, managing conflict and networking, than the female players did.

The third question for the secondary study was; "Are there age-related differences in players' perceptions of their coaches' leadership behaviours?"

The results revealed significant multivariate difference between junior and senior players. This clearly indicates that the age of the players affects players' perceptions of their coaches. Further univariate ANOVAs test indicates that only delegating is significant. The large mean for the senior players indicates that senior players perceived their coaches delegate tasks to them more than the coaches of the junior players do. This result would appear a logical outcome, as one would expect that the coaches of senior players would tend to delegate more because of the experience and capability of these players.

Conclusions for Study Two

The first question for study two was; “What kinds of themes have the coaches experienced in each of the 14 specific behaviours?”

New themes and categories emerged from the expert coaches experiences for each one of the 14 specific behaviours. These were a result of beginning with Yukl’s (1989) taxonomy and applying it deductively to the sport context. These themes and categories new themes for the 14 specific behaviours have been demonstrated with a set of models (see figures 8 to 21). These models are designed to explain the themes and subcategories that emerged from the coaches’ interviews. The new themes were very unique to every behaviour category. These new themes should help researchers and scholars to understand coaches’ leadership behaviours better and what expert soccer coaches do when applying the 14 specific behaviours. The themes and concepts emerged from the expert coaches based on the perceptions of their experience in a long career of coaching at the elite level.

The second question was; “What are the interactions between each behaviour and the other 13 behaviours?”

The interaction for every behaviour category with other specific behaviours was revealed. The results showed that each behaviour category has an interaction with other specific behaviours. The results were based on the coaches’ knowledge and perception on what they do during their work. The interaction for each behaviour with all other behaviours is shown in figures 8 to 21.

The third question was; “What are the significant other factors that prevent coaches from achieving to their potential?”

The coaches outlined of the significant other factors that prevented them from achieving to their potential for each of the 14 behaviours. The significant other factors had similarities between the 14 specific leadership behaviours but were unique for each of the 14 behaviours. The significant other factors were important to understand because they give the coaches an understanding of the dynamics of sport leadership in coaching and help the coaches to identify problems early in the proceedings. The significant other factors could help the future research directions in leadership and coaching. Analysing the current significant other factors established in this study and carrying out further investigation to try to minimise the effect of these significant other factors could accomplish better coaching techniques and result in an improved interaction and understanding between the coaches and players.

The fourth question was; “What conceptual model can be developed to understand and organise the themes, interactions, and significant other factors for each of the 14 specific behaviours?”

A conceptual model to organise coaches knowledge for the themes, interactions and significant other factors was presented in a Figure 22. The model for each one of the 14 behaviours provides a summary for the themes, interactions and the significant other factors preventing coaches from achieving to their potential for each of the 14 specific behaviours. This will be a useful reference for coaches, scholars and coach

educators in providing an insight on how expert coaches use them to develop understanding of their own coaching role.

The final question in study two was; “What conceptual model can be developed to investigate the complex interaction between all of the 14 specific behaviours based on a real life coaching perspective?”

The results in study two were deductively driven by applying Yukl’s (1989) taxonomy of behaviours to provide a framework for the inductive analysis from the indepth interviews with coaches where they discussed their experiences. The conceptual model of the interactions between the 14 behaviours provides an insight into the complex interaction between all of the 14 specific behaviours. The conceptual model not only provides an answer for question five of this study, it also provides an explanation of the complex interaction between the 14 specific behaviours. It is believed that this is the first time that this type of analysis has been done in the sport context. According to Yukl (1989, 1994) there is a complex interaction between all of the 14 specific behaviours. By understanding this complex interaction we will improve our knowledge of the effectiveness of leadership. The results in figure 22 demonstrated the interactions between all of the 14 specific behaviours and the findings to improve coaches’ leadership effectiveness. The findings of the study have led to developing a new model called the Coaches Effective Leadership Model (CELM). Another major outcome was overcoming challenges facing the coaches. The results and findings should make a significant contribution towards improving the understanding of the effectiveness of coaches’ leadership.

Overall Conclusions for The Research

The purpose of the study was to determine the appropriateness of applying Yukl's use of the 14 specific behaviours to sport. It is clearly that this purpose have been successfully achieved because of the following reasons:

1. The results from both studies clearly indicated that the 14 specific behaviours could be applied into the sporting domain.
2. The results of study one supported the use of the CPS to measure coaches' specific behaviours. Further research is needed to improve the validity and reliability of the CPS.
3. Also the significant differences for the statistical analysis are another indication of the application of these specific behaviours into the sporting environment.
4. The results of the pilot study indicated that the coaches are very familiar with specific behaviours and that they where common practice by the coaches and integral part of their job.
5. The expert coaches in the qualitative study demonstrated the application of these behaviour and provided a real life examples of these behaviours.
6. The expert coaches not only demonstrated the appropriateness of applying these specific 14 behaviours, but also they revitalised the application of an extra fifteenth behaviour "representing".

Recommendations

This research has provided new directions to the area of leadership in sport by investigating the 14 specific behaviours proposed by Yukl (1989, 1994). There is no evidence in previous literature to suggest that these behaviours have been applied to coach leadership behaviours. The research has provided a unique investigation by applying both quantitative and qualitative methods to the study of the 14 specific behaviours. On the basis of this research the following recommendations are being made:

Recommendations Based on Study One

1. Coaches of soccer teams must review their own perceptions and improve on these specific behaviours as results suggest significant differences between players' and coaches' perceptions. These results also highlight the need to improve coaches' knowledge on these specific behaviours.
2. Clearly novice coaches will have fewer skills than experienced coaches in many of the leadership behaviours and other aspects of the coaching process. Much of the concern in previous studies has been placed on the differences between the novice and expert coach. The fact that the differences were found between intermediate and novice as well as expert and novice, points to the need for not only improving the novices' knowledge of the specific behaviours but also the need to improve the experts' knowledge.

3. Players competing at higher levels perceived their coaches to demonstrate most of the 14 behaviours. This indicates that coaches at the lower levels of competition are in need of more training and workshops to improve their skills on the specific behaviours.
4. These results suggested that there may be a need for coaches of female players to develop ways of clarifying, motivating, monitoring, problem solving, managing conflict and networking within their teams.
5. The results revealed that the age of the players affects players' perceptions of their coaches. This specifically applied to the area of delegating which was found to be significant. The large mean for the senior players indicates that these players perceived their coaches to delegate tasks to them more than the coaches of the junior players. This would be an expected outcome, as the senior players would have the maturity and experience to accept additional responsibilities. It is therefore recommended that coaches of senior players be made aware of the importance of delegating responsibility, whereas the coaches of junior players need to be more directive in their approach.

Recommendations Based on Study Two

1. A range of experiences was described for each of the 14 specific behaviours. These could be included in coaches' courses or on coaching updates.
2. The interaction for each behaviour category with other specific behaviours was revealed. The results showed that each behaviour category has an interaction with other specific behaviours. The results were based on the coaches' knowledge and perception on what they do during their work. A working knowledge of the interactions would be very helpful for the coaches to assist them in their work. For example, the interactions between consulting and the behaviours of: (planning and organising, conflict management and team building, networking, monitoring, problem solving, supporting, and delegating) helps the coach in his/ her work. As these interactions have been shown to be an important part of expert coaches knowledge, it is recommended that coaches at all levels be made aware of their importance. This can be done through courses associated with the education of coaches, sport science programs or short courses that are conducted to upgrade coaching or coaches' skills. It is also recommended that this information be distributed in relevant coaching journals and literature.
3. It is also recommended that professional and semi professional coaches be made aware of the significant other factors which they will be confronted with during their coaching career. In order for the coaches to overcome these

issues it is necessary for them to be provided with professional training in the form of short courses and seminars so that they may develop skills to assist them in dealing with the significant other factors as they arise.

4. A major finding in study two was the conceptual model of the interaction of all the specific behaviours. As this is believed to be a very important aspect of the dynamics of leadership in coaching it is recommended that these findings be published and included in the relevant materials that will be used in future coaching accreditation courses.
5. Figure 24 illustrated the new Coaches Effective Leadership Model as a result of applying Yukl's original taxonomies. This model could be used in future coaching education courses to illustrate the major behaviour associated with coach leadership effectiveness.

Research Implications

1. The research investigated and developed a model of Yukl's 14 specific behaviours as applied to soccer coaches in Australia. It is recommended that this model could now be applied to investigating coaching behaviour in other sports such as: Australian Rules Football, Cricket, Hockey, Basketball and Volleyball.

2. Future research could also investigate individual sports such as Swimming, Tennis, Athletics, and also compare the differences in coaching specific leadership behaviours between individual and team sports.
3. By applying this model to both team and individual sporting coaches in Australia, a greater insight could be gained into the strength and weaknesses of coaches working at various levels of sport throughout the country.
4. The research has provided a new instrument designed to measure coaches' specific behaviours. The validity and reliability was established for this instrument, which is called the Coaches Practices Survey CPS. The CPS could be used as an instrument for data collection for future studies.
5. The research has presented a new conceptual model on the complex interaction between the 14 behaviours. This should provide a framework for future research to study the complex interactions when coaching in other sports.
6. In a series of studies, Gould and associates (1987, 1989, 1990) surveyed a number of expert American coaches and suggested some recommendations to improve the coaching profession, as well as future research in this area. This research showed that there was no definite set of concepts or principles to follow in the coaching profession. The findings of this study provide not only

a practical model to help the coaches improve their knowledge, but also future directions to research more specific behaviours.

7. This study offers a conceptual framework, which responds to the complex nature of the coaching role acknowledged by Douge and Hastie (1993). In addition the framework provides an insight into the specific leadership behaviours of soccer coaches. It therefore offers a useful model that can be utilised by coaches, coach educators and researchers.
8. More research needs to be conducted to test the effective coach leadership model. As the model has only been developed in this study, there is also a need to investigate its' relevance and application to other sports.
9. A combination of the results of the qualitative and the quantitative studies could be used to develop the items of the CPS for future research. This could be done by reviewing the examples of the expert coaches and the items of the MPS and the CPS to conduct factor analysis to develop more relevance to the coaching domain.
10. Future research should focus on developing a good measure of coach effectiveness to use as a criterion for evaluating the relevance of each type of leadership behaviour. When such measure can be developed it can be used then to compare between effective/successful coaches and less effective/less successful coaches specific leadership behaviours.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A
PLAYERS CONSENT FORM, INITIAL CONTACT LETTER AND RESEARCH
OUTLINE.

PLAYERS CONSENT FORM

***PROJECT TITLE: PLAYERS AND COACHES PERCEPTIONS OF SOCCER
COACHES SPECIFIC LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOURS***

I (THE PARTICIPANT) HAVE BEEN INFORMED ABOUT ALL ASPECTS OF THE RESEARCH PROJECT AND AGREE TO PARTICIPATE IN THE PROJECT, REALISING THAT I CAN WITHDRAW AT ANY TIME.

I AGREE THAT THE RESEARCH DATA GATHERED FOR THIS PROJECT MAY BE PUBLISHED PROVIDED I AM NOT IDENTIFIABLE.

PARTICIPANT SIGNATURE: _____ Date: _____

RESEARCHER: _____ Date: _____



EDITH COWAN
UNIVERSITY

PERTH WESTERN AUSTRALIA
JOONDALUP CAMPUS

100 Joondalup Drive, Joondalup
Western Australia 6027
Telephone (08) 9400 5555
Facsimile (08) 9300 1257

Dear Player,

My name is Fadi Ma'ayah and I am carrying out a research project that is designed to investigate the behaviours of coaches and how these behaviours affects their leadership role. This project is part of fulfilment of the requirements for the award of Doctor of Philosophy (Sports Science) at Edith Cowan University.

The purpose of the study is to investigate the use of different patterns of behaviours by soccer coaches in Western Australia. You have been chosen to participate in this project. This will require the players and the coach to fill a questionnaire called the Coaches Practices Survey. The purpose of this questionnaire is to learn more about the behaviours of coaches.

The procedures and records are confidential. Enclosed are the following: (a) consent form and (b) Brief outlines of research program. If you agree for to participate in the study, **would you please complete the attached consent form and return it to me with your child in his/ her next training.**

Should you have any questions regarding the procedures for this study please don't hesitate to contact me or my supervisor, Dr. Barry Gibson.

Thanking you in anticipation

Yours faithfully \

Mr F [REDACTED]
PhD student
Telephone [REDACTED]

A/Prof Barry Gibson
PhD Supervisor
Telephone [REDACTED]

E. Mail: f.maayah@cowan.edu.au

Research Outline

I am interested in researching the specific behaviours that are used by coaches involved in soccer. In particular I am interested in looking at the following behaviours: (a) team building and conflict management, (b) developing, (c) supporting, (d) rewarding, (e) recognising, (f) motivating and inspiring, (g) delegating, (h) consulting, (i) problem solving, (j) planning, (k) monitoring, (l) clarifying, (m) informing and (n) networking.

I am going to be conducting two studies in this research project and this will involve asking players and coaches to complete a short questionnaire called the Coaches Practices Survey, that is designed to measure coaches specific leadership behaviours. In addition I will be interviewing senior soccer coaches to find out how they use different patterns of specific behaviours during their work. It is anticipated that this study will enable me to assist coaches to improve their coaching skills with both senior and junior players.

APPENDIX B
JUNIOR PLAYERS CONSENT FORM, INITIAL CONTACT LETTER AND
RESEARCH OUTLINE.

JUNIOR PLAYERS CONSENT FORM

PROJECT TITLE: PLAYERS AND COACHES PERCEPTIONS OF SOCCER COACHES SPECIFIC LEADRSHIP BEHAVIOURS

I (THE PARTICIPANT) HAVE BEEN INFORMED ABOUT ALL ASPECTS OF THE RESEARCH PROJECT AND AGREE TO PARTICIPATE IN THE PROJECT, REALISING THAT I CAN WITHDRAW AT ANY TIME.

I AGREE THAT THE RESEARCH DATA GATHERED FOR THIS PROJECT MAY BE PUBLISHED PROVIDED I AM NOT IDENTIFIABLE.

PARTICIPANT: _____ Date: _____

CLUB: _____

RESEARCHER: _____ Date: _____

IF YOU ARE UNDER 18 YEARS YOU ARE REQUIRED TO HAVE YOUR PARENTS/GUARDIANS AGREEMENT.

I (THE PARTICIPANT'S PARENT/GUARDIAN) HAVE BEEN INFORMED ABOUT ALL ASPECTS OF THE RESEARCH PROJECT AND AGREE TO MY CHILD TO PARTICIPATE IN THE PROJECT, REALISING THAT HE/SHE CAN WITHDRAW AT ANY TIME.

I AGREE THAT THE RESEARCH DATA GATHERED FOR THIS PROJECT MAY BE PUBLISHED PROVIDED MY CHILD IS NOT IDENTIFIABLE.

PARTICIPANT'S GUARDIAN: _____ Date: _____

CLUB: _____

RESEARCHER: _____ Date: _____



EDITH COWAN
UNIVERSITY

PERTH WESTERN AUSTRALIA
JOONDALUP CAMPUS

100 Joondalup Drive, Joondalup
Western Australia 6027
Telephone (08) 9400 5555
Facsimile (08) 9300 1257

Dear Parent/ Guardian,

My name is Fadi Ma'ayah and I am carrying out a research project that is designed to investigate the behaviours of coaches and how these behaviours affects their leadership role. This project is part of fulfilment of the requirements for the award of Doctor of Philosophy (Sports Science) at Edith Cowan University.

The purpose of the study is to investigate the use of different patterns of behaviours by soccer coaches in Western Australia. Your child had been chosen to participate in this project. This will require the players and the coach to fill a questionnaire called the Coaches Practices Survey. The purpose of this questionnaire is to learn more about the behaviours of coaches.

The procedures and records are confidential. Enclosed are the following: (a) consent form and (b) Brief outlines of research program. If you agree for your child to participate in the study, **would you please complete the attached consent form and return it to me with your child in his/ her next training.**

Should you have any questions regarding the procedures for this study please don't hesitate to contact me or my supervisor, Dr. Barry Gibson.

Thanking you in anticipation

Yours

Mr Fadi
PhD student
Telephone

E. Mail: f.maayah @cowan.edu.au

A/Prof Barry Gibson
PhD Supervisor
Telephone 9400 5037

Research Outline

I am interested in researching the specific behaviours that are used by coaches involved in soccer. In particular I am interested in looking at the following behaviours: (a) team building and conflict management, (b) developing, (c) supporting, (d) rewarding, (e) recognising, (f) motivating and inspiring, (g) delegating, (h) consulting, (i) problem solving, (j) planning, (k) monitoring, (l) clarifying, (m) informing and (n) networking.

I am going to be conducting two studies in this research project and this will involve asking players and coaches to complete a short questionnaire called the Coaches Practices Survey, that is designed to measure coaches specific leadership behaviours. In addition I will be interviewing senior soccer coaches to find out how they use different patterns of specific behaviours during their work. It is anticipated that this study will enable me to assist coaches to improve their coaching skills with both senior and junior players.

APPENDIX C
COACHES CONSENT FORM, INITIAL CONTACT LETTER AND RESEARCH
OUTLINE.

COACHES CONSENT FORM

PROJECT TITLE: PLAYERS AND COACHES PERCEPTIONS OF SOCCER COACHES SPECIFIC LEADRSHIP BEHAVIOURS

I (THE PARTICIPANT) HAVE BEEN INFORMED ABOUT ALL ASPECTS OF THE RESEARCH PROJECT AND AGREE TO PARTICIPATE IN THE PROJECT, REALISING THAT ANY PARTICIPANT CAN WITHDRAW AT ANY TIME.

I AGREE THAT THE RESEARCH DATA GATHERED FOR THIS PROJECT MAY BE PUBLISHED PROVIDED I AM NOT IDENTIFIABLE.

COACH INFORMATION

COACH NAME: _____

COACH PHONE NO: _____

COACH PREFERRED (DAY/ TIME) FOR DATA COLLECTION: _____

COACH SIGNATURE: _____ DATE: _____

RESEARCHER: _____ Date: _____



EDITH COWAN
UNIVERSITY

PERTH WESTERN AUSTRALIA
JOONDALUP CAMPUS

100 Joondalup Drive, Joondalup
Western Australia 6027
Telephone (08) 9400 5555
Facsimile (08) 9300 1257

Dear Coach,

My name is Fadi Ma'ayah and I am carrying out a research project that is designed to investigate the behaviours of coaches and how these behaviours affects their leadership role. This project is part of fulfilment of the requirements for the award of Doctor of Philosophy (Sports Science) at Edith Cowan University.

The purpose of the study is to investigate the use of different patterns of behaviours by soccer coaches in Western Australia. You have been chosen to participate in this project. This will require the players and the coach to fill a questionnaire called the Coaches Practices Survey. The purpose of this questionnaire is to learn more about the behaviours of coaches.

The procedures and records are confidential. Enclosed are the following: (a) consent form and (b) Brief outlines of research program. If you agree for to participate in the study, **would you please complete the attached and return it to me in the next training session.**

Should you have any questions regarding the procedures for this study please don't hesitate to contact me or my supervisor, Dr. Barry Gibson.

Thanking you in anticipation

Yours faithfully

Mr Fadi Ma'Ayah
PhD student
Telephone [REDACTED]

E. Mail: f.maayah @cowan.edu.au

A/Prof Barry Gibson
PhD Supervisor
Telephone 9400 5037

Research Outline

I am interested in researching the specific behaviours that are used by coaches involved in soccer. In particular I am interested in looking at the following behaviours: (a) team building and conflict management, (b) developing, (c) supporting, (d) rewarding, (e) recognising, (f) motivating and inspiring, (g) delegating, (h) consulting, (i) problem solving, (j) planning, (k) monitoring, (l) clarifying, (m) informing and (n) networking.

I am going to be conducting two studies in this research project and this will involve asking players and coaches to complete a short questionnaire called the Coaches Practices Survey, that is designed to measure coaches specific leadership behaviours. In addition I will be interviewing senior soccer coaches to find out how they use different patterns of specific behaviours during their work. It is anticipated that this study will enable me to assist coaches to improve their coaching skills with both senior and junior players.

APPENDIX D
THE UNIVERSITY ETHICAL APPROVAL



EDITH COWAN
UNIVERSITY

PERTH WESTERN AUSTRALIA
CHURCHLANDS CAMPUS

Pearson Street, Churchlands
Western Australia 6018
Telephone (08) 9273 8333
Facsimile (08) 9387 7095

8th July 1999

Committee for the Conduct of Ethical Research

Mr Fadi Y Ma'ayah
[REDACTED]
[REDACTED]

Dear Mr Ma'ayah

Code: 99-71

Title of Project: *An investigation into how expert soccer coaches use different patterns of specific behaviours during their work*

Thank you making the suggested amendments to the consent forms and providing copies of the amended papers.

The amendments have been accepted by the Committee and I am pleased to advise that the project now complies with the provisions contained in the University's policy for the conduct of ethical research, and has been cleared for implementation.

Period of approval: **From** 8th June 1999 **To** 31st December 2000

With best wishes for success in your work.

Yours sincerely

[REDACTED]
ROD CROTHERS
Executive Officer

Attachment: Conditions of Approval

cc. Dr Barry Gibson, Supervisor
Mrs Karen Leckie, Executive Officer

APPENDIX E

PERMISSION FROM PROFESSOR YUKL TO USE THE MPS IN THIS STUDY

UNIVERSITY OF ALBANY
University at Albany

State University of New York 1400 Washington Avenue,

Albany, NY 12222

PAGE 01

FAX

Date:

13
4-6-98

Number of pages including cover sheet:

5

To:

BARRY GIBSON

SCHOOL OF BUSINESS & SPORTS SCI

EDITH COWAN UNIV.

AUSTRALIA

Phone:

Fax phone: 011 618 9400 5851

CC: 011 618 9400 5851

From:

GARY YUKL

School of Business

Management Department

Phone:

(518) 442-4962

Fax phone:

(518) 442-4765

REMARKS:

☐ Urgent

☐ For your review

☐ Reply ASAP

☐ Please comment

SHORT VERSION OF MGS. SORRY FOR DELAY.

I THOUGHT THAT I HAD SENT THIS Q TO YOU, BUT COULD
NOT FIND ANY RECORD IN MY FILES. IT TURNS OUT,
THE ^{FAX} NUMBER WAS UNCLEAR AND FAX WOULD NOT
GO THROUGH.

Short Version of Managerial Practices Survey

Note to Researchers:

The MPS measures 14 aspects of managerial behavior likely to be relevant for managerial effectiveness. The long version (70 items) was designed for providing multisource feedback to managers. This short version (42 items) was designed for research on how managers are perceived by subordinates. The MPS is provided at no charge to researchers, but you are requested to show the following copyright notice on all copies of it.

Copyright © 1991 by Gary Yukl and Manus Associates

Format Guide:

You have a choice of randomizing the order of items or grouping the items into scales. If you use the grouped format, the scale names are usually provided on the questionnaire. Another decision is whether to use a machine scored answer sheet or a line next to each item for writing the response (see example below).

This manager:

___ 1. promptly informs you about . . .

Typical Instructions to Respondents:

The purpose of this questionnaire is to learn more about the behavior of managers. Please describe how much the manager named above uses each type of behavior. However, if you have not worked with this manager at least 4 months, do not fill out the questionnaire. Please be as careful and accurate as you can. Think about each type of behavior separately, and don't allow your general evaluation of the manager to bias your answers about specific behaviors. Your answers will remain confidential and will not be seen by anyone except the researchers. The response choices are as follows:

- 5 Nearly Always, or to a Very Great extent
- 4 Often, or to Considerable extent
- 3 Sometimes, or to a Moderate extent
- 2 Seldom, or to a Limited extent
- 1 Never, Not at all
- ? Not Applicable or Don't Know

Good luck!

Please send me a copy of any papers resulting from the use of the MPS.

Gary Yukl
Management Department
State University of New York at Albany
Albany, NY, 12222

APPENDIX F
THE COACHES PRACTICES SURVEY PLAYERS VERSION.

Coaches Practices Survey
(Players Version)

Code:

Modified from Gary Yukl and Manus Associates Copy right© 1991

General Information to players:

I am carrying out a research project that is designed to investigate the behaviours of coaches and how these behaviours affect their leadership role. This project is part of fulfilment of the requirements for the award of Doctor of Philosophy (Sports Science), at Edith Cowan University.

The purpose of this questionnaire is to learn more about the behaviour of coaches. Please describe how much your coach uses each type of behaviour. However, if you have not worked with this coach for at least 4 months, do not fill out the questionnaire. Please be as careful and accurate as you can. Think about each type of behaviour separately, and don't allow your general evaluation of the coach to bias your answers about specific behaviours. Your answers will remain confidential and will not be seen by anyone except the researchers. The response choices are as follows:

Nearly always; Often; Sometimes; Seldom; Never.

Player's Personal information:

Instructions:

Read the following personal statements carefully and then answer according to which applies to you, by making a circle on the number of your answer. For example, if your answer is Female for statement 4 "**Player's gender**" You would circle number 1.

1 The club level at which you play:

1 National Soccer League. 2 Premier league 3 Division
one
4 Senior level 5 Junior level.

2 Your age:

1 16 years and over 2 Under 16 years

3 Your gender:

1 Female 2 Male

4 How many years has your coach been coaching?

12 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12
13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20

Instructions

All these items apply to how you, as an athlete, perceive your coach. Please read each item carefully and then describe how much your coach uses each type of behaviour. Please be as careful and accurate as you can. Think about each type of behaviour separately, and don't allow your general evaluation of the coach to bias your answers about specific behaviours.

For example, item one is "Promptly informs you about a decision that affects your performance."

Nearly always; Often; Sometimes; Seldom; Never

If your answer to the first item were sometimes, you would place a mark in the box under that choice.

Category	Behaviour	Nearly always	Often	Sometimes	Seldom	Never
Informing	1 Promptly informs you about a decision that affects your performance.					
	2 Passes on relevant information obtained in conversations with other players.					
	3 Passes on relevant memos reports, and other written materials that you would otherwise, not receive.					
Planning and organising	1 Plan in detail how to accomplish a major task (e.g. identifies necessary action steps, when each should be done, and who should do it).					
	2 Plans the resources needed to carry out a task (eg. training session).					
	3 Determines priorities for different activities, and plans an appropriate allocation of available resources among the activities.					
Clarifying Roles and Objectives	1 Clearly explains your responsibilities with regard to a job that you'll be doing for the club.					
	2 Clearly explains what results are expected for a task.					
	3 Clearly specifies a time when a task you are doing for him/ her is needed.					

Category	Behaviour	Nearly always	Often	Sometimes	Seldom	Never
Consulting	1 Consults with you to get your reactions and suggestions before making major changes that will affect you.					
	2 Encourages you to express any concerns or doubts you may have about training, that is under consideration.					
	3 Listens carefully to any concerns you express about his/her training or plans with out getting defensive.					
Motivating and Inspiring	1 Talks in a persuasive manner about the importance of improving player's performance efficiency, or quality.					
	2 Develops enthusiasm for a game by appealing to your pride in accomplishing a challenging game, beating competitors, or achieving something new.					
	3 Describes a clear and appealing vision of what can be accomplished with your cooperation and support.					
Recognising	1 Compliments you for demonstrating unusual creativity, initiative, persistence, or skill in performing a skill.					
	2 Give you credit for helpful ideas and suggestions.					
	3 Expresses personal appreciation when you do something for him that requires a special effort.					
Monitoring	1 Follows up after making a request to verify that it was done.					
	2 Checks and comments on player performance (eg. inspects it).					
	3 Checks performance progress against plans to see if team and/or players are on target.					

Category	Behaviour	Nearly always	Often	Sometimes	Seldom	Never
Problem Solving	1 Handles team and players related problems and crises in a confident and decisive manner.					
	2 Identifies constraints preventing the solution of a problem and finds ways to eliminate or circumvent them by individual/ group discussion.					
	3 Proposes new and innovative approaches for dealing with a serious or persistent problem.					
Supporting	1 Is sympathetic and supportive when you are worried or upset about something.					
	2 Gives you encouragement and support when you have a difficult and stressful task or responsibility.					
	3 Offers to provide advice or assistance when you need help with a difficult task or problem					
Managing Conflict	1 Encourages frank and open discussion of a disagreement					
	2 Attempts to resolve disagreements in constructive manner (e.g., by mutual problem solving, without unnecessary arguing).					
	3 Proposes a reasonable compromise to resolve a disagreement.					
Networking	1 Keeps in touch with people outside the club who can provide information about important developments and events.					
	2 Communicates with people in other parts of the club who can be a useful source of information, resources, and support.					
	3 Co-operates with people in different units of the club to work toward mutual objectives (sponsors, promotions, coaching staff).					

Category	Behaviour	Nearly always	Often	Sometimes	Seldom	Never
Delegating	1 Delegates to you the authority to make important decisions and implement them. (eg warm ups, extra training, leadership role)					
	2 Encourages you to determine the best way to accomplish an objective for yourself					
	3 Encourages you to implement various strategies during the game					
Mentoring	1 Offers helpful advice on how to advance your career (e.g., People to meet events to attend assignments to seek skills to learn pitfalls to avoid).					
	2 Encourages you to improve your skills by watching expert players and very successful teams					
	3 Provides extra instruction or coaching to help you improve your skills or learn new ones.					
Rewarding	1 Provides praise for effective performance.					
	2 Recommends players whose performance has been consistent to advance to a higher level.					
	3 Recommends or approves special consideration for a player with a record of exceptional performance. (eg fairest and best awards).					

APPENDIX G

THE COACHES PRACTICES SURVEY COACHES VERSION.

**Coaches Practices survey
(Coaches Version)**

Code:

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General Information to coaches:

I am carrying out a research project that is designed to investigate the behaviours of coaches and how these behaviours affect their leadership role. This project forms part of the requirements for the award of Doctor of Philosophy (Sports Science), at Edith Cowan University.

The purpose of this questionnaire is to learn more about the behaviour of coaches. Please describe how much do you as a coach uses each type of behaviour. Please be as careful and accurate as you can. Think about each type of behaviour separately, and don't allow your general evaluation to bias your answers about specific behaviours. Your answers will remain confidential and will not be seen by anyone except the researcher. The response choices are as follows:

Nearly always; Often; Sometimes; Seldom; Never

Coaches' Personal information:

Instructions:

Read the following personal statements carefully and then answer according to which applies to you, by making a circle on the number of your answer. For example, if your answer is Female for statement 4 "**Coaches' gender**" You would make a circle on number 1.

1. The club level at which you are coaching:

1 National Soccer League. 2 Premier league 3 Division one
4 Senior level 5 Junior level.

2. The age of the players you are coaching:

1 16 years and over 2 Under 16 years

3 Players gender: Do you coach female or male players?

1 Female 2 Male

4 How many years you had been coaching?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12
13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20

Instructions

All these items apply to how you as coach perceive your behaviours. Please read each item carefully and then describe how much you use each type of behaviour. Please be as careful and accurate as you can. Think about each type of behaviour separately, and don't allow your general evaluation of the coach to bias your answers about specific behaviours. For example, item 1 is

"1 I promptly inform the players about a decision that affects their performance."

Nearly always; Often; Sometimes; Seldom; Never

If your answer to the first item were sometimes, you would place a mark in the box under that choice.

Category	Behaviour	Nearly always	Often	Sometimes	Seldom	Never
Informing	1 I promptly inform the players about decisions that may affect their performance.					
	2 I pass on relevant information obtained in conversations with other players.					
	3 I pass on relevant memos reports, and other written materials that you would otherwise, not receive.					
Planning and organising	1 I plan in detail how to accomplish a major task (eg. identifies necessary action steps, when each should be done, and who should do it).					
	2 I plan what resources are needed to carry out a task (eg. training session).					
	3 I determine priorities for different activities and plan an appropriate allocation of available resources among the activities.					
Clarifying Roles and Objectives	1 I clearly explain to my players their responsibilities with regard to a job that they will be doing for the club.					
	2 I clearly explain what results are expected for a task					
	3 I clearly, specify a time when players are doing a task.					

Category	Behaviour	Nearly always	Often	Sometimes	Seldom	Never
Consulting	1 I consult with players to get their reactions and suggestions before making major changes that will affect them.					
	2 I encourage players you to express any concerns or doubts they may have about training that are under consideration.					
	3 I listen carefully to any concerns players express about my training or plans with out getting defensive.					
Motivating and Inspiring	1 I talk in a persuasive manner about the importance of improving player's performance efficiency, or quality.					
	2 I develop enthusiasm for a game by appealing to players pride in accomplishing a challenging game, beating competitors, or achieving something new.					
	3 I describe a clear and appealing vision of what can be accomplished with players cooperation and support.					
Recognising	1 I compliment a player for demonstrating unusual creativity, initiative, persistence, or skill in performing a skill.					
	2 I give a player credit for helpful ideas and suggestions.					
	3 I express personal appreciation when a player does something for the team that requires a special effort.					
Monitoring	1 I follow up after making a request to verify that it was done.					
	2 I check and comment on player performance (eg. inspects it).					
	3 I check performance progress against plans to see if team and/or players are on target					

Category	Behaviour	Nearly always	Often	Sometimes	Seldom	Never
Problem Solving	1 I handle team and players related problems and crises in a confident and decisive manner.					
	2 I identify constraints preventing the solution of a problem and finds ways to eliminate or circumvent them by individual/ group discussion.					
	3 I propose new and innovative approaches for dealing with a serious or persistent problem.					
Supporting	1 I am sympathetic and supportive when a player is worried or upset about some thing.					
	2 I give a player encouragement and support when you have a difficult and stressful task or responsibility.					
	3 I offer to provide advice or assistance when a player need help with a difficult task or problem					
Managing Conflict	1 I encourage frank and open discussion of a disagreement.					
	2 I attempt to resolve disagreements in constructive manner (e.g., by mutual problem solving, without unnecessary arguing).					
	3 I propose a reasonable compromise to resolve a disagreement.					
Networking	1 I keep in touch with people outside the club who can provide information about important developments and events.					
	2 I communicate with people in other parts of the club who can be a useful source of information, resources, and support.					
	3 I co-operate with people in different units of the club to work toward mutual objectives. (Sponsorships, promotion, coaching staff).					

Category	Behaviour	Nearly always	Often	Sometimes	Seldom	Never
Delegating	1 I delegate to players the authority to make important decisions and implement them. (Warm ups, extra training, and leadership role.					
	2 I encourage players to determine the best way to accomplish an objective for themselves.					
	3 I encourage players to implement various strategies during the game.					
Mentoring	1 I offer helpful advice on how to advance players career (e.g., People to meet events to attend assignments to seek skills to learn pitfalls to avoid).					
	2 I encourage players to improve their skills by watching expert players and very successful teams.					
	3 I provide extra instruction or coaching to help you improve your skills or learn new ones.					
Rewarding	1 I provide praise for effective performance.					
	2 I recommend players whose performance has been consistent to advance to a higher level.					
	3 I approve special consideration for a player with a record of exceptional performance. (ie fairest and best awards).					

APPENDIX H
EXPERT COACHES CONSENT FORM, INITIAL CONTACT LETTER AND
RESEARCH OUTLINE.



EDITH COWAN
UNIVERSITY

PERTH WESTERN AUSTRALIA
JOONDALUP CAMPUS

100 Joondalup Drive, Joondalup
Western Australia 6027
Telephone (08) 9400 5555
Facsimile (08) 9300 1257

Coach Name
Address

Dear Sir,

My name is Fadi Ma'ayah and I am carrying out a research project that is designed to investigate the behaviours of coaches and how these behaviours affect their leadership role. This project is part of fulfilment of the requirements for the award of Doctor of Philosophy (Sports Science) at Edith Cowan University.

The purpose of the study is to investigate how expert soccer coaches use different patterns of behaviours to achieve their goals. As one of the more experienced coaches at the top level in Western Australia. I would like your assistance in researching the use of different patterns of specific behaviours by elite soccer coaches by conducting with you a series of in-depth interviews over a period of time. These interviews will be conducted at a time and a venue that is convenient for you.

The procedures and records are confidential. You may withdraw from the interviews any time you feel uncomfortable. Enclosed are the following: (a) consent form, (b) letter of support from SAWA, (c) brief outlines of research program and (d) reply paid envelope. If you are happy to participate in the research, **would you please complete the attached consent form and return it to me at your earliest convenience in the reply paid envelope.**

Should you have any questions regarding the procedures for this study please don't hesitate to contact me or my supervisor, Dr. Barry Gibson.

Thanking you in anticipation.

Yours faithfully

Mr. Fadi Ma'Ay
PhD student
Telephone

E. mail: f.maayah@cowan.edu.au

A/Prof Barry Gibson
PhD Supervisor
Telephone 9400 5037

COACHES CONSENT FORM

***PROJECT TITLE: PLAYERS AND COACHES PERCEPTIONS OF SOCCER
COACHES SPECIFIC LEADRSHIP BEHAVIOURS***

I (THE PARTICIPANT) HAVE BEEN INFORMED ABOUT ALL ASPECTS OF THE RESEARCH PROJECT AND AGREE TO PARTICIPATE IN THE PROJECT, REALISING THAT ANY PARTICIPANT CAN WITHDRAW AT ANY TIME.

I AGREE THAT THE RESEARCH DATA GATHERED FOR THIS PROJECT MAY BE PUBLISHED PROVIDED I AM NOT IDENTIFIABLE.

COACH INFORMATION	
COACH NAME:_____	
COACH PHONE NO:_____	
COACH PREFERRED (DAY/ TIME) FOR INTERVIEWS:_____	

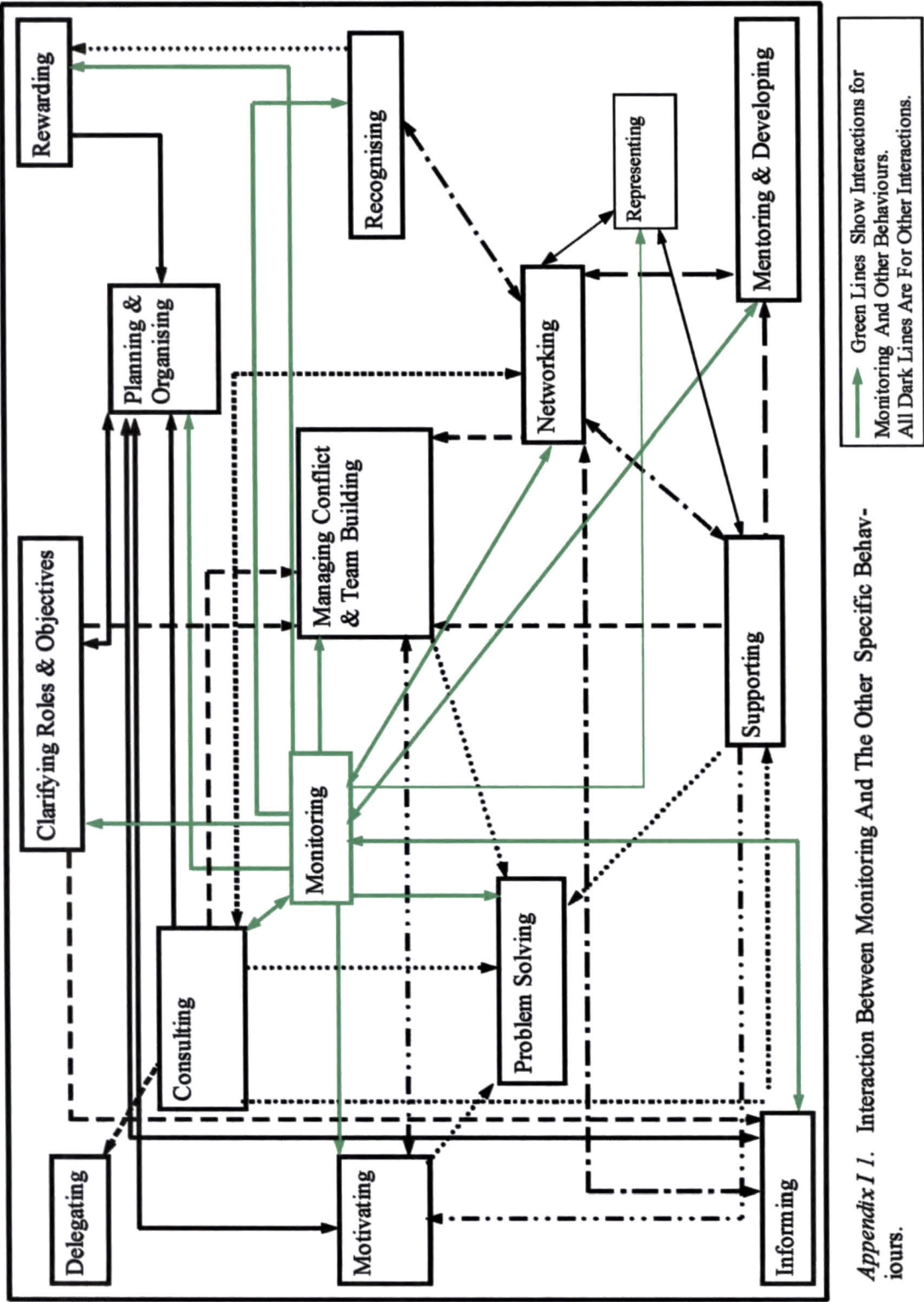
COACH SIGNATURE: _____	DATE:_____
RESEARCHER:_____	Date:_____

Research Outline

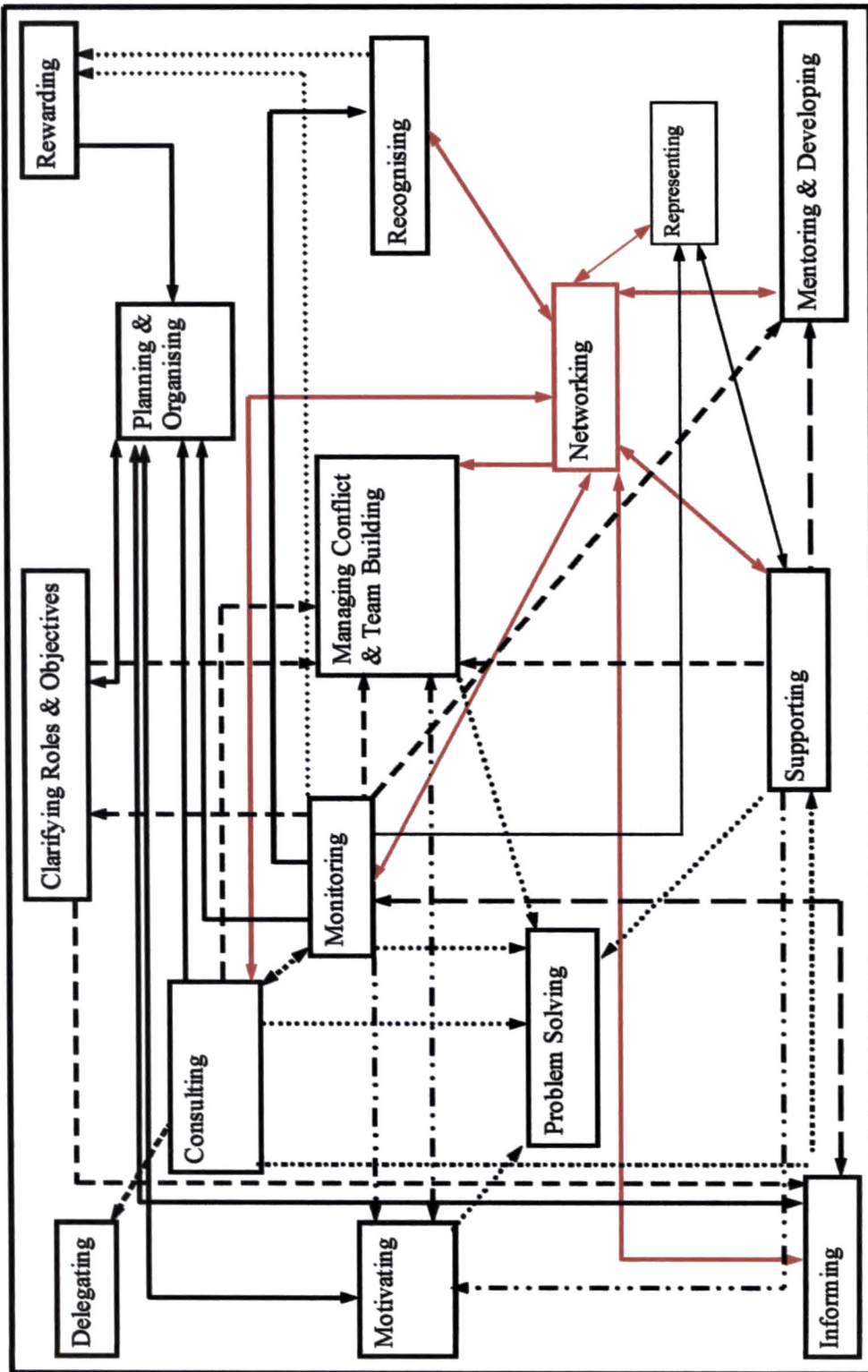
I am interested in researching the specific behaviours that are used by coaches involved in soccer. In particular I am interested in looking at the following behaviours: (a) team building and conflict management, (b) developing, (c) supporting, (d) rewarding, (e) recognising, (f) motivating and inspiring, (g) delegating, (h) consulting, (i) problem solving, (j) planning, (k) monitoring, (l) clarifying, (m) informing and (n) networking.

I am going to be conducting two studies in this research project and this will involve asking players and coaches to complete a short questionnaire called the Coaches Practices Survey, that is designed to measure coaches specific leadership behaviours. In addition I will be interviewing senior soccer coaches to find out how they use different patterns of specific behaviours during their work. It is anticipated that this study will enable me to assist coaches to improve their coaching skills with both senior and junior players.

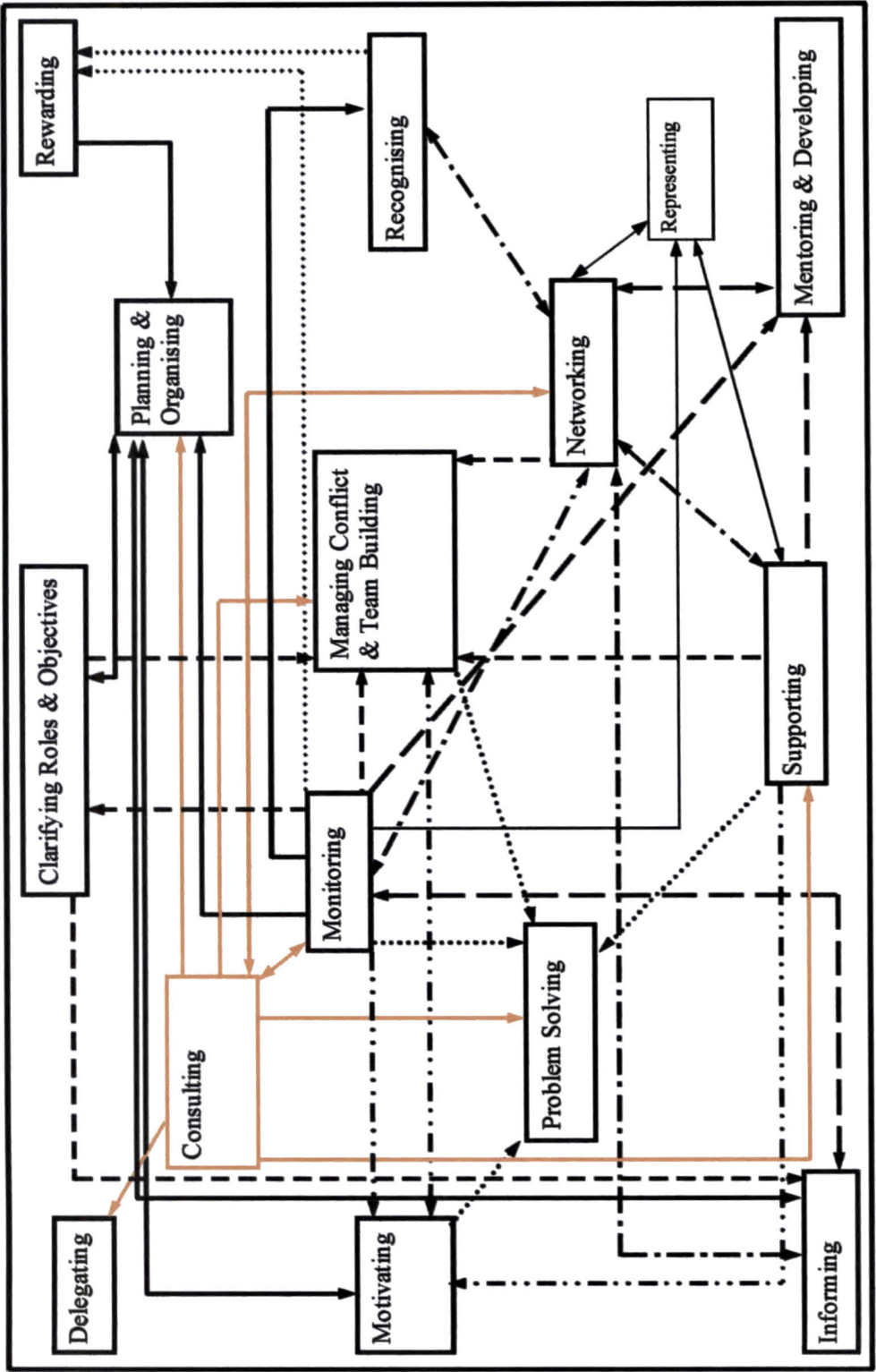
APPENDIX I
I (1-15)
INTERACTION BETWEEN EACH BEHAVIOUR AND ALL OTHER SPECIFIC
BEHAVIOURS.



Appendix I 1. Interaction Between Monitoring And The Other Specific Behaviours.

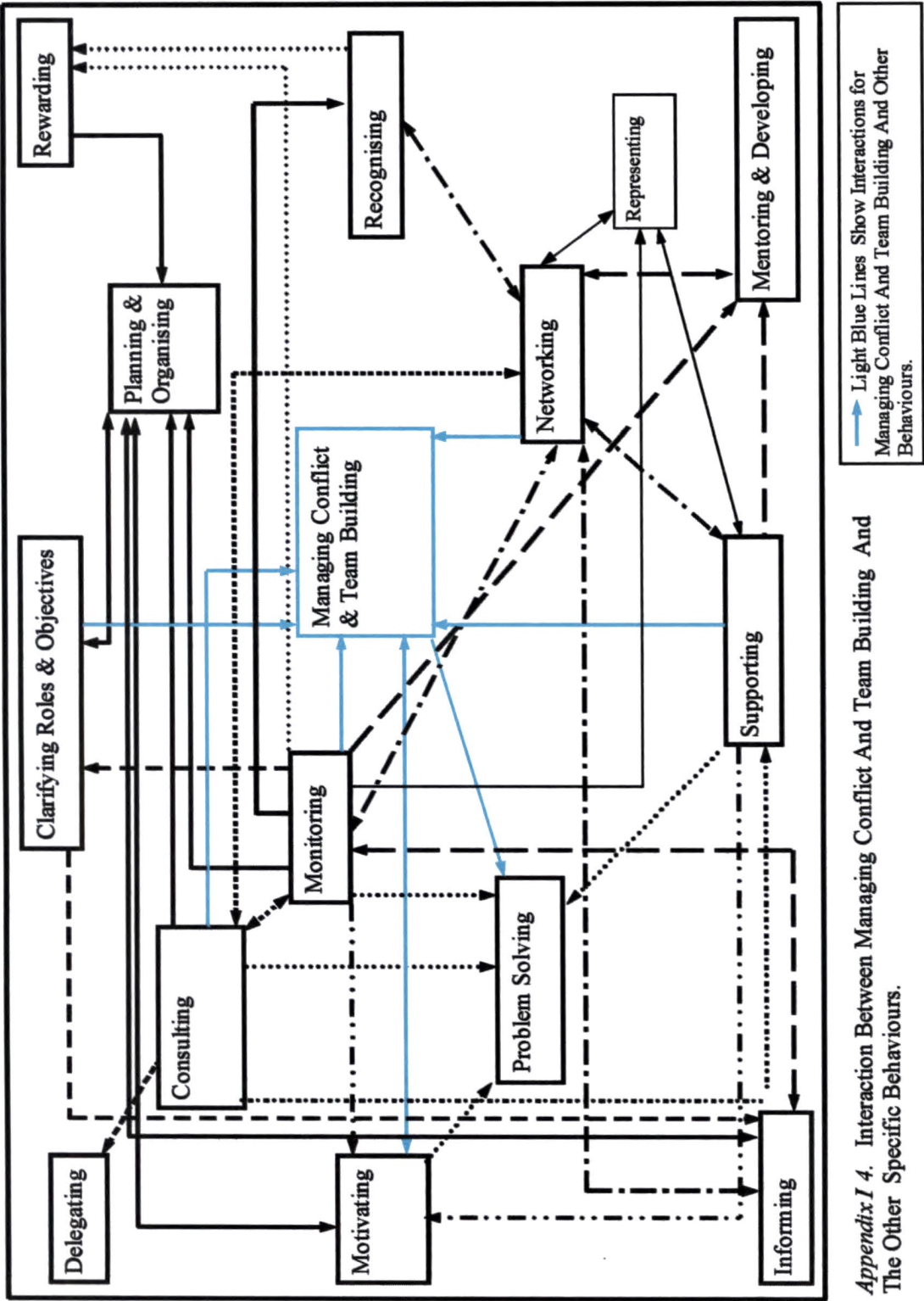


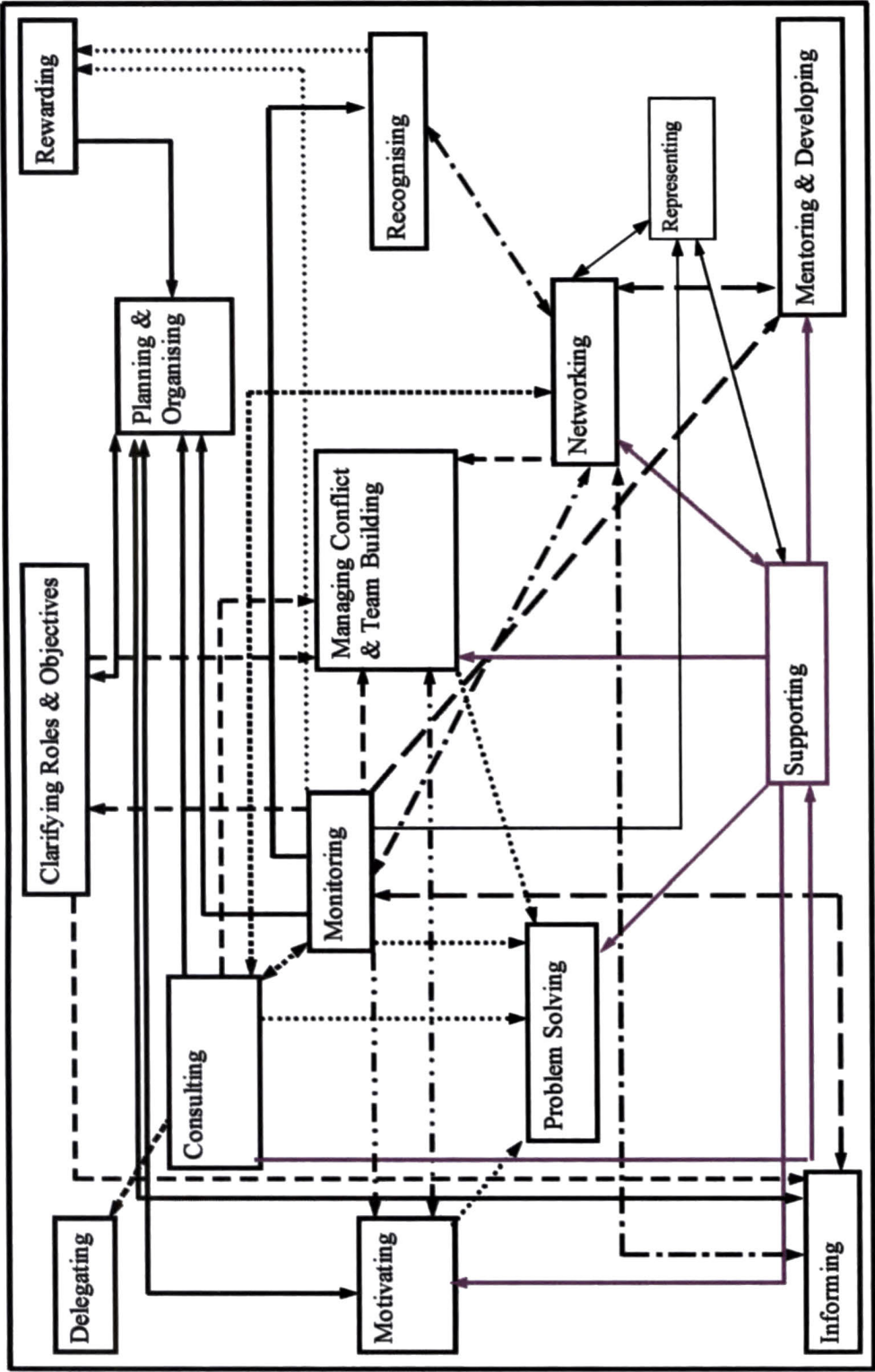
Appendix I 2. Interaction Between Networking And The Other Specific Behaviours.





Orange Lines Show Interactions for Consulting And Other Behaviours.
All Dark Lines Are For Other Interactions.

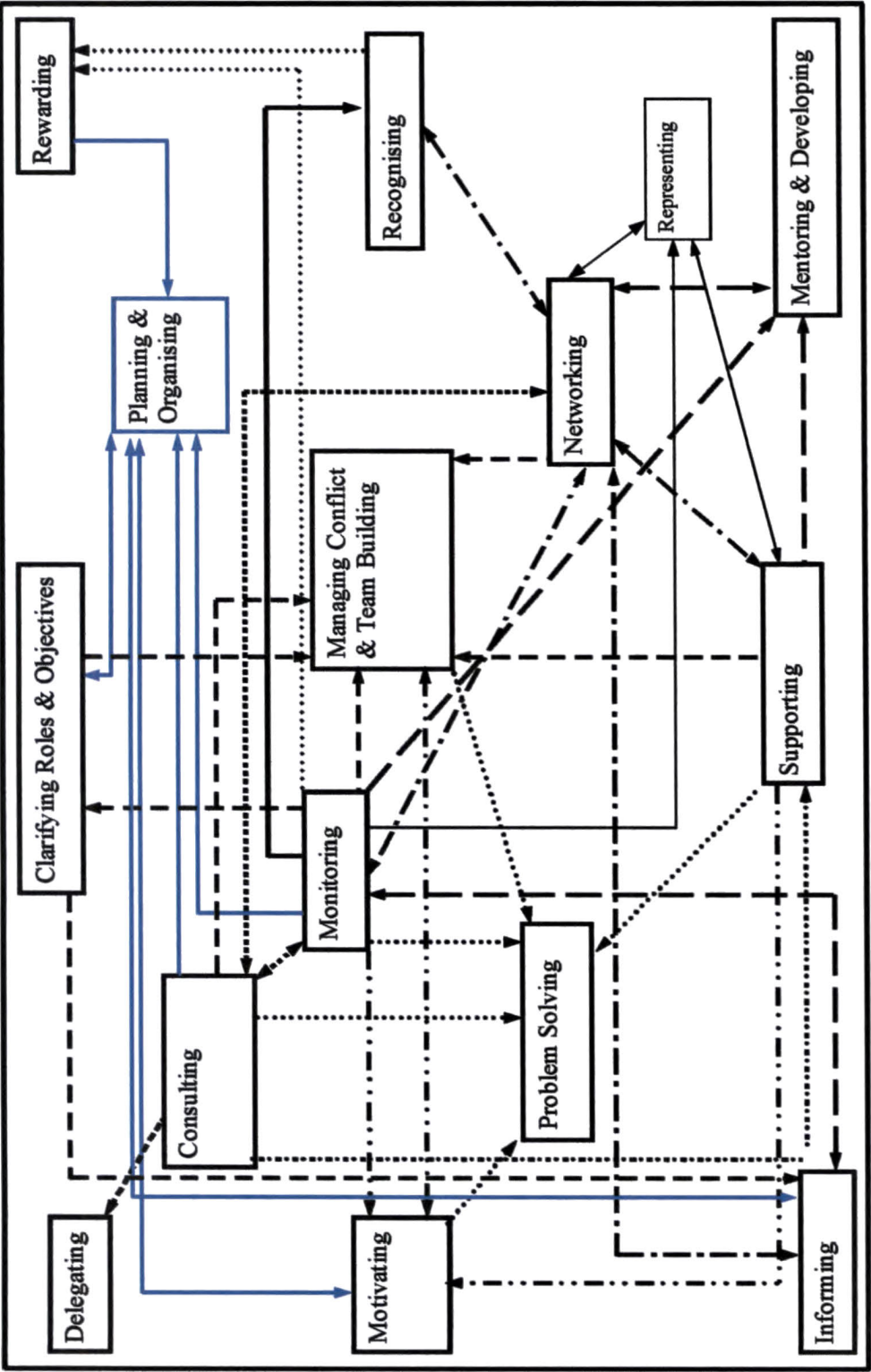
Appendix I 3. Interaction Between Consulting And The Other Specific Behaviours.





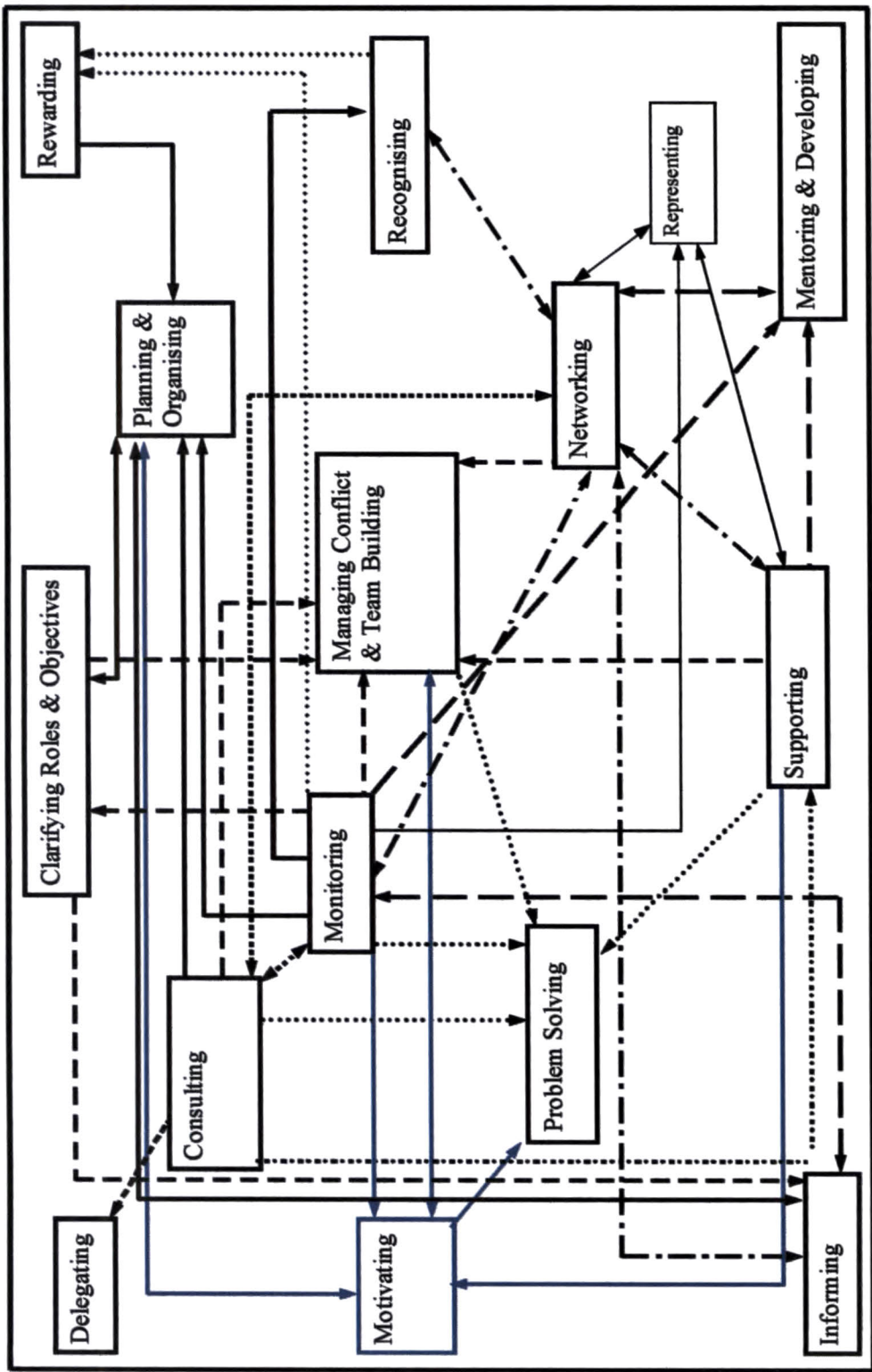
 Purple Lines Show Interactions for Supporting And Other Behaviours.
 All Dark Lines Are For Other Interactions.



Appendix I 5. Interaction Between Supporting And The Other Specific Behaviours.



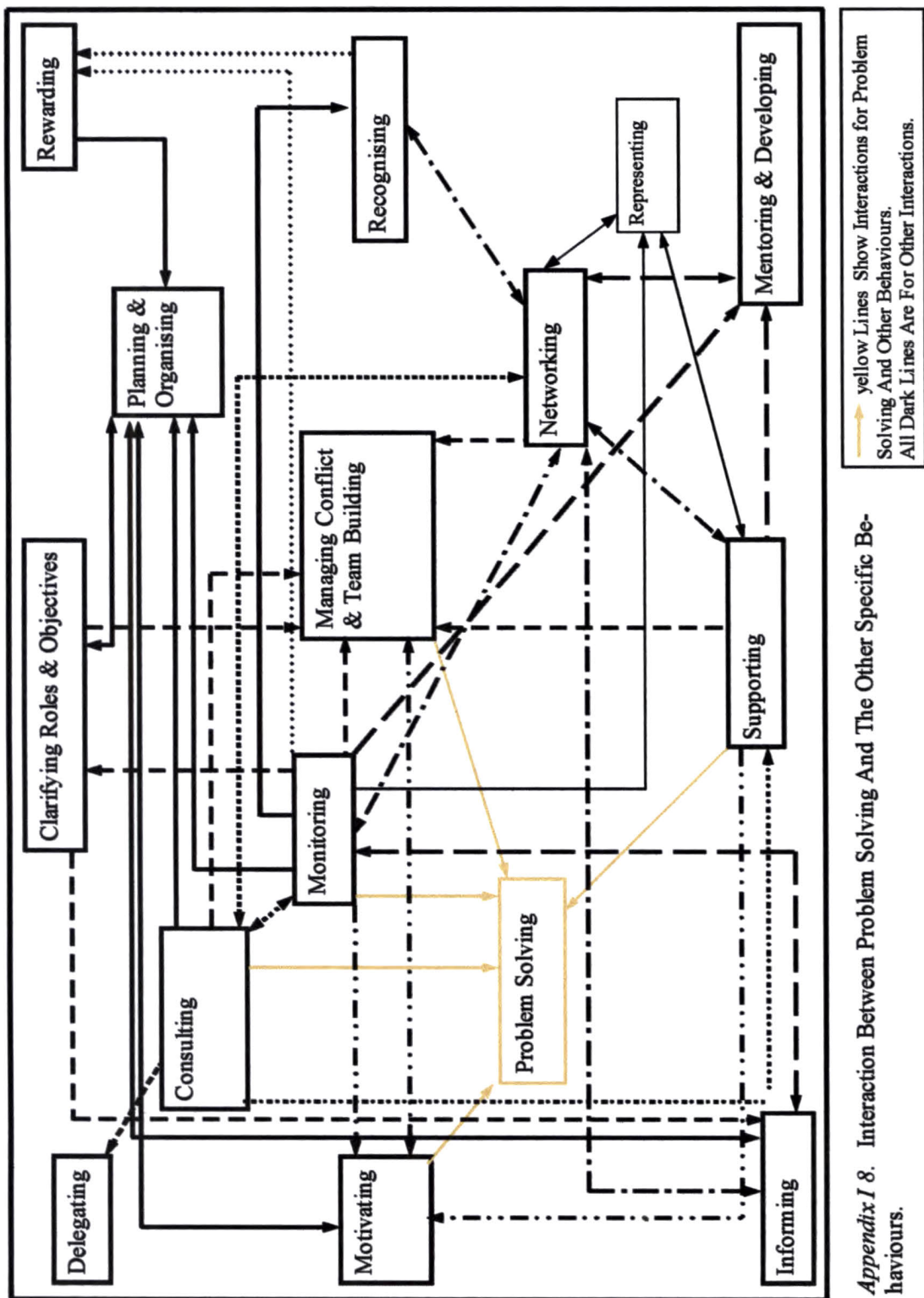
Blue Lines Show Interactions for Planning and Organising And Other Behaviours.
All Dark Lines Are For Other Interactions.

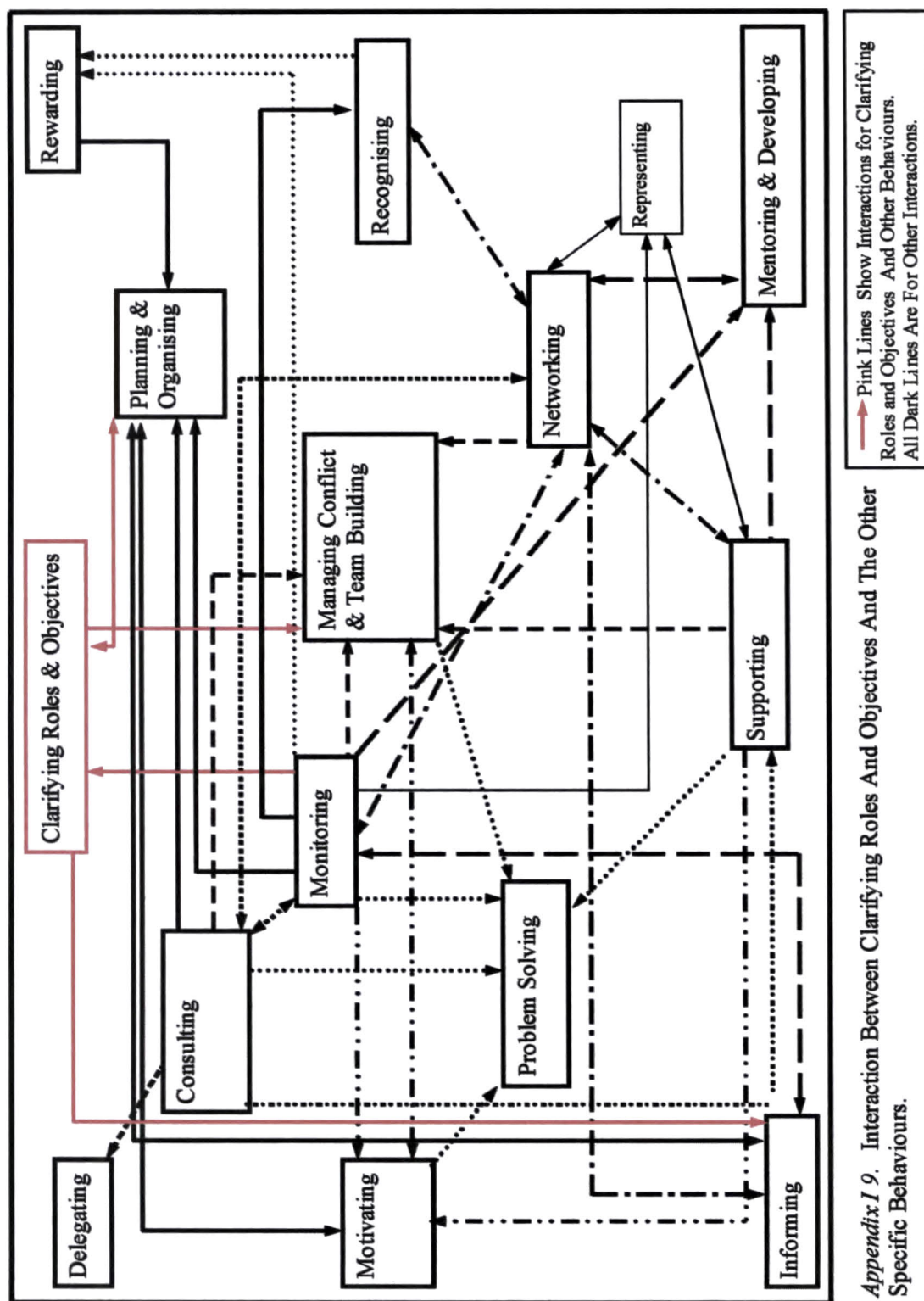
Appendix I 6. Interaction Between Planning and Organising And The Other Specific Behaviours.

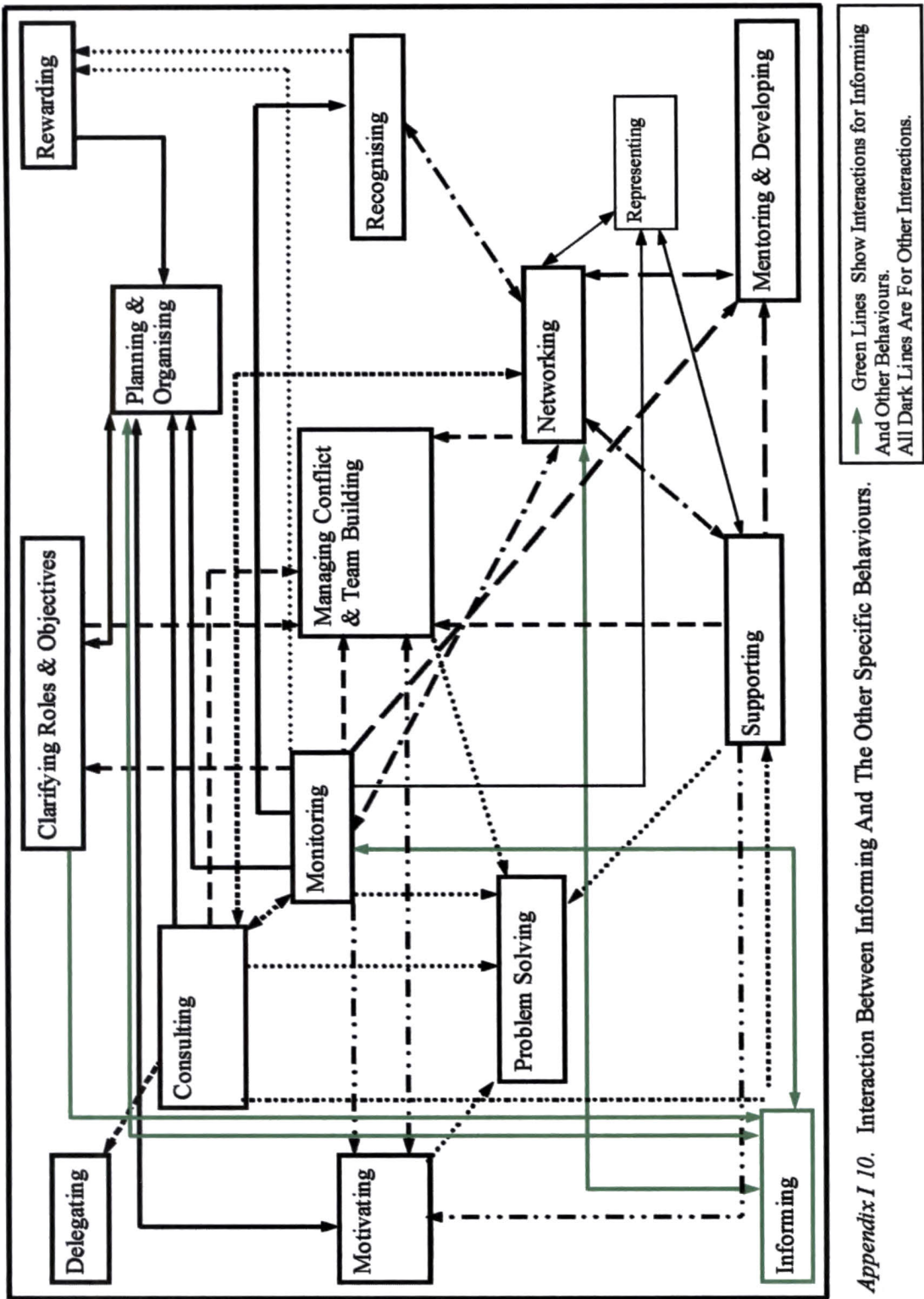


 Dark Blue Lines Show Interactions for Motivating And Other Behaviours.
 All Dark Lines Are For Other Interactions.

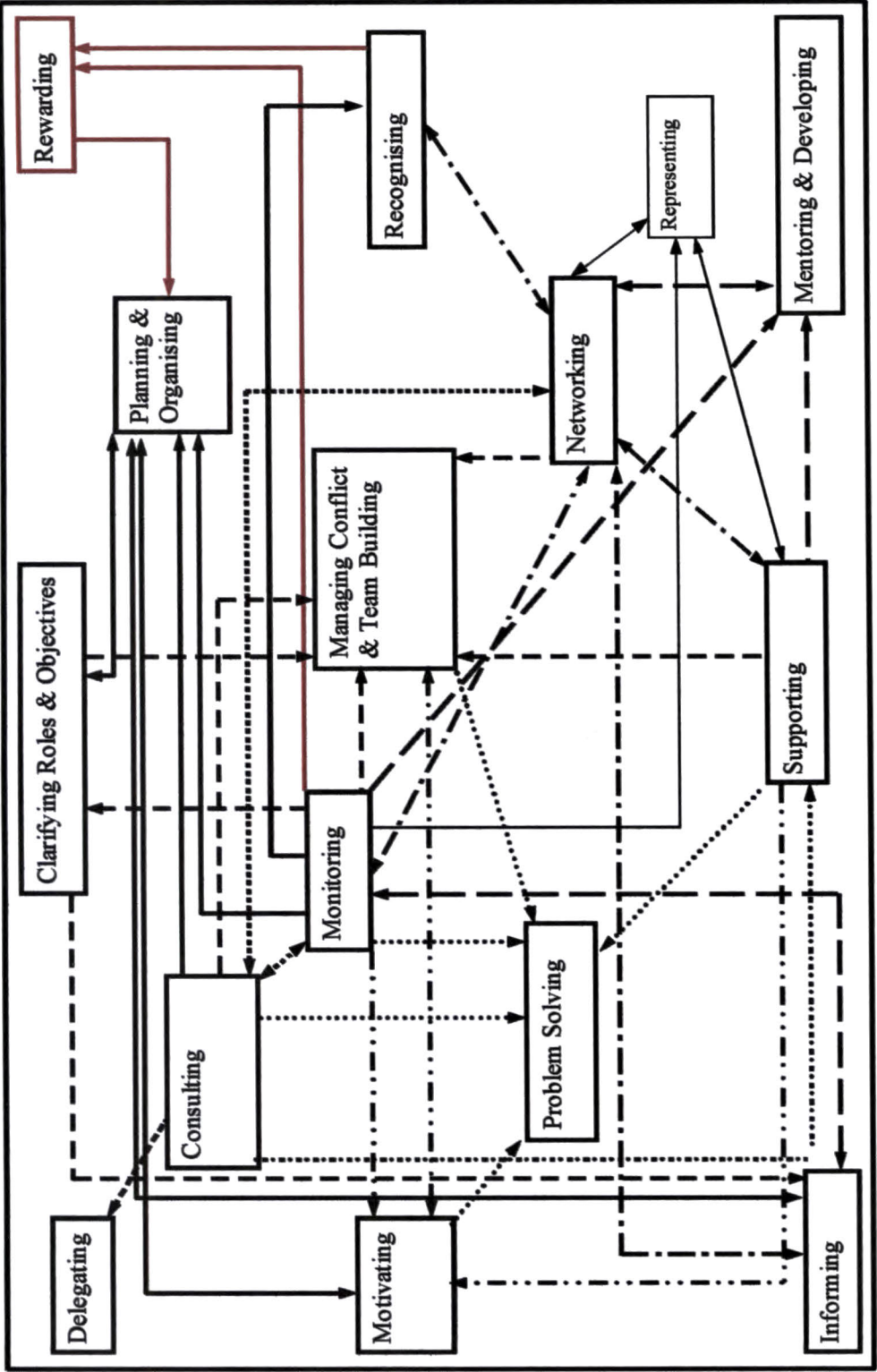
Appendix I 7. Interaction Between Motivating And The Other Specific Behaviours.





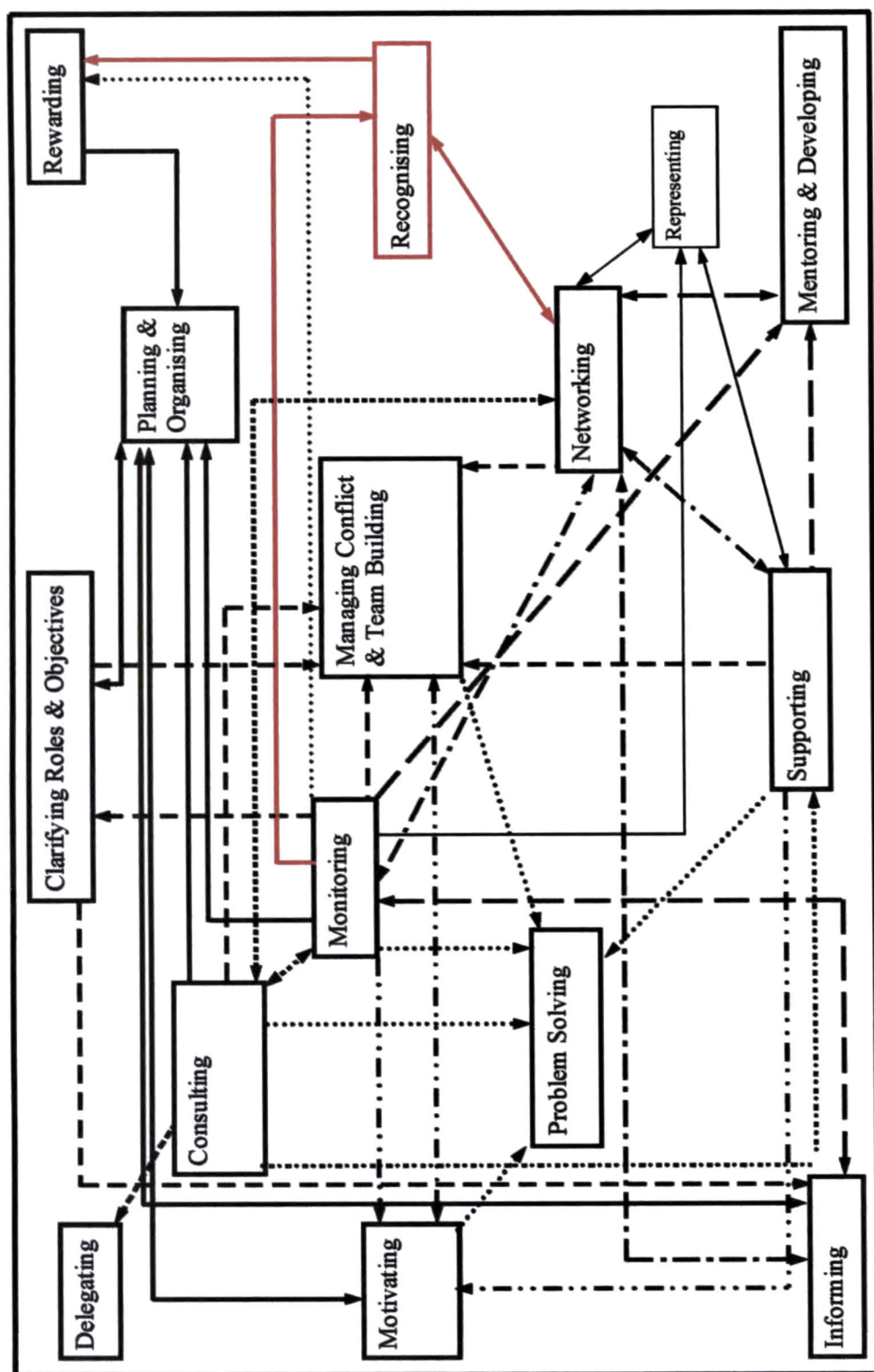


Appendix I 10. Interaction Between Informing And The Other Specific Behaviours.



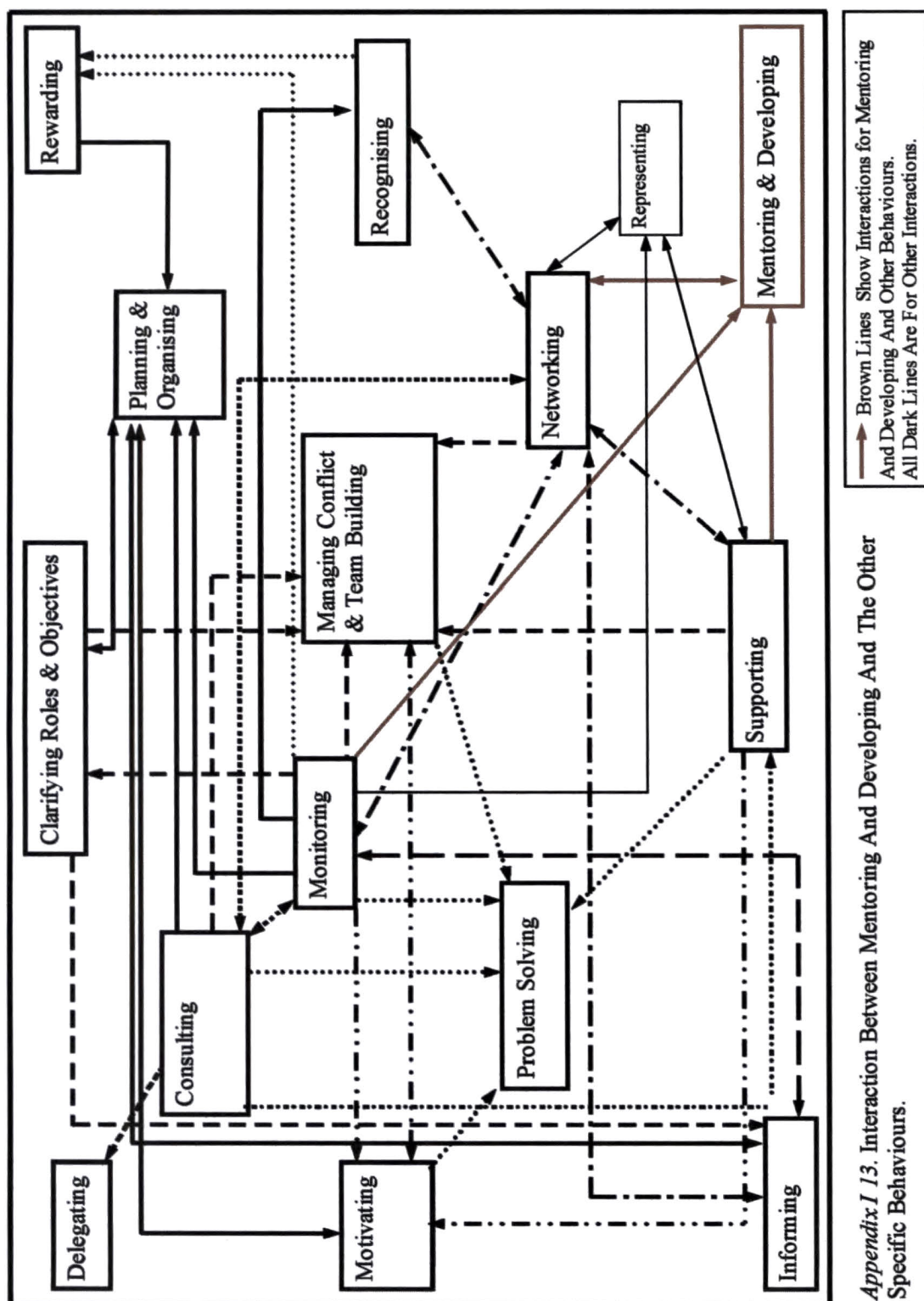
Dark Red Lines Show Interactions for Rewarding And Other Behaviours.
All Dark Lines Are For Other Interactions.

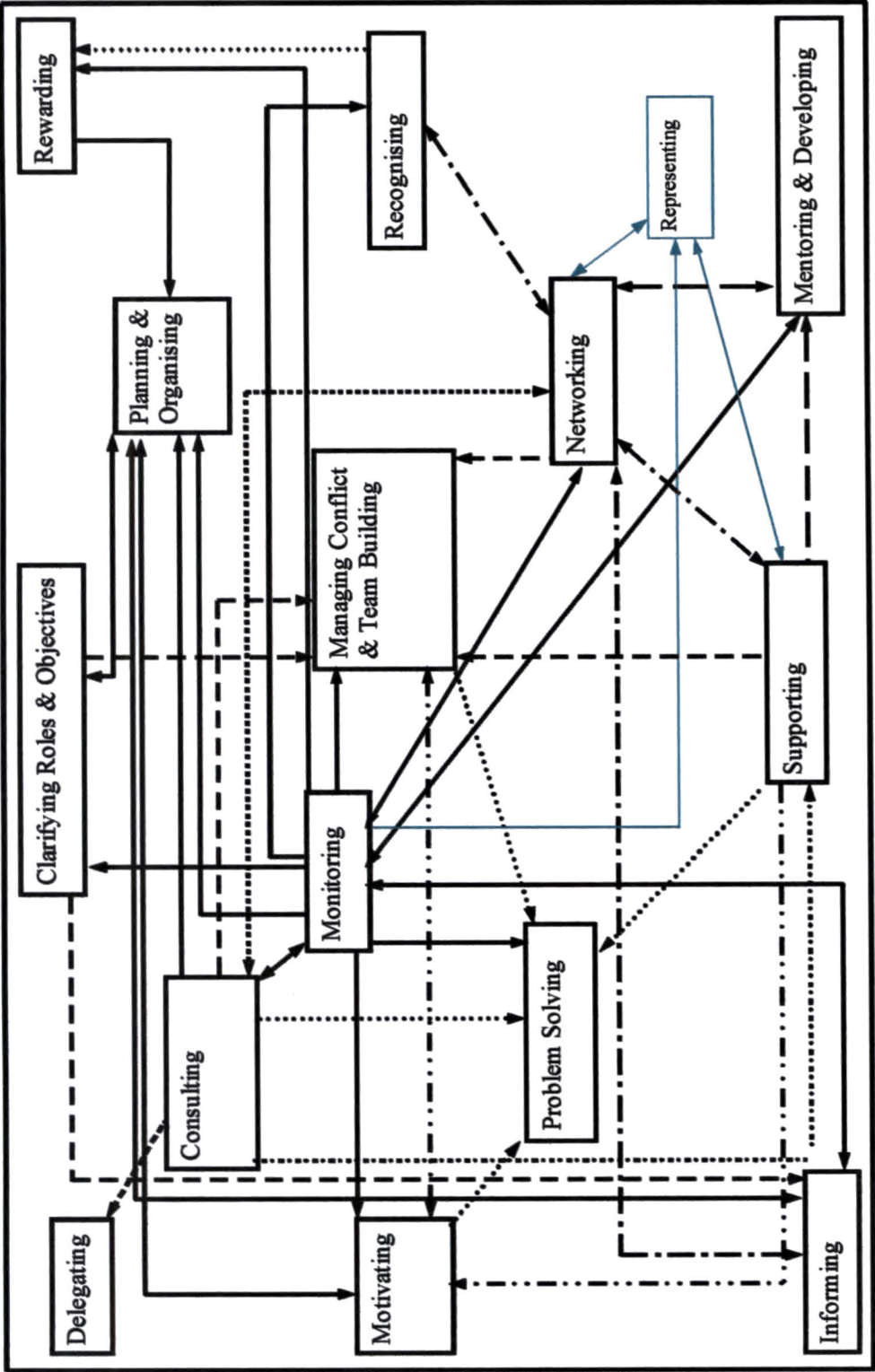
Appendix I 11. Interaction Between Rewarding And The Other Specific Behaviours.



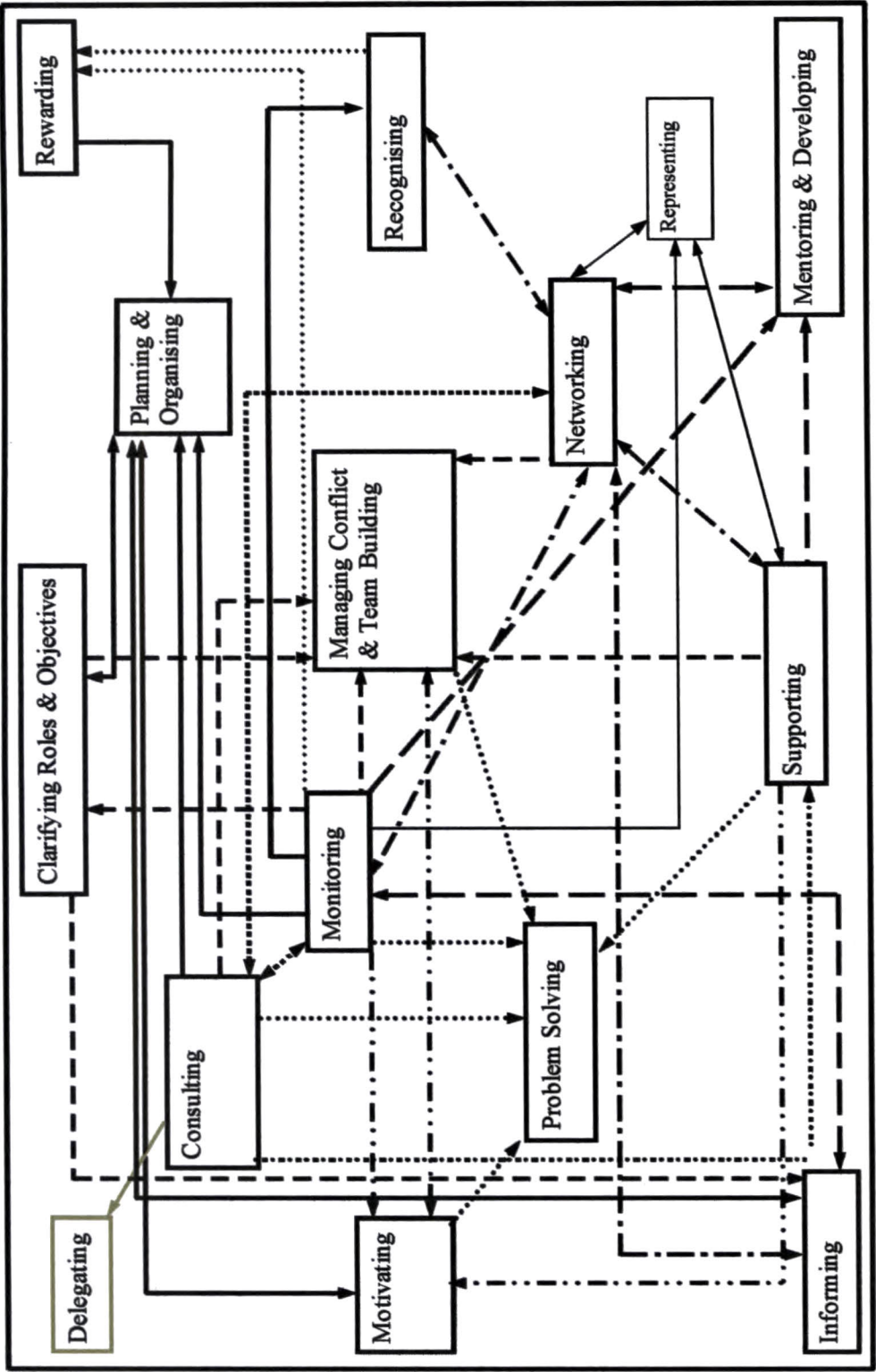
→ Red Lines Show Interactions for Recognising
 And Other Behaviours.
 All Dark Lines Are For Other Interactions.

Appendix I 12. Interaction Between Recognising And The Other Specific Behav-
 iours.





Appendix I 14. Interaction Between Representing And The Other Specific Behaviours.



Dark Yellow Lines Show Interactions for Delegating And Other Behaviours.
All Dark Lines Are For Other Interactions.

Appendix I 15. Interaction Between Delegating And The Other Specific Behaviours.