

**JIMMA UNIVERSITY  
COLLEGE OF NATURAL SCIENCE  
DEPARTMENT OF SPORT SCIENCE**



**ASSESSMENT OF COACHES LEADERSHIP STYLE DETERMINANT ON  
PLAYERS MOTIVATION IN ETHIOPIAN MALE FOOTBALL PREMIER  
LEAGUE CLUBS**

**M.Sc. THESIS**

**BY: - AMANU EBA**

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**JIMMAUNIVERSITY**  
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CLUBS**

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# TABLE OF CONTENT

Contents	
<b>LIST OF TABLE</b> .....	<b>iv</b>
<b>LIST OF FIGURE</b> .....	<b>v</b>
<b>LIST OF ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS</b> .....	<b>vi</b>
<b>STATEMENT OF THE AUTHOR</b> .....	<b>viii</b>
<b>BIOGRAPHICAL SKECH OF THE AUTHOR</b> .....	<b>ix</b>
<b>ACKNOWLEDGEMENT</b> .....	<b>x</b>
<b>ABSTRACT</b> .....	<b>xi</b>
<b>CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION</b> .....	<b>1</b>
1.1. Background of the Study .....	1
1.2. Statements of the Problem .....	3
1.3. Objectives of the Study .....	4
1.3.1. General objective .....	4
1.3.2. Specific objective .....	4
1.4. Significance of the Study .....	4
1.5. Delimitation of the Study .....	4
1.6. Operational Definition of Basic Terms .....	5
<b>CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW</b> .....	<b>6</b>
2.1. Leadership Theories .....	6
2.1.1. Trait school theory .....	6
2.1.2. Fiedler’s contingency theory .....	7
2.1.3. The Hersey-Blanchard: situational leadership theory .....	7
2.1.4. Path-Goal theory .....	8
2.1.5. The Normative Theory of Leadership .....	8
2.2. Commitment and Leadership .....	9
2.3. Leadership Behavior .....	10
2.4. A Sport Specific Approaches to Leadership .....	13
2.4.1 The Leadership Behavior Model .....	14
<b>2.4.2. Multidimensional Model of Leadership</b> .....	<b>16</b>
2.5. Leadership Studies by Using Leadership Scale for Sport .....	19
2.6. Motivation in Sport .....	22
2.7. Athletes’ Motivation .....	25
<b>CHAPTER THREE: MATERIALS AND METHODS</b> .....	<b>27</b>
3.1. Study Area .....	27
3.2. The Study Design .....	27

3.3. The Study Population.....	27
3.4. Sampling Techniques and Sample Size .....	27
3.5. Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria.....	28
3.6. Instruments.....	28
3.7. Identification of variables .....	28
3.7.1. Dependent variables .....	28
3.7.2. Independent variables .....	29
3.8. Methods and Procedures of Data Collection.....	29
3.9. Method of Data Analysis .....	29
3.10. Ethical Issues and Code of Conduct.....	29
<b>CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS .....</b>	<b>30</b>
4.1. Results.....	30
4.1.1. Demography of respondents .....	30
4.1.2. Descriptive statistics of variables subscales.....	35
4.1.3. Current existing coaches leadership style .....	36
4.1.4. Current existing players motivational status .....	37
4.1.5. Relationship between coaches leadership style and players motivational level .....	37
4.1.6. Effect of Coaches leadership style on players motivational status .....	39
4.2. Discussion .....	40
4.2.1. Demography of respondents .....	40
4.2.2. Descriptive statistics of variables subscales.....	41
4.2.3. Current existing coaches leadership style .....	41
4.2.5. Relationship between coaches leadership style and players motivational level .....	42
4.2.6. Effect of Coaches leadership style on players motivational status .....	43
<b>CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS .....</b>	<b>44</b>
5.1. Conclusions.....	44
5.2. Recommendations.....	45
<b>5. REFERENCES.....</b>	<b>46</b>
Appendix-I.....	55
Appendix-III .....	59

## **LIST OF TABLE**

Table 1. Coaches Gender .....	33
Table 2. Spearman correlation coefficient matrix between leadership and motivational subscale .....	37
Table 3. Correlation between coaches leadership style and players motivation .....	39
Table 4. Multivariate Roy's Largest Root Tests.....	39

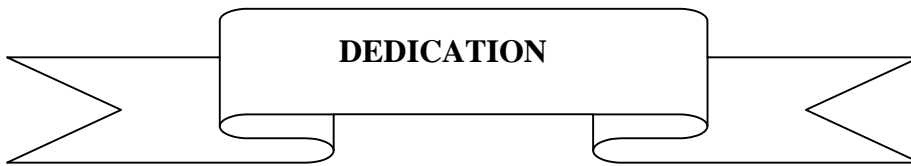
## LIST OF FIGURE

Figure 1 Leadership Behavior Model .....	16
Figure 2. Multidimensional I Model of Leadership .....	17
Figure 3. Mageau and Vallerand's (2003) motivational model of the coach-athlete relationship .....	23
Figure 4. Players playing experience in the club, 2015/16 .....	30
Figure 5. players' playing experience in the premier league .....	30
Figure 6. Players educational level .....	31
Figure 7. Ethiopian male premier league participating team selected players .....	32
Figure 8. Coaches' age in the premier league.....	32
Figure 9. Coaches coaching experience .....	33
Figure 10. Coaches' educational level.....	34
Figure 11. Coaches coaching license .....	34
Figure 12. Descriptive statistics of variables subscales .....	35
Figure 13. Result of Leadership style questionnaire.....	36
Figure 14. Result of Sport Motivation Scale.....	37

## **LIST OF ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS**

CAF	Confederation of Africa Football Federation
CBAS	Coaching Behavior Assessment System
EFF	Ethiopian Football Federation
FIFA	Federation of international de Football Association
LSS	Leadership Scale for Sport
SCM	The sport commitment model





I dedicate this manuscript to all my family, especially to my brother Rev. kelebessa Eba and to all my firends for treating and supported me in different issues.

## **STATEMENT OF THE AUTHOR**

I the undersigned declare that this thesis is my original work and has not been presented for any degree in any university and all the resource of materials used for this thesis have been dually acknowledged.

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## **ABSTRACT**

*The purpose of this study was to assess coach's leadership style determinants with player's motivation in Ethiopian male premier league clubs. Cross-sectional study design was employed. 14 players from each club and 201 players totally from all clubs were selected using simple lottery method and their sample size was determined by krejcie and morgan (1970). The instrument were used for this study was a Leadership Style Questionnaire developed by Peter, (2009) to assess the leadership style of coaches and the sport motivation scale questionnaire developed by Luc, et al., (1995) to determine players motivational climate. Player's motivation: - taken as dependent variables throughout this study. Which is measured by player's motivational scale by Luc, et al., (1995)? Coaching leadership styles was considered as independent variables, which affects player's motivation which is measured by peter (2009). Descriptive statistics, such as median, mode, histograms, bar chart, line graph frequency polygon, Spearman rank order correlation coefficient, and multivariate Roy's largest root tests and The level of significance was set at  $p$ -value  $< 0.05$  levels. The abovementioned analysis in disagreement with independently exercising leadership style such as autocratic and democratic and laissez fair couldn't brought significant change on football players motivational changes. Whereas, fruitful result was observed when mixed leadership style has been used, so that autocratic and democratic style have a positive influence on players motivation, autocratic and Laissez fair have a positive effect on player's motivation, Democratic and laissez fair have positive effect on players motivation. Finally, autocratic and democratic and laissez fair have a positive effect in bringing positive player's motivational scale. This finding suggested that mixed autocratic, democratic and lassiz fair leadership style positively influence football players motivational scale. Therefore, coaches should use them independently based on the situation and condition they could phase.*

**Key words:** Coach, Football, Leadership style, Motivation, Player and Premier league

# CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

## 1.1. Background of the Study

Leadership has been defined as the management of a group in a job in order to be suitably cohesive (Alemu, *et al.*, 2013), and fiddler, 19 67), Stogdill supposed the leadership as the process penetrating in the group and individual actions along with the specific goals in the definitive time (Stogdill, 1974).

It is easy to point to examples of great leaders, but it is more difficult to determine what makes them such great leaders (Weinberg and Gould, 2003). Colin Powell, former United State secretary of describes great leaders as great simplifiers, who have the ability to cut through arguments, debates and doubts to offer a solution everybody can understand (Harari, 2002). While efforts to study leadership have been spares and sporadic across the array of sports (Reimer and Chelladurai, 1995). Research from the sport psychology literature suggests that coaching is an important leadership competency because it has been found to have important effects on performance attitudes (Smith and Smoll, 1997).

The coach's leadership style can be taken as the affective process on the individual and the group who struggle to access the goals (Chelladurai and Riemer, 1997). The coaches should consider the sport skills as well as the individual's psychological skills, therefore, it is necessary to pay attention to the individual and the group processes along with the athlete's needs, they are one element of a useful coach (Ronayne, 2004). The coaches are the most important factor to guide the sport teams through the different leadership styles, the sport experts, coaches and the managers still believe that the athletes should increase their devotion and their trust to the team and the external and internal processes. The sport commitment model (SCM) has been recently introduced as the sign of the great success in the combination of duty and sport (Fathi, Hasan, *et al.*, 2013).

Roben N. Frast believes that the coaches are the main axis of sport teams. Among three factors including; the athletes, the coach and the spectators, it is the coach as the main organizer of progress. Nowadays, a successful coach is not the architecture of tactics; instead he is the leader who uses his psychological abilities to examine the players in order to guide them (Tahami, *et al.*, 2010). Chelladurai and Saleh (1980) have used tools to examine the leader, the tools is entitled

LSS (Leadership Scale for Sport) which examine the leadership in five aspects including: training and instruction, the social support, the positive feedback, the autocratic style and the democratic style. The training and instruction include; the behaviors by which the coach improves the athletes, the social support refers to the behaviors concerning with the athlete's positive, individual relations, their leisure, and the positive group climate. The positive feedback requires dedicating the gift for good performance. The last two aspects show the coach's methods in making decision. The democratic style includes the behaviors that let the athletes decide about the groups. On the other hand, the colonizer style concerns with the Coach's independent decisions (Chelladurai and Saleh, 1980).

Motivation entails the psychological forces that determine the direction of a person's behavior in an organization, a person's level of effort, and a person's level of persistence (Jones, & Gareth, 2006). Conversely, when motivation declines, coaches tend to display such negative traits as apathy, hostility and aggression, the traits also tend to undermine efficiency, productivity and sustainability. Indeed, motivation is the satisfaction of human needs (Senyah, 2003). Maslow hierarchy of needs theory and other needs theories provide managers with conceptual means of understanding motivation by giving guide to the needs and desires of individuals within an organization (Maslow, 1958). The needs theories suggest that to motivate a person to contribute valuable inputs to a job and perform at a high level, a sports director determine what needs the person is trying to satisfy at work and ensure that the person receives outcome that helps to satisfy those needs when the person performs at a high level and help the sports unit/directorate to achieve its goals (Jones, 2006). Motivational factors that include coaches performance include a high pay package; prospect for promotion; challenging environment; recognition; bonuses; facilities and equipment working environment.

Regarding the assigning role of coaches' leadership styles and the variables such as motivation and duty, it seems that there are some relations between the coaches' leadership styles and these variables. Fathi and Said Hosseini (2013) showed that there is positive, meaningful relations between the coaches 'leadership styles and the motivations toward the progress and the sport duties among the judo-athletes in Iran's better league. As whole, the coaches' leadership styles are the predicting factors to motivate the progress and the sport duties. Bagheri (2005) showed that there are not meaningful relations between the coaches' duty-based, leadership styles

and the player's duties. Besides, they showed that there are positive, meaningful relations between the coaches' combined leadership styles and the athlete's duty and digressions; furthermore, there is negative, weak relation between the leadership styles of coaches' social support and the player's duties and their digression which is not statistically meaningful. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to assess coach's leadership style determinants with players motivation in Ethiopian male premier league clubs.

## **1.2. Statements of the Problem**

Nowadays, the leadership in sport or coach is one of the most difficult jobs, because the coach is the goal-based job along with the exciting, creative and motivate program. In fact, there are many people who expect from this job which requires the different skills. The coach of team is usually assigned as the leader (Tahami, *et al.*, 2010). There have been done many researches on the leadership and the relative factors, Hughes *et al* (2008) explained that same of researchers have concerned with the features of leader himself, and other researches emphasize on the relation between the leader and the followers or the affective situation factors on the leadership (Fathi, Hasan, *et al.*, 2013).

Case (1984) believes that the coaches are vital elements of the word of "leader" to define them, but their duties are organized by leadership. The coaches try to achieve the team goals, the duties such as planning, organizing, and monitoring and penetrating in the players, as matter of fact, he provides the leadership politics among the groups as well as the social interactions (Ibid, 1984). The capability, creativity, and the brilliant experience in playing do not authorize the coach's actions; the coaches should be familiar with the different skills of leadership (Ibid, 1984).

Motivation plays a vital but often misunderstood role in sport and exercise. The role is critical because athletic success depends significantly on player's willingness to exert mental as well as physical effort in pursuit of excellence (Moran, 2004: 80).

In association, football as in other high status sports, the position of manager represents a stressful occupations in 2004-2005 more than half of the 92 managers that started the English professional season has been fired by the end of the season (Crust and Lawrence, 2006: 01).



Thus, based on the aforementioned reasons the researcher was tried to answer the following questions.

- What is the current existing coaches leadership style level?
- What is the current existing players motivational status?
- Is there significant relationship between coaches leadership style and players motivation?
- Does coaching leadership style significant affect the players motivation?

### **1.3. Objectives of the Study**

#### **1.3.1. General objective**

- This study was aimed to assess coach's leadership style determinants with player's motivation in Ethiopian male football premier league clubs.

#### **1.3.2. Specific objective**

- To identify the current existing leadership style level.
- To explore the current existing players motivational status.
- To find out the significant relationship between coaches leadership style and players motivation.
- To examine the effect of coaching leadership style on players motivation.

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

This study had certain outcomes which help to discover or to reach conclusions and helps to aware the leadership style of coaches, and also help to alleviate the challenges for players motivation in Ethiopian male football premier league clubs. Finally, this study will be helpful for other researchers as baseline information for future studies.

### **1.5. Delimitation of the Study**

- This study was conducted on 14 football clubs in Ethiopian male football premier league to assess coach's leadership style determinants with player's motivation.
- Only male players were taken as the subject for this study.
- Coaches and Assistance coaches were also be taken as the subject for this study.

## **1.6. Operational Definition of Basic Terms**

**Coaches:** persons or somebody's who trains sports players or a trainer of sports players and

Athletes (Encarta, 2009). In this study the coaches are individuals who train the players of each in Ethiopian premier league Football Clubs.

**Players:** somebody's taking part in game or individuals taking part in a sport or game, e.g. a Member of a team (often used in combination) (Encarta, 2009). In this study the players were Individuals who taking part in Ethiopian premier League Football Clubs.

**Leadership:** behavioral process of influencing individuals (players) and groups (team) to set and achieve goals. It is one of the key features of sports operations on the field of play, and also the key to successful management of sport practice off the field (Watt, 1998).

**Coach's Leadership Style:** the coach's manner or mode or method that he uses when leading, training, instructing, directing, commanding and guiding the players in different situation (Chelladuri, 1998). He classified them in to five subscales such as training and Instruction, Democratic, Autocratic, Social Support and Positive Feedback Behaviour.

**League:** is an alliance of teams that organizes sporting competition (soccer glossary).

**Club:** a team that plays in a league (soccer glossary)

## **CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW**

### **2.1. Leadership Theories**

The word “leadership” is a sophisticated, modern concept. In earlier times, words meaning “head of state”, “military commander”, “princeps”, “proconsul”, “chief” or “king” were common in most societies. These words differentiated the ruler from other members of society. Although the Oxford English Dictionary noted the appearance of the word “leader” in the English language as early as the year 1300, the word “leadership” did not appear until the first half of nineteenth century in writings about political influence and control of British Parliament and the word did not appear in the most other modern languages until recent times (Bass, 1990).

Today, there are many different definitions of leadership but there still appears to be no generally accepted definition of leadership. Burns (1978) stated that leadership is one of the least understood phenomena on earth. However, in order to make clear understanding of leadership phenomena, social scientists and behavioral psychologists have studied leadership for several decades and developed leadership theories. Leadership theories can be classified in three approaches. The first approach focused on the traits of great leaders. It was believed that successful leaders have certain personality that make them to be successful leaders in every situations and great leaders were born not made. The second approach focused on behaviors of effective leaders. Behaviorists argued that anyone could be great leader by learning behaviors of other effective leaders. Because of the weakness and fallacy of trait and behavioral approaches, leadership researchers focused on situational factors that are important to leadership success. Whereas trait and behavioral approaches, situational approach (the third approach) assumes that there is not one best type of leader but that leadership effectiveness depends on interaction between the leader and situation.

#### **2.1.1. Trait school theory**

In the field of leadership, for the last decades, a variety of leadership theories and approaches have been identified or developed. Trait theory is one of the earliest developments in the study of leadership. This theory were studied to determine what made certain people great leader. Trait theorists stated that leaders have common physical features and the same personality characteristics. A person is born a leader. Barker (2001) refers to this theory the ‘Great Person

Theory' as demographics and characteristics of the leader differentiate him or her from a 'normal' person. In a study by House, Shane and Herold (1996) the most important characteristics of an outstanding leader are an everlasting drive for achievement, honesty, integrity and the willingness and ability to share and motivate employees towards common goals. When you have these characteristics you are more likely to lead than to follow.

### **2.1.2. Fiedler's contingency theory**

Fiedler's (1967) contingency theory posited that effective group performance was dependent upon the appropriate match of the leader's personality and the situation. Personality orientation of the leader is centered on a task or interpersonal style. Situational factors that influence leader effectiveness included leader-member relations, degree of task structure, and power-position of the leader. Leader-member relations referred to the quality of the relationship between the leader and member. The leader's influence over the members was enhanced through a strong relationship. Task structure referred to how clearly the goals and methods to achieve the goals were stated and understood. As the structure of tasks increases for the group, so does the leader's influence over the members. Power-position of the leader referred to control over rewards and sanctions, authority over group members, and support provided from the organization. The leader's influence over the members was in direct proportion to the power possessed by the leader over the members.

### **2.1.3. The Hersey-Blanchard: situational leadership theory**

This theory is based on the amount of direction (task behavior) and amount of socio-emotional support (relationship behavior) a leader must provide given the situation and the level of maturity' of the followers.

This theory places the emphasis in leader behavior on the subordinates and not on the leader. Hersey and Blanchard (1969, 1977, and 1982) proposed that effective leaders could and should adjust their leadership style to respond to the life cycle needs of their followers and to the environment. Hersey and Blanchard (1982) suggested that an appropriate leadership style for a specific situation be determined by the maturity of the followers. Maturity is defined in terms of the capacity to set and obtain goals, willingness and ability to assume responsibility, and education or/and experience (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982).

#### **2.1.4. Path-Goal theory**

Path-Goal theory is about how leaders motivate subordinates to accomplish designated goals. Drawing heavily from research on what motivates employees, path-goal theory first appeared in the leadership literature in the early 1970s in the works of Evans (1970), House (1971), House and Dessler (1974), and House and Mitchell (1974). The stated goal of this leadership theory is to enhance employee performance and employee satisfaction by focusing on employee motivation. In contrast to the situational approach, which suggests that a leader must adapt to the development level of subordinates, and unlike contingency theory, which emphasizes the match between the leader's style and specific situational variables, path-goal theory emphasizes the relationship between the leader's style and characteristics of the subordinates and the work setting.

#### **2.1.5. The Normative Theory of Leadership**

The Normative theory is another approach to develop in the 1970s. Proposed by Vroom and his colleagues (Vroom and Yetton, 1973). This model is to design to examine the decision making of leaders. It provided a set of rules to determine the form and amount of participative decision making in different situation (Vroom and Yetton, 1973). Vroom's theory proposes five different methods of reaching a decision. The methods vary in the amount of input given to subordinates:

Autocratic I (AI): the leader makes the decision alone with the information already available.

Autocratic II (AII): the leader acquires information from subordinates and then decision alone, using the information gathered.

Consultative I (CI): the leader consults with subordinates individually, acquiring information and their suggestions/ comments. The leader then makes the decision alone, using the information gathered.

Consultative II (CII): the leader consults with subordinates in-group meeting, acquiring information and their suggestions/ comments. The leader then makes the decision alone, using information gathered.

Group Decision (GII): the leader consults with subordinates in a group meeting, acquiring information and their suggestions/ comments. The leader and subordinates then make the decision together -from Wann, 1997.

Chelladurai and Haggerty (1978) developed a normative model of decision styles in sport settings after the works of Vroom and his colleagues. Rather than using five decision styles in the manner of Vroom, Chelladurai and Haggerty's model includes three methods of decision making: autocratic, participative, and delegate. The autocratic style occurs when the coach makes the decision alone. The participative decision style occurs when the decision is made by a group of individuals. The delegate decision style occurs when the coaches delegate the decision-making responsibilities to others such as assistant coaches and players. One conclusion that is found from the several research testing the validity of this model is that delegation is quite rare in sport decision making (Chelladurai and Arnott, 1985).

## **2.2. Commitment and Leadership**

Leadership, as an organizational characteristic, is predictive of commitment (Glisson & Durick, 1988; Morris & Sherman, 1981). In general, the research on the relationship between leadership and commitment is organized into two leadership constructs: leadership behaviors and transformational leadership. The Ohio State Leadership Studies characterized leadership behaviors into two factors termed consideration and initiation of structure (Bass, 1981). Consideration comprised the extent to which a leader exhibited concern for the welfare of the other members of the group. Initiation of structure referred to the extent to which a leader initiated activity in the group, organized it, and defined the way work was to be done. Organizational commitment has been shown to be positively related to consideration and initiating structure (Hunt and Liesbscher, 1973; O'Reilly and Roberts, 1978; Sheridan and Vredenburgh, 1978).

Transformational leaders are characterized as having the ability to arouse subordinate commitment (Bass, 1985; Hater & Bass, 1988). However, few studies have examined the relationship between leadership and commitment through the context of transformational leadership. Koh, Steers, and Terborg (1995) found that transformational leadership had significant and substantial add-on effects to transactional leadership in the prediction of organizational commitment in an educational setting. In a sport setting, Kent and Chelladurai (2001) found transformational leadership to be significantly related to affective and normative commitment in an intercollegiate athletic department.

Yousef (2000) studied the role of organizational commitment in the relationships of

leadership behavior with the work outcomes of job satisfaction and job performance in a non-western country where multiculturalism was a dominant feature of the workforce. The results indicated that those who perceived their superiors as adopting consultative or participative leadership behavior were more committed to their organizations, more satisfied with their jobs, and maintained high levels of performance. The results also supported the role of organizational commitment as a mediator in the relationship between leadership behavior and job satisfaction and job performance.

### **2.3. Leadership Behavior**

According to previous studies and contemporary literature on leadership in sport, it may be concluded that coach's of different profiles communicate differently with their athletes, manifest different behaviors, and altogether, might influence athletes' motivation for sport in different ways. Leadership in sport is a process that involves the interaction of a coach, an athlete and situational factors (Chelladurai, 1993). A coach's leadership style depends on the way he/she interacts with his/her athletes and on his/her decision-making processes. A coach's leadership style influences the development of motivational climate, i.e. the coach-created motivational climate correlates highly with the perception of the coach's communication style (Torregosa, Suosa, Vildrach, Villamarin, & Cruz, 2008).

Coach's social interactions consist of several different processes like his/her instructiveness, supportiveness, and rewarding behavior (Chelladurai, 1990). A coach's instructiveness regarding his/her coaching behavior is aimed at improving athletes' performance by emphasizing and facilitating hard and strenuous training, instructing them in the skills, techniques, and tactics of a particular sport, clarifying athletes' roles and their mutual relationships, and structuring and coordinating athletes' activities. A coach's supportiveness regards his/her readiness to give social support to athletes. A coach considers welfare of an individual athlete; therefore he/she persists in creating a positive group atmosphere and establishes warm interpersonal relationships with athletes (Jowett & Chaundy, 2004). Rewarding behaviors illustrate coaching behaviors which reinforces an athlete by recognizing, praising and rewarding his/her exertion, improvement and good performance. The process of decision making consists of two different processes: cognitive and social. The cognitive process is concerned with the rationality of decisions, i.e. with identifying the problem, defining the problem and its relevant constraints clearly, generating and evaluating

different actions needed for problem solving, selecting the best alternative to achieve the desired end (Chelladurai&Queck, 1995). The social process of decision-making refers to the extent to which the coach allows athletes to participate in the cognitive processes of making a decision. These processes may influence athletes' motivation differently due to the athletes' perceptions and understanding of coach's direct and indirect messages deriving from his/her communication style and leadership behavior.

Generally, we may distinguish leaders as more or less task-oriented or people-oriented (Hillel, 2006). In sport we usually distinguish between two types of coaches - autocratic and democratic. The democratic coach is more athlete- than task-oriented. The coaches of this type are more supportive, more instructive and more ready to reinforce, encourage and give positive feedback information to their athletes than other coaches, thus increasing their athletes' sense of competence, independence, satisfaction and self- esteem (Chelladurai, 1993; Reimer &Toon, 2001). They employ a less controlling leadership style, allow their athletes to participate in the decision- making processes, and encourage them to solve some problems by themselves that may appear during practice or competition. Sometimes, they consult with athletes and then make decisions by themselves. The democratic coaches approach their athletes more individually, and their personal care of athletes is more obvious. They care about conflicts in the team, and try to help athletes to solve them. The democratic coach is more oriented towards athletes as people and interested in good interpersonal relationships, whereas he/she is less oriented towards outcomes, results, or winning. In the case of a failure the democratic coach will first talk to athletes trying to analyze their performance and trying even to comfort them. For the democratic coach all athletes are precious and all contribute to the team's success. Consequently, athletes perceive such a coach as a parent, a teacher or even a friend, and tend to have a close interpersonal relationship with him/her. Autocratic coaches, on the other hand, are more oriented towards task accomplishment and outcome than towards people; they are highly oriented towards results and winning. They are less supportive, less instructive and less rewarding (Reimer &Toon, 2001). They are more directives and use a more controlling leadership style, not allowing athletes' participation in decision-making. These coaches usually do not explain their actions; they solve problems and make decisions alone. In comparison to the democratic coaches, the autocratic coaches are less flexible, less innovative, and less ready to try new training or teaching methods. Also, autocratic coaches are not open to criticism and are highly self-confident. They influence athletes through



their authoritative leadership, severe approach, and their position of power, demanding respect and obedience from their athletes. They often punish a bad performance, failure or insufficient effort investment, but at the same time they might be very tolerant towards the high ability athletes who are treated like stars. Many autocratic coaches are ready to help or to give support to their athletes only in the case of severe problems (e.g. injuries, or illness). They are less ready to invest their capacities, time, etc. in less competent athletes who are considered as less important for the team.

According to some previous investigations, there are some desirable characteristics of, so called, 'credible coaches' – they have a broader definition of success than winning or losing (Duda&Balaguer, 2007), they are charismatic and they behave in a way their athletes respect and trust them, using this style for higher goals, improvement, proving themselves and even winning. They encourage their athletes to be more self-determined rather than compliant and controlled by their coaches, they develop such an environment where athletes can recover quickly from a loss, considering it as a challenge rather than a failure. Such coaches, "because they coach with both, heart and head, contribute to the development of athletes who are intrinsically motivated, committed and confident" (Duda&Balaguer, 2007, p. 118). Also, people who are recognized as good leaders seem to be dominant, highly intelligent and masculine (Kajtna, 2006); a good coach is a realist, ready to take responsibility; he/she is also an inventive, reliable, and trustworthy person (Tušak&Tušak, 2001). It may be said that some of the mentioned characteristics are more expected for democratic coaches. The democratic coaching style is probably more appropriate for the development of the desirable motivational patterns in athletes, which may probably result in more adaptive behaviors, and consequently, in a stronger commitment, a higher level of sportpersonship and higher achievement (Reimer &Toon, 2001; Stornes&Bru, 2002). Unfortunately, this is not a prevalent leadership style in the traditional Western sport culture; therefore, the authors hope that the empirical evidences about its benefits, presented in this article, could contribute to some changes in coaching behavior in the future so as to change it to a more desirable direction as regards athletes' motivational consequences.

This study examines the coach's contribution to the athletes' motivational structure. We established two research problems. First, we aimed at investigating if there were different profiles of coaches and if so, to determine them by using two sources of information: the coaches' self-evaluation of their own motivational tendencies (goal orientation and intrinsic motivation level)

and their athletes' evaluations of their coaches' leadership behaviors. The second goal was related to the investigation of the differences in motivational tendencies among the athletes pertaining to the teams trained by the coaches of the so determined different profiles.

We hypothesized there were at least two types of coaches within the observed team sports. The first ones were expected to be more autocratic (or less democratic) coaches whose motivational structure was predominantly defined by a high ego goal orientation and intrinsic-extrinsic motivation (high interest/enjoyment in coaching, high perception of competence, high feeling of pressure, moderate effort investment) (Amorose& Horn, 2000; Smoll& Smith, 1989; Vallerand, et al., 1987). The others were expected to be democratic coaches who were more autonomy supportive and used an athlete-centered approach (Mageau&Vallerand, 2003). Their motivational structure was defined by task goal orientation and high intrinsic motivation (high interest/enjoyment in coaching, high competence and effort investment, low pressure/tension).

Also, we expected a difference in motivational structures of athletes coached by coaches of different profiles. In other words, we hypothesized that the athletes whose coaches were democratic and favored the athlete-centered approach were more intrinsically motivated and perceived themselves as more competent (Mageau&Vallerand, 2003; Pelletier &Vallerand, 1996, Price & Weiss, 2000). Also, those athletes are task-oriented (Meyer, 1996) and perceive the motivational climate in their teams more as mastery-oriented (Douglas, 1998; Williams, 1996). We presumed that the athletes whose coaches were less democratic, less supportive, less instructive and less ready to give positive feedback were probably more extrinsically motivated (Amorose& Horn, 2000) and felt less competent (Horn, 1985); they were also mainly ego-oriented and perceived the motivational climate in their teams most- ly as performance-oriented (Douglas, 1998; Williams, 1996).

#### **2.4. A Sport Specific Approaches to Leadership**

Only recently, two significant theoretical frameworks have been advanced for the study of leadership in sport settings (Riemer & Chelladurai, 1995).

Smoll and Smith and their associates have proposed one approach. They posited a cognitive - behavioral model of leadership which specifies individual difference variables, situational factors, and cognitive processes assumed to mediate overt coaching behaviors and athletes' reactions to

them (Smith, Smoll & Curtis, 1978, 1979; Smith, Smoll, Curtis & Hunt, 1978; Smoll & Smith, 1980,1989).

The second approach is exemplified by Chelladurai's Multidimensional Model of Leadership that focused on the congruence among three leadership behavioral states: required, actual, and preferred. The antecedents of these three states of leader behaviors are the characteristics of the situation, the leader, and the members (Chelladurai, 1978, 1990, 1993; Chelladurai & Carron, 1978).

#### **2.4.1 The Leadership Behavior Model**

Smoll and Smith (1989) proposed the leadership Behavior Model that is based upon situation specific behaviors of the leader. The model's central process is defined with lines leading from coach behaviors to player perception of coach behaviors to player responses. This model stipulates that the ultimate effects of coaching behaviors are mediated by the meaning that players attribute to them. In other words, cognitive and affective processes serve as filters between overt coaching behaviors and youngsters' attitudes toward their coach. Thus, this model measured and defined relationship existing between a) what coaches actually do, b) how these behaviors are perceived and recalled by their players, and c) children's attitudinal responses to the total situation (Smoll & Smith, 1989).

In the model, coach individual difference variables include such factors as goals, intentions, perceptions of self/athletes, and gender. Player individual difference variables include such things as age, gender, and perceptions about coach, motivation, anxiety, and self-confidence. Situational factors include such things as nature of sport, competitive level, success/failure, and team cohesion. Coach behavior is influenced by the coach's perception of the individual athlete. A coach may treat an athlete who exhibits low self-confidence or high anxiety differently from other athletes.

In order to observe and code coaching behaviors Coaching Behavior Assessment System (CBAS) was developed by Smith, Smoll, and Hunt (1977). The CBAS permits the direct observation and coding of coaches' leadership behaviors during practices and games (Smoll & Smith, 1989). The observed behaviors are reactive and spontaneous in nature. The CBAS includes 12 categories that are divided into two classes of behaviors and spontaneous. Reactive behaviors are coach reaction

to player or team behaviors. Spontaneous behaviors are initiated by the coach and do not occur in response to a player behavior.

## **1. Reactive Behaviors**

Responses to desirable performance.

- Reinforcement: a positive, rewarding reaction to a good play or good effort.
- Non reinforcement: failure to respond to a good performance. Responses to Mistakes
- Mistake- contingent encouragement: encouragement given to player following a mistake.
- Mistake-contingent technical instruction: instructing and demonstrating to player how to correct a mistake he or she has made.
- Punishment: a negative reaction, verbal or non-verbal following mistake.
- Punitive technical instruction: technical instruction following a mistake given a punitive or hostile manner.
- Ignoring mistakes: failure to respond to a player mistake.

Responses to Misbehavior

- a. Keeping control: reactions intended to restore or maintain order among team members.

## **2. Spontaneous Behaviors**

Game-Related

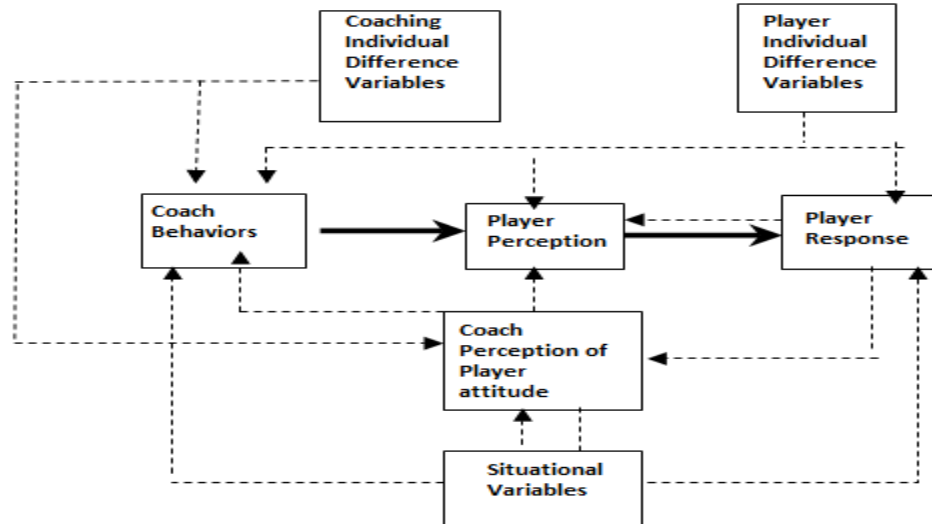
- General technical instruction: spontaneous instruction in the techniques and strategies of the sport (not following a mistake).
- General encouragement: spontaneous encouragement that does not follow a mistake.
- Organization: administrative behavior that sets the stage for play by assigning duties or responsibilities.

Game- Irrelevant

- a. General communication: interactions with players unrelated to the game (Smoll & Smith, 1989).

The CBAS has been the most widely studied system for observing and documenting coaching behaviors in youth sports. Research with the CBAS has revealed a number of interesting relationships. When they are working with the youth sport athletes, the dominant behaviors of coaches are positive reinforcement, general technical instructions, and general encouragement. The behaviors of keeping control and administering punishment are perceived by players to

occur much more often than they usually do. Another interesting finding is that coaches of youth sport teams spend a great amount of their time providing technical instruction and feedback to low-expectation youth than to high-expectation youth (Cox, 1998).



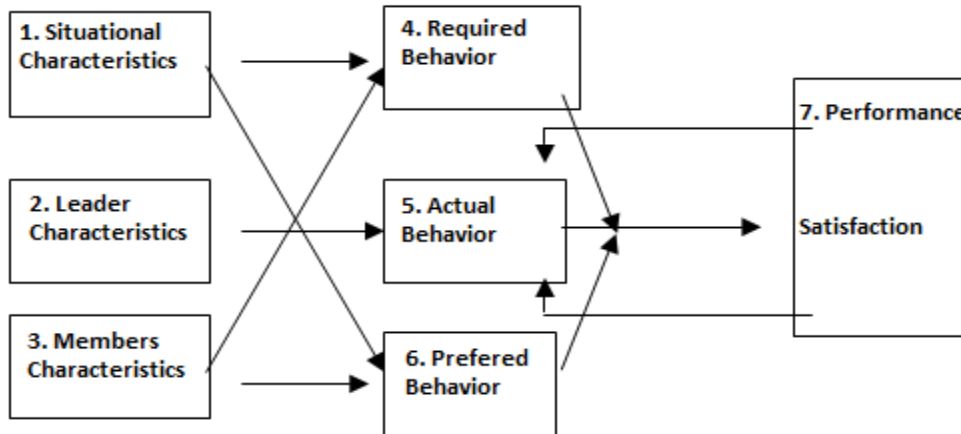
**Figure 1 Leadership Behavior Model**

(Note. Adapted from “Leadership Behaviors in Sport: A theoretical model and research paradigm”, by F. L. Smoll and R.E. Smith, in *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 1989, 19, 1522-1551.

### 2.4.2. Multidimensional Model of Leadership

Chelladurai (1978, 1990, and 1993) developed the Multidimensional Model of Leadership specifically for athletic situations. Chelladurai’s leadership model provides an interactional approach to conceptualizing the leadership process. He argues that leader effectiveness in sport is contingent on situational characteristics of both the leader and the group members.

In the multidimensional model, group performance and member satisfaction are considered to be a function of the congruence among three states of leader behavior: required, preferred, and actual. The antecedents of these states of leader behaviors are the characteristics of the situation, the leader, and the members.



**Figure 2. Multidimensional I Model of Leadership**

(Note. Adapted from “Leadership in sports: A review” by P. Chelladurai, in *International journal of Sport Psychology*, 1990, 21, 328-354).

### **Required Leader Behavior**

The leaders required to behave in certain ways by the demands and constraints placed by situational characteristics, i.e., the parameters of the organization and its environment. For example, the goals and the formal organizational structure of the team and the larger system, the group task and the associated technology, the social norms, cultural values, and government regulations are some of the situational characteristics that prescribe an exercise leader’s behavior (Chelladurai, 1990). Leader Behavior Preferred by Members preferences for specific leader behaviors are largely a function of the individual characteristics of group members. Personality variables such as need for achievement, need for affiliation, cognitive structure, and competence in the task influence a member’s preferences for coaching and guidance, social support and feedback. In addition, the situational characteristics also affect member preferences (Chelladurai, 1990).

### **Actual Leader Behavior**

Actual leader behaviors are simply the behaviors the leader exhibits. According to Chelladurai, the leader’s characteristics, such as personality, ability, and experience affect these behaviors directly. In addition, leaders are considerably influenced by situational requirements. Actual behaviors are also directly affected by group preferences (Chelladurai, 1990).

## **Performance and Satisfaction**

Chelladurai and Riemer (1997) have defined athletic satisfaction as “a positive affective state resulting from a complex evaluation of the structures, processes, and outcomes associated with the athletic experience” Performance and satisfaction are a function of the degree of congruence among the three stages of leader behavior. They are not independent of each other. Thus, performance and satisfaction are jointly affected by congruence among the required, preferred, and actual leader behavior (Chelladurai, 1990). Recently, Riemer and Chelladurai (1998) developed a multiple-item, multiple dimension scale to measure athlete satisfaction.

## **Leadership Scale for Sport (LSS)**

Chelladurai and Saleh (1980) to assist in the testing of the Multidimensional Model of Leadership developed the Leadership Scale for Sport (LSS). The LSS was developed to measure leadership behaviors, including the athletes' preferences for specific behaviors, athletes' perceptions of their coaches' behaviors, and coaches' perceptions of their own behavior (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1980). The LSS has five dimensions:

- **Training and Instruction:** coaching behavior aimed at improving the athletes' performance by emphasizing and facilitating hard and strenuous training; instructing them in the skills, techniques, and tactics of the sport; clarifying the relationship among the members; and by structuring and coordinating the members' activities (Chelladurai, 1990).
- **Democratic Behavior:** coaching behavior which allows greater participation by the athletes in decisions pertaining to group goals, practice methods, and game tactics and strategies (Chelladurai, 1990).
- **Autocratic Behavior:** coaching behavior which involves independent decision making and stress personal authority (Chelladurai, 1990).
- **Social Support:** coaching behavior characterized by a concern for the welfare of individual athletes, positive group atmosphere, and warm interpersonal relations with members (Chelladurai, 1990).
- **Positive Feedback:** coaching behavior which reinforces an athlete by recognizing and rewarding good performance (Chelladurai, 1990).

## **2.5. Leadership Studies by Using Leadership Scale for Sport**

Several authors have dealt with some of the antecedents elements of the Multidimensional Model of Leadership in their research and in the recent years, the LSS has been mostly used in coaching leadership studies (Weiss & Friedrichs, 1986; Schliesman, 1987; Garland & Barry, 1988; Dwyer & Fischer, 1990; Riemer & Chelladurai, 1995; Riemer & Toon, 2001; Ipinmoroti, 2002).

### **Individual Differences**

Erle (1981) assessed the effects of sex, experience, and motivation on the leadership preferences of university and intramural players. He found that males preferred training and instruction more than females. Also, athletes high on task motivation preferred more training and instruction, on the other hand, athletes high on affiliation motivation and extrinsic motivation preferred more social support. Moreover, the greater experience the higher the preference for positive feedback in competitive sports.

Chelladurai and Carron (1983) examined the high school midget, high school junior, high school senior, and university level basketball players' preferences – a paradigm thought to reflect the maturity level of the subjects. Trend analysis revealed two significant results. First, preference for training and instruction progressively decreased from high school midget through junior to senior levels and increased at the university level. Secondly, the preference for social support progressively increased from the high school midget level to the university level.

Garland and Barry (1988) examined the influence of personality traits and perceived leader behaviors on performance in collegiate football. Garland and Barry considered the grouping of athletes into regulars, substitutes, and survivors as a performance measure. They found that personality traits and leader behaviors taken together contribute significantly to the prediction of performance. Players who were more group dependent, tough-minded, extroverted, emotionally stable and who perceived their coach as offering more training and instruction, having a democratic decision style, being more socially supportive, and offering more positive feedback were associated with higher levels of performance. Whereas, players who perceived their coach as having an autocratic decision style were associated with lower levels of performance.



## **Situational Variables**

Chelladurai, Imamura, Yamaguchi, Oinuma, and Miyauchi (1988) studied the effects of culture (a situational variable) on sport leadership. This study explored the difference between Japanese and Canadian university level male athletes in their leader behavior preferences and perceptions of leader behaviors, their satisfactions with leadership and personal outcome, and the relationships between leader behaviors and satisfactions. The results showed that a) the Japanese athletes preferred more autocratic behavior and social support while the Canadian athletes preferred significantly more training and instruction, and b) the Japanese athletes perceived higher levels of autocratic behavior while the Canadian athletes perceived higher levels of training and instruction, democratic behavior, and positive feedback.

Another study to mention effects of situational variables on leadership behavior patterns was performed by Ipinmoroti (2002). This study was to find out whether type of sport would be a predictor of coach leadership behavior. Subjects in this study consisted of team sport coaches and individual sport coaches. Findings of this study did not show any significant differences in coach leadership behaviors of team and individual sport coaches.

## **Consequences of Leadership**

Some authors have dealt with the consequences of leadership. For example, Chelladurai (1984) examined the relationship between the discrepancy between preferred and perceived leadership and athlete satisfaction in varying sports on the basis of task variability and/or task dependence. The results showed that discrepancy in leadership for athletes in various sports were associated with three measures of satisfaction: satisfaction with team performance, with leadership, and overall involvement. Further, discrepancies in training and instruction and positive feedback were the most common dimensions of leader behavior affecting the athletes' satisfaction in all three sport groups (basketball, track and field, and wrestling).

Horne and Carron (1985) examined the relationship between coach-athlete compatibility and athlete performance and the relationship between coach-athlete compatibility and athlete satisfaction on university volleyball, basketball, track and field, and swimming athletes and their coaches. They found that the discrepancy between athletes' perceptions and their preferences for positive feedback and autocratic behavior were the best discriminators of compatible and

incompatible dyads. Further, the results showed that the discrepancies in training and instruction, social support and positive feedback were significant predictors of athlete satisfaction with leadership.

In Schliesman's (1987) study of university track and field athletes, perceived democratic behavior and social support were positively related to general satisfaction with leadership. Also discrepancy scores in training and instruction, social support, and positive feedback were significantly related to satisfaction with the three leader behaviors. The higher the perception of those behaviors relative to the preferences, the higher the satisfaction. In addition, Schliesman mentioned that the perceived democratic behavior and social support were slightly better predictors of satisfaction with general leadership than the corresponding discrepancy scores.

Weiss and Friedrichs (1986) examined the relationship of university basketball players' perceptions of coach behavior, coach attributes, and institutional variables to team performance and athlete satisfaction. They found that neither institutional nor coach attribute variables were significantly related to team performance or satisfaction. On the other hand, leader behaviors were found to be significantly related to these team outcomes. Positive feedback was found as the most predictive of team satisfaction. Analysis with individual satisfaction scores revealed that size of school, coach attributes, and leader behaviors were predictive of athlete satisfaction. Moreover, coaches who engaged in more frequent rewarding behavior, social support behavior, and democratic behavior produced more satisfied athletes.

In their study, Riemer and Chelladurai (1995) the differences between the offensive and defensive personnel of football teams in preferred leadership, perceived leadership and satisfaction with leadership, and also, the relationship among preferred and perceived leadership, their congruence, and satisfaction with leadership were examined. The results showed that defensive players preferred and perceived greater amounts of democratic behavior, autocratic behavior, and social support than did offensive players. Also, the congruence preferred and perceived leadership in the dimension of social support was critical to enhancing member satisfaction. On the other hand, perceived leadership in training and instruction as well as positive feedback was stronger determinants of satisfaction with leadership than either the preferred leadership or the congruence of preferred and perceived leadership in these dimensions. While some indicated a significant curvilinear relationship between discrepancy scores of leadership

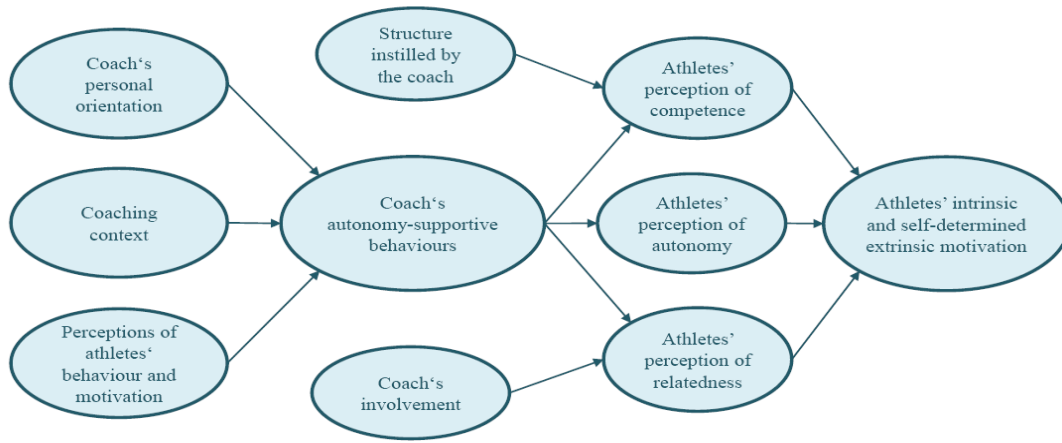
behavior and satisfaction with leadership, others indicated a significant linear relationship or no relationship. Riemer and Chelladurai, 1995 suggested that the inconsistencies in the direction and pattern of the reported significant relationship may stem from the problems associated with the use of discrepancy scores.

## **2.6. Motivation in Sport**

Participation in exercise and sport has been valued as an important way to increase personal fitness and emotional well-being (Biddle & Mutrie, 2001) by a high number of researchers and health practitioners. As sport participation is a nearly universally acknowledged way to improve personal fitness (Vuori, 1995), the question why some people behave in certain ways while others do not has been the central question of behavioral science for a long time (Mallett, Kawabata, Newcombe, Otero-Ferero, & Jackson, 2007). Therefore, the reasons for engaging in any particular behavior are at the center of interest for everyone empowered to influence others like teachers, sport coaches or parents in order to motivate people to act in desired ways, for example in the sports or educational context. The determinants for reasons to act, which can also be named motivation, are of interest mainly because of two reasons: The explanation of past and actual behavior as well as the prediction and active influence of future behavior. In order to achieve this, different motivational theories have been proposed. One of the theories which is especially useful for the context of sport is self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985a, 2000), because it implies social and cognitive factors and different types of motivation as well as behavioral consequences. Self-determination theory differentiates between intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation and amotivation as well as the extent to which these different types of motivation are perceived as autonomous and emanate from the self (Deci & Ryan, 1985b). In line with self-determination theory, a four- stage causal sequence has been proposed by Vallerand (1997) which contains the sequence of: Social factors, which have an influence on psychological mediators, which again have an influence on types of motivation which finally lead to behavioral consequences.

In the context of sport, the coach has been identified as an influential social factor at all competitive levels (e.g. Horn, 2002; Smoll, & Smith, 2002; Barnett, Smith, & Smoll, 1992; Bredemeier & Shields, 1993; Scanlan, 1986). The way a coach structures practice and game situations, his way of making decisions, the quality and quantity of feedback he provides in response to athletes' performances, the relationships he establishes with athletes as well as his

leadership style can all have an impact on athletes' behaviors, cognitions, and affective responses (Amorose, 2007; see also Figure 1).



**Figure 3. Mageau and Vallerand's (2003) motivational model of the coach-athlete relationship**

Different motivational models have been proposed. According to these, coaches can influence the learning processes of their athletes, their enjoyment during participation and the sense of competence and self-determined motivational orientation they develop (Chelladurai, 1993; Horn, 1987, 2002; Mageau & Vallerand, 2003; Murray & Mann, 2001; Smoll & Smith, 2002).

As coaching behaviors can also “lead to negative achievement-related and psychological outcomes (e.g. poor performance, low self-esteem, high levels of competitive anxiety and burnout)” (Amorose, 2007, p. 209), the question arises which coaching behaviors facilitate and which behaviors decrease the athletes' motivation. A sports coach in team sports as well as in individual sports is in an unequal power situation with his athletes, which gives him the privilege of making decisions that affect the whole motivational climate (Ames, 1992a). Therefore coaches are made responsible for different goals to be achieved and need to ensure the development of different aspects as outlined by Martens (2004): Recreational sports have an emphasis on fun, learning and participation by all, whereas competitive sports focuses on winning, performance and participation by the best (Martens, 2004, p. 21). Because of this responsibility, coaches at the recreational level as well as coaches involved in competitive or elite level sports should have an

interest in developing a motivational climate for their athletes which facilitates the successful achievement of these different outcomes.

Coaching behaviors have been found to have strong implications on the recreational level in relation to dropout (Chatzisarantis, Hagger, Biddle, Smith, & Wang, 2003), enjoyment and fun (Simons, Dewitte, & Lens, 2003), and persistence (Gagné, Ryan, & Bargmann, 2003). However, links between coaching behaviors and concentration (Kowal & Fortier, 1999) and coaching behaviors and effort and performance (Simons, Dewitte, & Lens, 2003) make clear that for a coach in order to achieve the desired outcomes an effective “usage” of his coaching behaviors is equally important in competitive sports where performance is of higher importance (Martens, 2004).

Keeping the many positive impacts of physical activity on several biological functions as well as its role in the prevention of overweight and obesity (Wing, 1999; Clark & Blair, 1988) in mind, it becomes clear that a coach can have an important indirect influence on the aforementioned consequences through his role as a social factor. This influence is also apparent when an increase in performance is desired as in a sports context where achievement and performance are prevalent. Acknowledging this influence of the coaching process, it becomes clear that the high dropout rates in recreational sport participation especially at the beginning of adulthood (Sarrazin, Boiche, Pelletier, 2007, p. 229) as well as the high levels of burnout in competitive sports (Klinger, 1975) must lead to the assumption that the responsible coaches are either not aware of how the motivational climate they create and their displayed coaching behaviors may influence their athletes’ motivation, which consequently can lead to the undesired outcomes described, or, which would be equally bad, they might be unable to change their coaching behavior.

The aim of the following thesis therefore is to analyze the impact of different coaching behaviors on different types of motivation which differ in their extent of perceived self-determination (Deci & Ryan, 1985b). Secondly it will be analyzed whether it is rather the impact of perceived coaching behaviors or the impact of observed coaching behaviors which leads to the fulfillment of the three basic needs of relatedness, competence, and autonomy which may increase or decrease the amount of self-determined forms of motivation. This analysis will be carried out in the context of and based on the results of this analysis, recommendations for coaching behaviors in the given context will be attempted in order to promote the desired types of more self-determined motivation

and beneficial outcomes such as better performance, lower drop-out rates or more enjoyment during sport participation.

To the knowledge of the author no study on motivation which compromises the basic tenets of self-determination theory was carried out with senior, male handball players of different playing levels before. As the majority of research examining motivation from a self-determination theory point of view focuses on youth and university sports participants (Treasure, Lemyre, Kuczka, & Standage, 2007), it was decided to restrict the participants to those who are playing and training in organized club structures.

## **2.7. Athletes' Motivation**

Each individual has certain dispositional goal orientations and perceives a situational goal structure, i.e. environmental climate, individually, in a specific manner. These two perspectives (the athlete's and environmental) could be either congruent or not, but they represent two dimensions of athletes' motivation that interact in affecting his/ her behavior (Roberts, 2001). The situational goal structure mainly depends on the coach and his/her leadership behavior. According to the Integrated Model of Antecedents and Consequences of Coach Leadership (Duda & Balaguer, 1999), the variations in individual or team motivational patterns are the function of the interaction between the variables of athletes' individual differences (personality, goal orientations, self-perceived ability) and his/her perception of the motivational climate operating in his/her team. In previous studies, based on the Self Determination Theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2000) it was assumed that the coach is one of the key factors that influence motivational climate development (Biddle, 2001; Chelladurai & Reimer, 1998; Duda & Balaguer, 1999; Jowett, 2003; Mageau & Vallerand, 2003). It is undisputed that coaches have an important role in the development of athletes in general. As coaches differ in their personality, competencies, qualifications, communication skills, motivational structure, leadership behaviors, etc., they may also influence the athlete's motivation differently. Coaches' behavior is predicted to be influenced by their persistent orientations, pre-dominant motivation, situations in which they work, and by their perceptions of their athletes' motivation (Vallerand, Deci, & Ryan, 1987). In the context of sports, different types of coaches may exist with regard to their personality traits, coaching experience, age, educational level, leadership style, etc. It is also possible to presume that there are different types of coaches with regard to their motivational structure. Motivational differences

may be related to the differences in coaches' interpersonal styles, and it is an important factor of athletes' intrinsic motivation and self-esteem (Vallerand & Pelletier, 1985). A coach's motivational pattern could influence athletes' motivation indirectly. In other words, coach's motivation could have a high impact on his/her leadership behavior which in turn can cause differences in the prevalence of particular types of motivation in athletes, regarding their goal choices, the domination of a particular motivational pattern in the team and, in general, it can influence athletes' experience of their coach (Vallerand & Perreault, 1999). Further, all the previously mentioned will influence the functioning of a team, the quality of its sport performance and achievements, influencing also the persistence of athletes within their sport.

## CHAPTER THREE: MATERIALS AND METHODS

### 3.1. Study Area

This study was conducted on male football clubs of Ethiopian premier league. The Ethiopian Premier League is the top association football division in Ethiopia. The Ethiopian Premier League is mandated to be under supervision of Ethiopian Football Federation.

### 3.2. The Study Design

Cross-sectional study design was involved to assess coach's leadership style determinants with player's motivation in Ethiopian male premier league clubs. Then, data were collected from respondents at once.

### 3.3. The Study Population

The total populations of the study participants were 28 main coaches and assistant coaches and 420 soccer players from 14 Ethiopian Premier League clubs.

### 3.4. Sampling Techniques and Sample Size

The researcher preferred to use Krejcie, & Morgan, 1970, sampling technique, because of time and money constraint to select the players and purposive sampling technique to select the coaches. According to Krejcie, & Morgan, 1970, sampling technique 201 soccer players from 14 Ethiopian Premier League clubs was selected as a subject by using lottery method and also using purposive sampling technique 28 coaches was selected from 14 Ethiopian male football premier league clubs.

Population size known

$$\text{Size} = \frac{X^2 NP (1-P)}{d^2 (N-1) + X^2 P (1-P)}$$

$$\frac{3.84 * 420 * 0.50 (1-0.50)}{0.05 * 0.05 (420-1) + 3.84 * .050 (1-0.50)}$$

$$\frac{3.84 * 420 * 0.50 (1-0.50)}{0.05 * 0.05 (420-1) + 3.84 * .050 (1-0.50)}$$

$$\frac{3.84 * 420 * 0.50 (1-0.50)}{0.05 * 0.05 (420-1) + 3.84 * .050 (1-0.50)}$$



$$= 403.2/2.0075$$

$$= 200.84 = 201 \text{ sample players}$$

$s$  = required sample size.

$X_2$  = the table value of chi-square for 1 degree of freedom at the desired confidence level (3.841).

$N$  = the population size.

$P$  = the population proportion (assumed to be .50 since this would provide the maximum Sample size).

$d$  = the degree of accuracy expressed as a proportion (.05).

### **3.5. Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria**

All of the selected participants were included as subjects of this study, who were voluntary coach and soccer player in one of the Ethiopian Premier League club competition in 2008 E.C. In addition to this, the coach and the players who were not delegate one of Ethiopian Premier League club in 2008 E.C. and who were not voluntary was not be included as subject for this research study.

### **3.6. Instruments**

The instrument used for this study was a Leadership Style Questionnaire developed by Peter, (2009) to assess the leadership style of coaches and the sport motivation scale questionnaire developed by Luc, *et al.*, (1995) to determine players motivation using likert scale, validated with a reliability coefficient of 0.05.(Appendix I and II)

### **3.7. Identification of variables**

#### **3.7.1. Dependent variables**

Players motivation: - taken as dependent variables throughout this study. Which is measured by players motivational scale by Luc, *et al.*, (1995)

### **3.7.2. Independent variables**

Coaching leadership styles was considered as independent variables, which affects players motivation which is measured by peter (2009)

### **3.8. Methods and Procedures of Data Collection**

The Leadership Style Questionnaire and the sport motivation scale questionnaire were distributed to the selected coaches and players after acquiring their consent by the researcher, and all were duly returned.

### **3.9. Method of Data Analysis**

Descriptive statistics, such as median, mode, histograms and frequency polygon was used to analyze the current existing coach's leadership style level and player's motivational status. Whereas, Spearman rank order correlation coefficient was used to test the relationship between coaches leadership style with players motivation in Ethiopian male premier league clubs. Similarly, line graph and multivariate Roy's largest root tests was used to investigate the effect coaching leadership style affect the player's motivation. The level of significance was set at p-value < 0.05 levels.

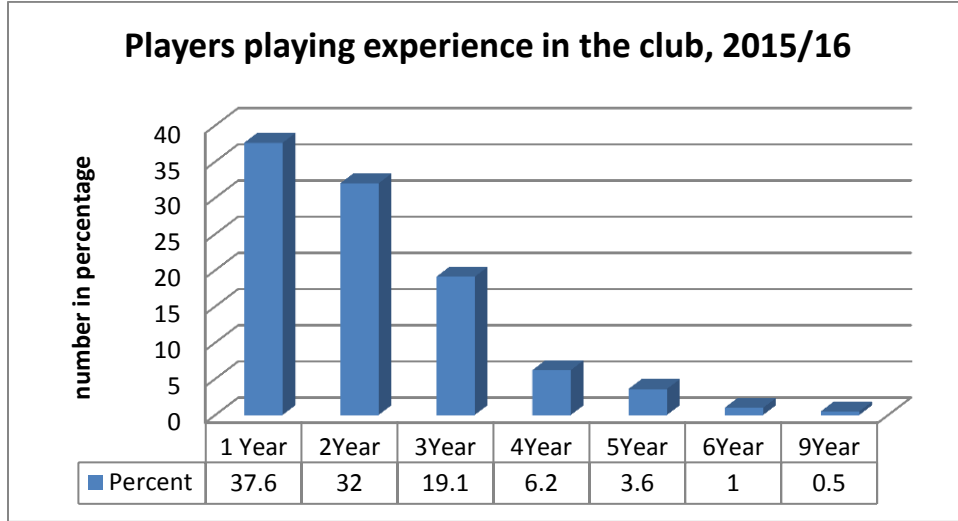
### **3.10. Ethical Issues and Code of Conduct**

The study was deal with the ethical issues; it can protect the privacy of research participants and make guarantees and confidentiality in risk of harm as a result of their participation. Therefore, the study was conducted according to Jimma University rules, policies and codes relating to research ethics. The protocol was approved by the University guidelines, and written consent was given and inform to the concerned bodies. Permission was obtained from the Ethiopian Premier League top association football division and the clubs to have the necessary data from the clubs. Then an informed verbal consent was received from each study subjects and anyone who were not be willing to take part in the study was have full right to do so.

# CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

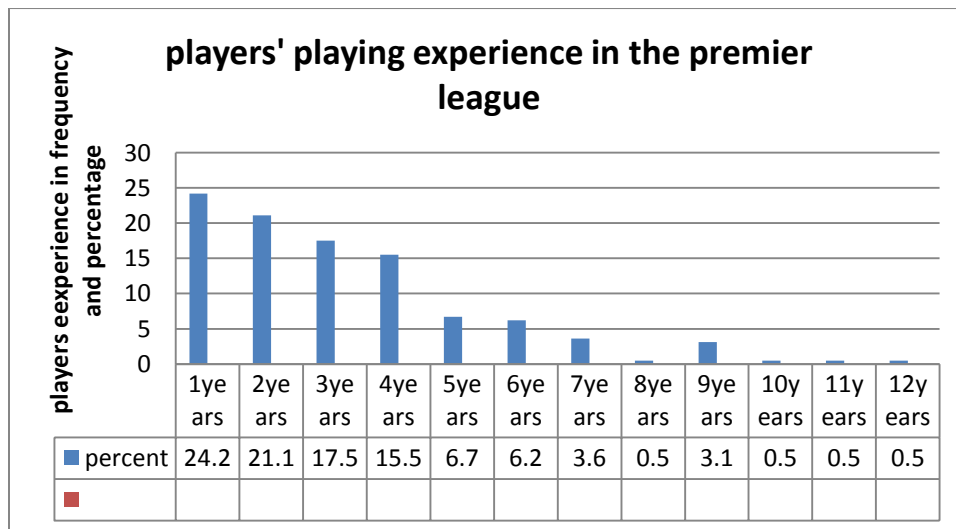
## 4.1. Results

### 4.1.1. Demography of respondents



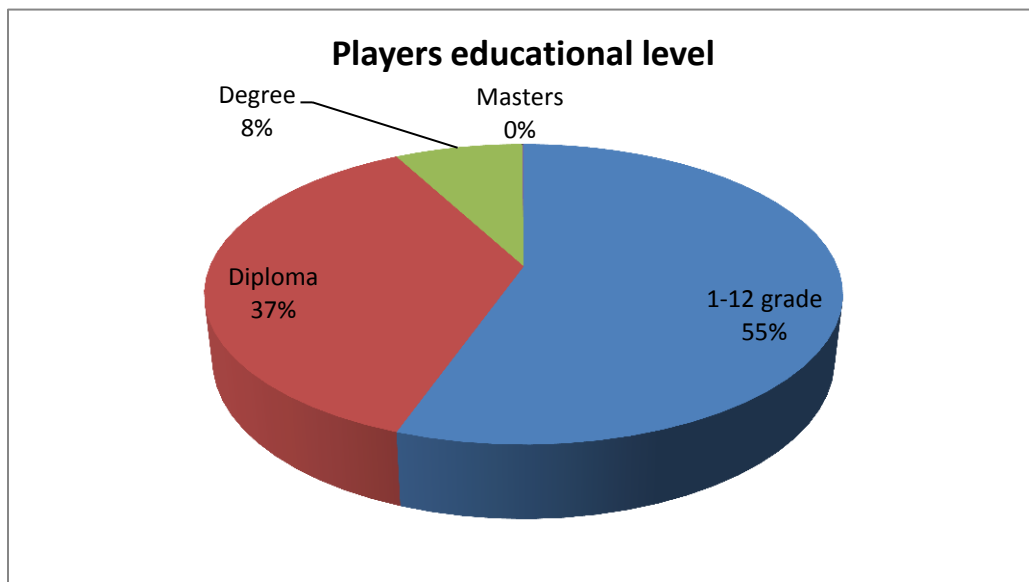
**Figure 4. Players playing experience in the club, 2015/16**

Players playing experience in the club in 2015/2016 reported that 73( 37.6%), 62(32%), 37(19.1%), 12(6.2%),7(3.6%),2(1.01) and 1(0,5%), confirmed the players experience in the club were 1 year,2years, 3 years, 4 years, 5 years and 9 years respectively. Here more than half football players experience in the club having one and two years have been more than three up to nine years of the playing in the club.



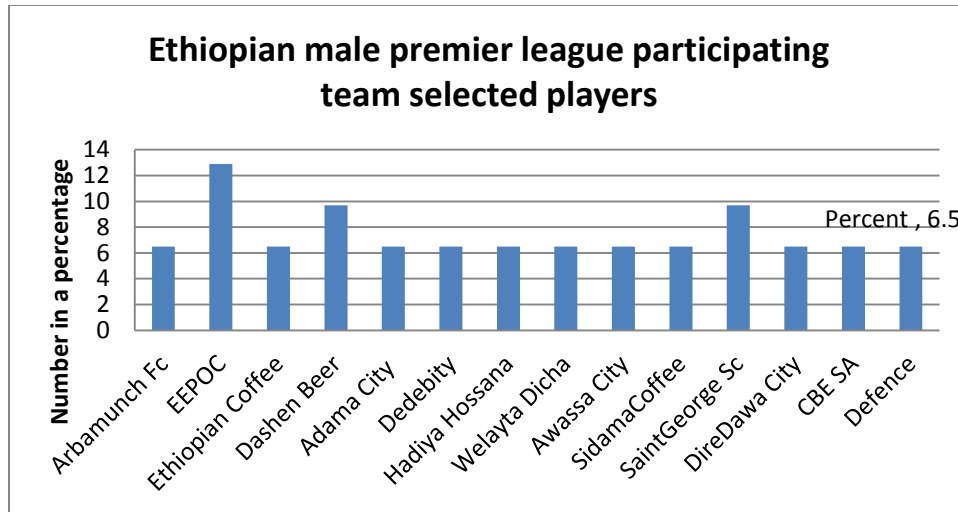
**Figure 5. players' playing experience in the premier league**

Table, players experience in the Ethiopian male football premier league demonstrates that 47(24.2%), 41(21.1%), 34(17.5%), 30(15.5%), 13(6.7%), 12(6.2%), 7(3.6%), 6(3.1%) and 1(0.5%), respondents as if they were having 1years, 2yeras, 3years, 4 years, 5years,6years,7years and nine years of playing experience in the premier league in the year 2015/2016. Very huge numbers of respondents confirmed that players had less than 4 years of playing football in the premier league. However, very few numbers of respondents agree that they had greater than 4 years of playing in Ethiopian premier league. Since ,majority of players had less than 4 years of experience playing in the premier league, they were juniors and remains were believed to be a senior.



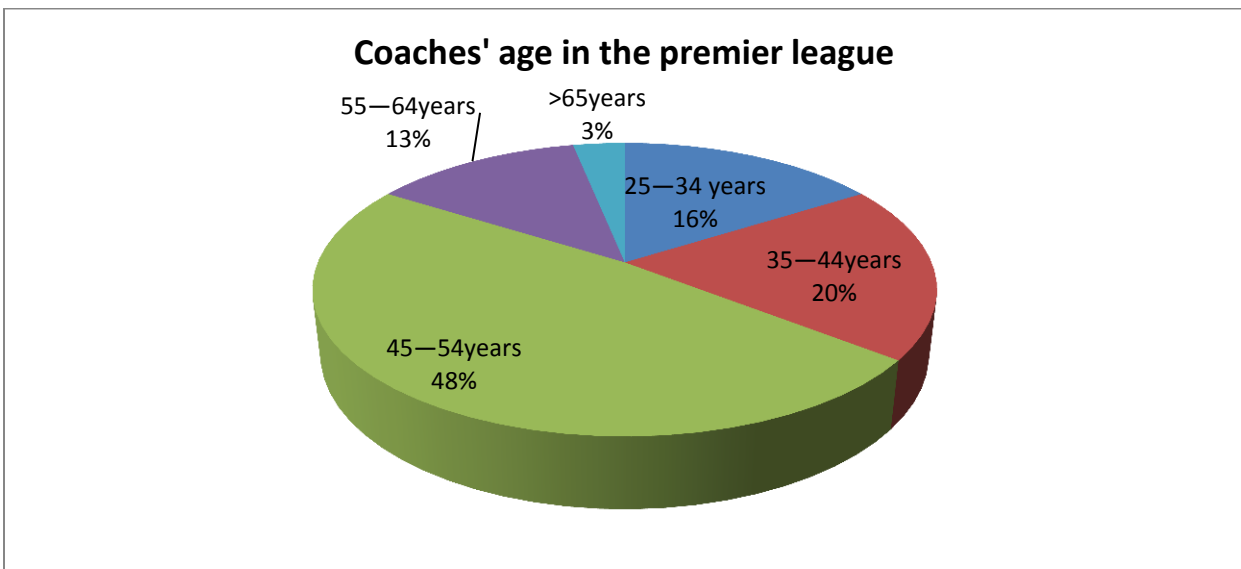
**Figure 6. Player’s educational level**

The above table , shows that 107(55.2%), 71(36,6%), 15(7.7%), and 1(0.5) of players educational status lies on 1-12 grade level, diploma, degree and masters holders. Large amount of football players found to be attending 1-12 grade level and diploma holders. While few were completed their bachelor degree and master’s degree. One can easy draw a conclusion that majority of premier league football players from elementary up to secondary school students and few tertiary students. Whereas, very few, were diploma and degree holders.



**Figure 7. Ethiopian male premier league participating team selected players**

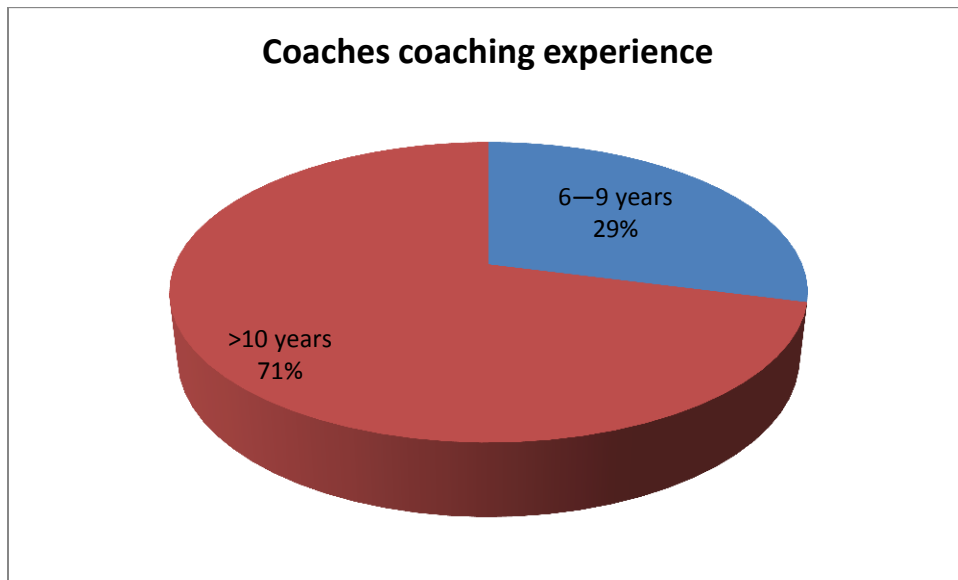
The result of above table shows that 4(12.9), coaches were from Ethiopian Electric power Corporation male football clubs, 3(9.7%) of coaches were from Dashen beer male football club and St. George beer male football club each, 2(6.5%) of coaches were from Arba Minch Kenema, Ethiopian Coffee, Adama Kenema, Dedebit, Hadiya Hosana Kenema, Wolayita Dicha, Awassa Kenema, Sidama Buna, Ethiopia Commercial Bank of Ethiopia and National Defence of Ethiopia and 1(3.2%) of coaches from Dire Dawa Kenema male football club. Here we can understand that Ethiopian male football premier league clubs' coaches were selected as a representative of their respected clubs.



**Figure 8. Coaches' age in the premier league**

The out puts of coaches age table demonstrates that 15 (48.4%), 6(19.4), 5(16.1), 4(12.95%) and 1(3.2%) Of the premier league coaches ages ranges from 45-54 years, 35-44years,25-34years,55-64 years and more than 65 years old.

The above result had the implication of more than half of coaches were ranges from 45-54 years old. They could mean that coaches were found under more functional age.



**Figure 9. Coaches coaching experience**

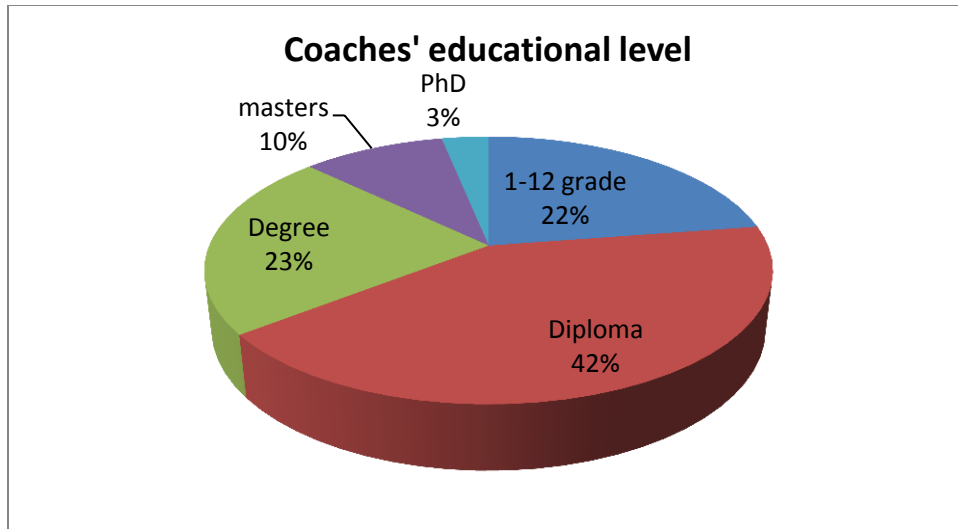
Figure of coaches’ coaching experience reported that 22( 71%), and 9 (29%) of Ethiopian premier league confirmed that their majority coaches’ coaching experience in the premier league were more than 10 years where as few of them less than 10 years.

Anyone could understand that majority of coaches who were presently coaching at Ethiopian male football premier league have sufficient coaching experience.

**Table 1. Coaches Gender**

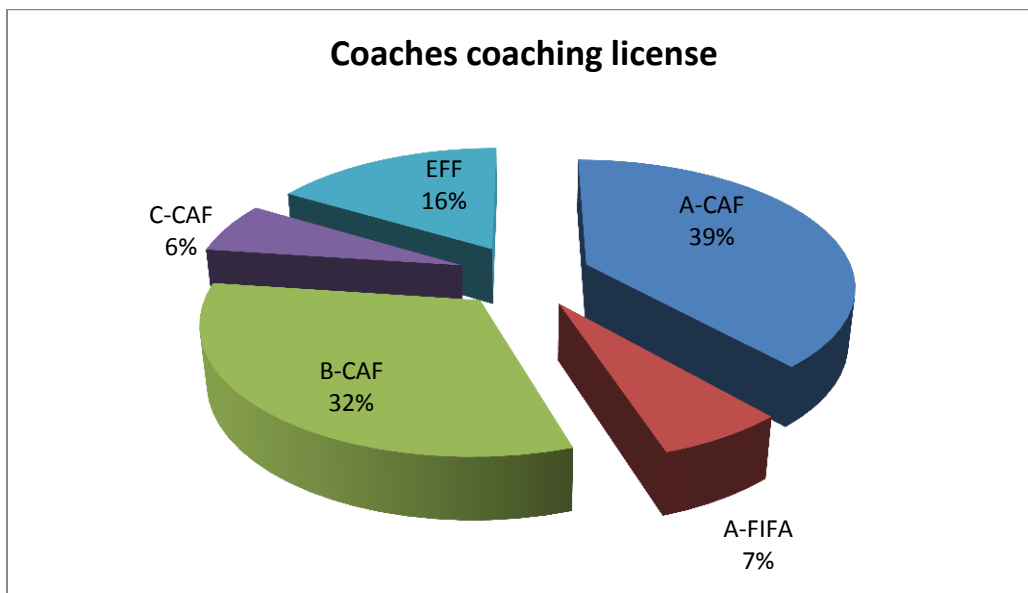
Gender	Frequency	percent
Male	31	100.0

Coaches’ gender in the year 2015/2016 premier league reported that 31(100%) of Ethiopian premier league were male. To this effects, it was been male dominated coaches. Therefore, still there is a limitation of female coach in Ethiopian male football premier league.



**Figure 10. Coaches' educational level**

Educational level of the players depicts that 13(41.9%), 7(22.6%),3(9.7%),and 1(3.2%) of coaches educational status were , diploma holders, degree and 1-12 grade each, masters and PhD holders respectively. more than half of Ethiopian male football premier league coaches holders were Having diploma whereas, very few of coaches were having degree, 1-12 grades, masters and PhD. As a matter of their educational status, they can read, write, listen and speak with their players. Even if their educational status has a limitation, we couldn't conclude as if they illiterate

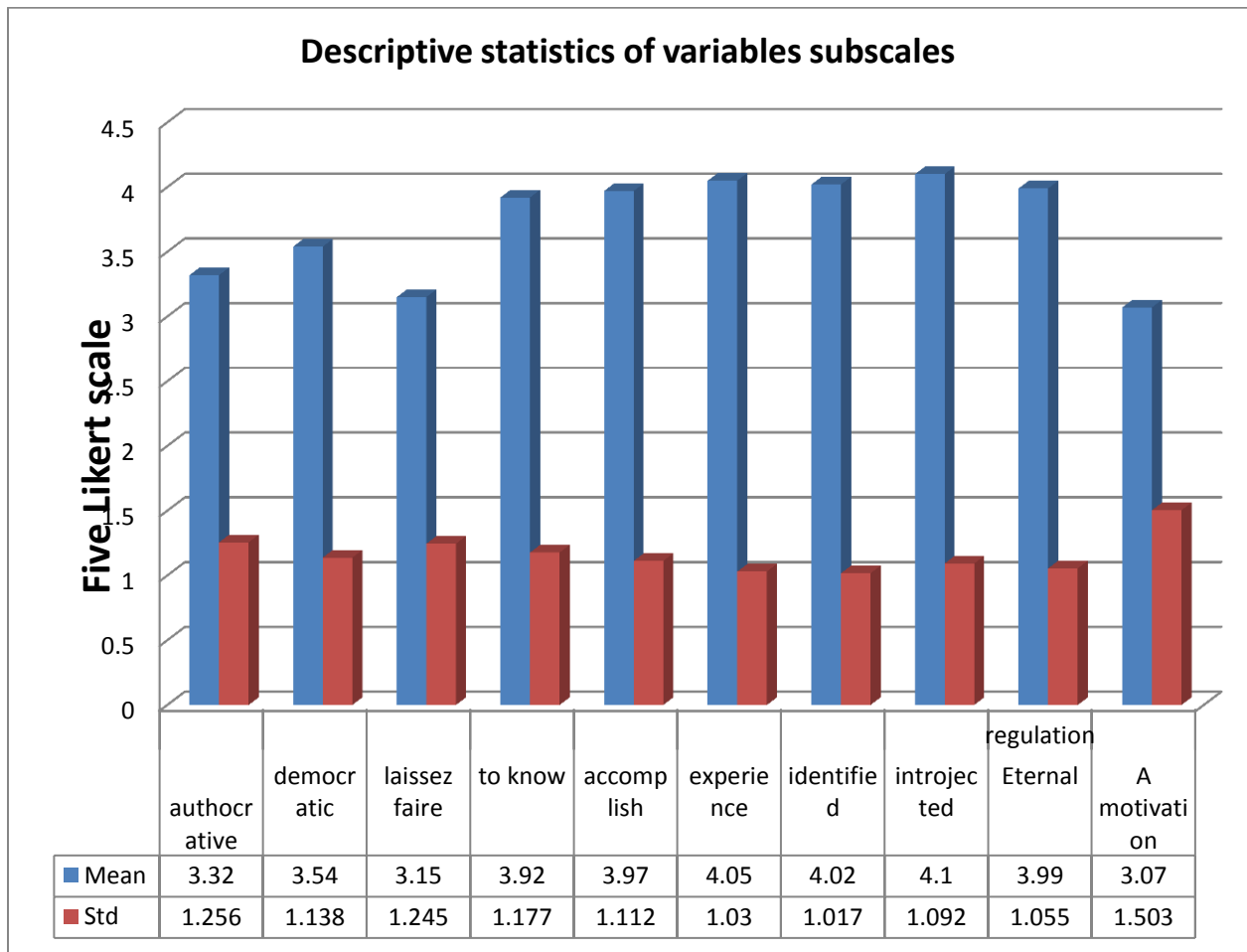


**Figure 11. Coaches coaching license**

The out puts of Ethiopian coaches coaching license show that 12(38.7%), 10(32.3%), 5(16%) and 2(6.5%) of coaches had license of A-CAF, B-CAF, EFF and A-FIFA as well as C-CAF each respectively.

Majority of coaches having a license of A- CAF and B-CAF while few coaches licensed in EFF, A-FIFA and C-CAF. Ethiopian male football premier league coach’s license was sufficient for caching national club even though there were remaining.

#### 4.1.2. Descriptive statistics of variables subscales



**Figure 12.** Descriptive statistics of variables subscales

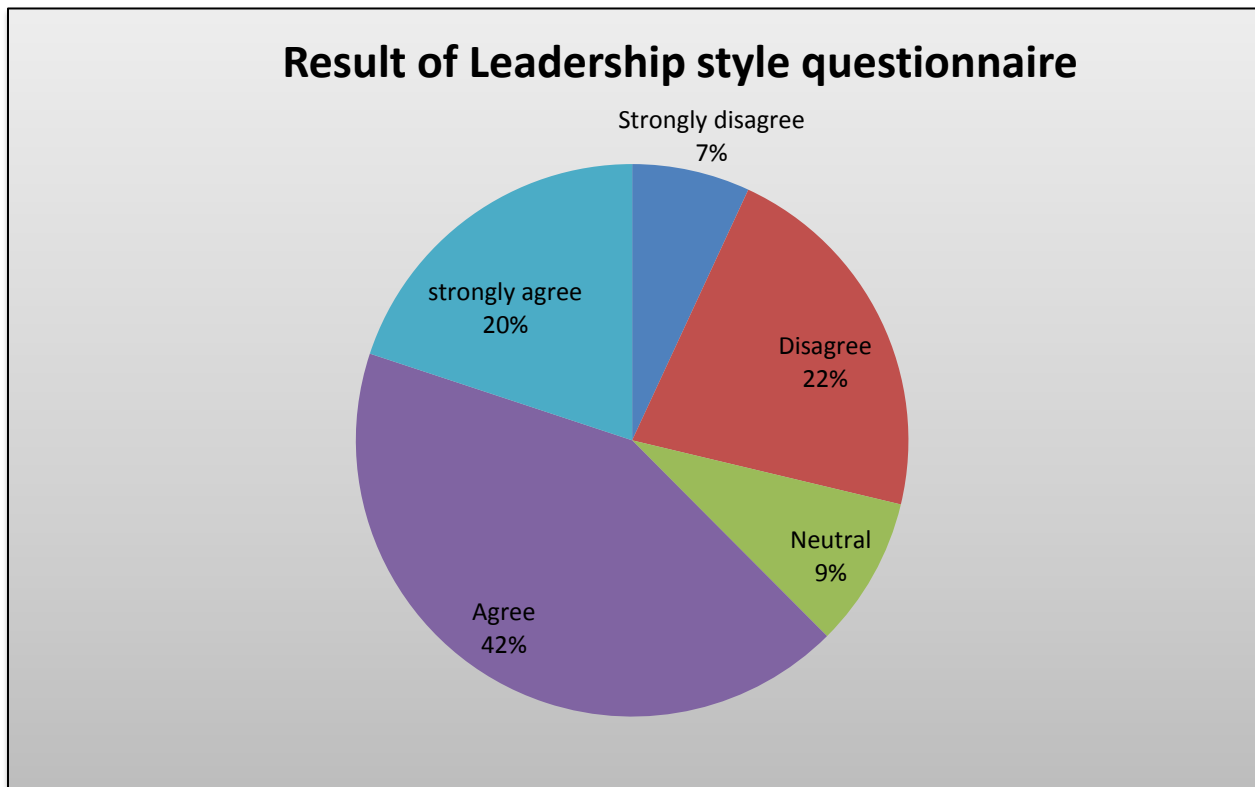
From the above figures, it can be seen that coaches followed authocrative leadership style mean 3.32 (SD, 1.256), democratic leadership style mean  $\pm$  SD Of  $3.54 \pm 1.338$ , laissez-fair of 3.15 (SD= 1.245), intrinsic motivation – to know is mean 3.92 (SD =1.177), intrinsic motivation-to



accomplish mean is 3.97 (SD= 1.112) intrinsic motivation to experience mean is 4.05 (SD=1.03), extrinsic motivation – to identified mean is 4.02(SD=1.017), extrinsic motivation to interjected mean is 4.1(SD=1.092), extrinsic motivation to –external regulation mean is 3.99(SD=1.055),A motivation mean is 3.07(SD=1.503).

After mentioned variables subscales of the study indicates that both players and coaches agree to follow democratic leadership style and corresponds a lot in using intrinsic motivation –to know, intrinsic motivation to accomplish , intrinsic motivation to experience stimulation ,extrinsic motivation –identified -,extrinsic motivation interjected and external motivation – external regulation. Whereas, this study reported that both coaches and players were neutral to follow autocratic and laissez- fair leadership styles, as well as neutrally a motivated.

#### 4.1.3. Current existing coaches leadership style

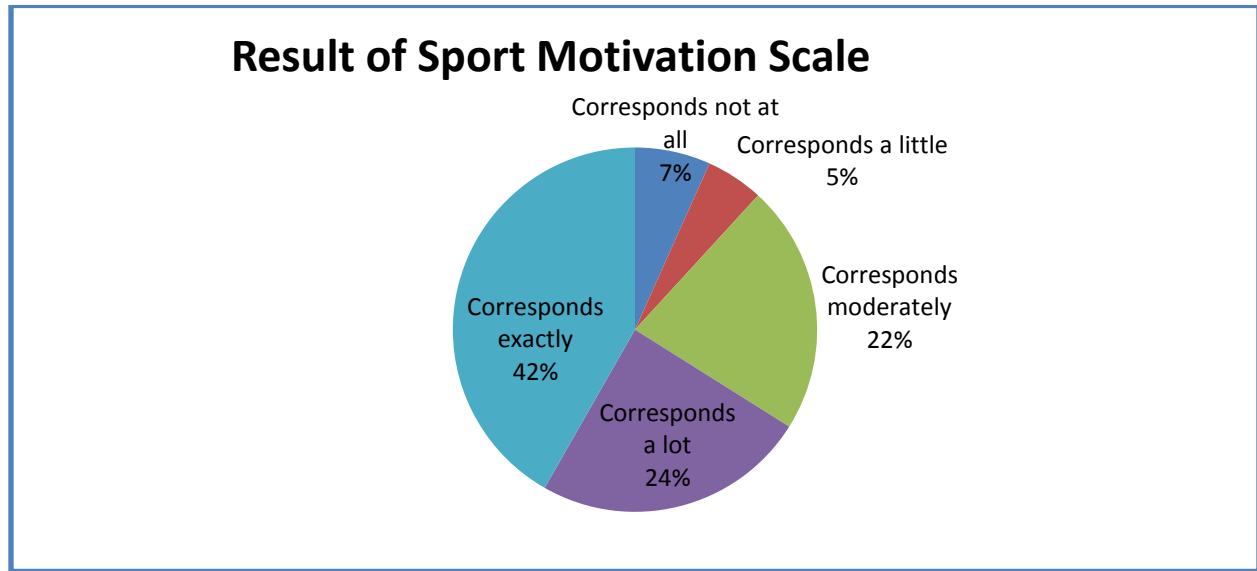


**Figure 13.** Result of Leadership style questionnaire

The output of leadership style questionnaires filled by coaches depicts that 42%,22%, 20%, 9% and 7% responded agreed, disagree, strongly agree, neutral and strongly disagree.

From the aforementioned leadership style analysis one can easily understand that more than half of coaches reported as they agreed in exercising leadership style mainly autocratic and democratic and laissez fair leadership style.

#### 4.1.4. Current existing players motivational status



**Figure 14.** Result of Sport Motivation Scale

The result of the above figure shows both players motivation agreed that 42%, 24%, 22%, 7%, and 5% replied corresponds exactly, corresponds a lot , corresponding moderately, corresponds little and corresponds not at all respectively. The sport motivation has the direct implication that majority of players presently practicing for football because it has directly corresponding to their sport discipline. All most all participating clubs have two coaches.

#### 4.1.5. Relationship between coaches leadership style and players motivational level

**Table 2.** Spearman correlation coefficient matrix between leadership and motivational subscale

	Subscale	1	2	3
		Autocratic	Democratic	Laissez fair
<b>1</b>	To know	-.051	-.118**	-.029
<b>2</b>	Accomplish	-.036	-.130**	-.020
<b>3</b>	Experience	-.045	-.061	-.046
<b>4</b>	Identified	-.036	-.067	-.052
<b>5</b>	Interjected	-.012	-.045	-.030
<b>6</b>	External Reg	-.040	-.047	-.026
<b>7</b>	A motivation	-.003	-.043	.004

Democratic leadership style significantly correlated negatively with intrinsic motivation to know ( $r=-0.118, P=0.05$ ) and intrinsic motivation to accomplish ( $r=-0.13, r^2= 0.017, p =0.05$ ), whereas, in significantly negative correlated with extrinsic motivation to experience stimulation ( $r= -0.061, r^2 =0.00793, p > 0.05$ ), extrinsic motivation-to identified ( $r= -0.067, r^2 = 0.008, p > 0.05$ ), extrinsic motivation – interjected ( $r = - 0.045, r^2 = 0.00203, P > 0.05$ ), extrinsic motivation-external regulation ( $r = -0.040, r^2= 0.0016, P> 0.05$ ) and a motivation ( $r = -0.043, r^2= 0.0018, P > 0.05$ ).

Autocratic leadership style insignificantly negatively correlated with intrinsic motivation –to know ( $r = - 0.051, r^2 = 0.0026, p > 0.05$ ), intrinsic motivation to accomplish ( $r = -0.036, r^2 p > 0.05$ ), intrinsic motivation to – experience stimulation ( $r= -0.045, r^2 = 0.002, P > 0.05$ ), extrinsic motivation – identified ( $r= -0.036, r^2 0.003, P > 0.05$ ) extrinsic motivation – interjected ( $r = - 0.012, r^2 = 0.0004, p > 0.05$ ) and extrinsic motivation – external regulation ( $r = - 0.04 , r^2 = 0.0016, P > 0.05$ ), and a motivation ( $r = - 0.003, r^2=0.000009, P>0.05$ ).

Laissez fair leadership style insignificantly negatively correlated with intrinsic motivation to know ( $r= -0.029, r^2 0.000841, P >0.05$ ), intrinsic motivation to accomplish ( $r= -0.20, r^2 = 0.04, P> 0.05$ ), intrinsic motivation to experience stimulation ( $r = -0.046, r^2 0.00212, P > 0.05$ ), extrinsic motivation – identified ( $r = -0.52, r^2= 0.27, P > 0.05$ ), intrinsic motivation – to interjected( $r = - 0.03, r^2 = 0.001, p >0.05$ ) and extrinsic motivation external regulation ( $r = -0.026, r^2 0.000676, P >0.05$ ). a motivation ( $r= 0.004, r^2 =0.000016, P > 0.05$ ).

For the above analysis one can be understand that democratic leadership style significantly and negatively correlated with intrinsic motivation to know and intrinsic motivation to accomplish. This could mean that as their coaches exercise democratic leadership style especially intrinsic motivation pillars such as to know and to accomplish were slowly decreased. Democratic leadership style explained intrinsic motivation to know by 1.4 % and intrinsic motivation to accomplish by 1.7% which were believed to be very slow in its' magnitude. To the reverse, exercising autocratic leadership and laissez fair leadership style couldn't brought significant motivation change on players.

**Table 3. Correlation between coaches leadership style and players motivation**

Variables	Players motivational status
Coaches leadership style	0.03

The results indicates that significant relationship have been observed between coaches leadership style and players motivational status ( $r = 0.3, r^2 = 0.09, P < 0.05$ ). The analysis had implication of positive low significant correlation between coaches' leadership style and players motivation. The leadership styles of coaches positively influence players motivational level.

**4.1.6. Effect of Coaches leadership style on players motivational status**

**Table 4. Multivariate Roy's Largest Root Tests**

Multivariate Roy's Largest Root Tests <sup>a</sup>					
Effect	Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Correct Model	11.899	1028.410 <sup>b</sup>	7.000	605.000	.000
Authocratic	.013	1.086 <sup>c</sup>	7.000	608.000	.371
Democratic	.019	1.669 <sup>c</sup>	7.000	608.000	.114
Lassies fair	.017	1.467 <sup>c</sup>	7.000	608.000	.176
Authocratic + Democratic	.054	2.077 <sup>c</sup>	16.000	611.000	.008
Authocratic +Laissez-faire	.043	1.643 <sup>c</sup>	16.000	611.000	.054
Democratic + Laissez-faire	.086	3.277 <sup>c</sup>	16.000	611.000	.000
Authocratic + Democratic +Laissez-faire	.115	1.567 <sup>c</sup>	45.000	611.000	.012
a. Design: Intercept + authocratic + democratic + laissezfaire + authocratic * democratic + authocratic * laissezfaire + democratic * laissezfaire + authocratic * democratic * laissez-faire					
b. Exact statistic					
c. The statistic is an upper bound on F that yields a lower bound on the significance level.					

The multivariate test –Roy’s Largest Root summery table for the split effect leadership style on motivation is shown in the above table. Autocratic leadership style is insignificantly different from the correct model  $P > 0.375$ , democratic leadership style insignificantly different from the correct model  $P = 0.114$ , and laissez fair leadership style is also insignificantly different at  $P = 0.176$ . While significant different were observed between both Autocratic and democratic leadership style on at motivation  $P = 0.008$ , autocratic and lassiez fair with motivation at  $P = 0.05$ , Democratic and lassiez fair with motivation at  $P = 0.00$ , as well as autocratic and democratic and lassiez fair with motivation  $P = 0.012$ .

The abovementioned analysis in disagreement with independently exercising leadership style such as autocratic and democratic and laissez fair couldn't brought significant change on football players motivational changes. Whereas, fruitful result was observed when mixed leadership style has been used, for instance autocratic and democratic style have a positive influence on players motivation autocratic and laissez fair have a positive effect on player's motivation, Democratic and laissez fair have positive effect on players motivation. Finally Autocratic, democratic and laissez fair have a positive effect in bringing positive player's motivational performance.

## **4.2. Discussion**

### **4.2.1. Demography of respondents**

Here more than half football players experience in the club having one and two years have been more than three up to nine years of the playing in the club. Very huge numbers of respondents confirmed that players had less than 4 years of playing football in the premier league. However, very few numbers of respondents agree that they had greater than 4 years of playing in Ethiopian premier league. Since majority of players had less than 4 years of experience playing in the premier league, they were juniors and remains were believed to be a senior. One can easy draw a conclusion that majority of premier league football players from elementary up to secondary school students and few tertiary students. Whereas, very few, were diploma and degree holders. The above result had the implication of more than half of coaches were ranges from 45-54 years old. They could mean that coaches were found under more functional age.

Ethiopian premier league confirmed that their majority coaches coaching experience in the premier league were more than 10 years where as few of them less than 10 years. Anyone could understand that majority of coaches who were presently coaching at Ethiopian male football premier league have sufficient coaching experience. Coaches' gender in the year 2015/2016 premier league of Ethiopian was male. To this effects, it was been male dominated coaches. Therefore, still there is a limitation of female coach in Ethiopian male football premier league.

More than half of Ethiopian male football premier league coaches were diploma holders whereas very few of coaches were having degree, 1-12 grade, masters and PhD.

As a matter of their educational status, they can read, write, listen and speak with their players. Even if their educational status has a limitation, we couldn't conclude as if they illiterate

Majority of coaches having a license of A- CAF and B-CAF while few coaches licensed in EFF, A-FIFA and C-CAF. Ethiopian male football premier league coach's license was sufficient for coaching national club even though there were remaining.

#### **4.2.2. Descriptive statistics of variables subscales**

After mentioned variables subscales of the study indicates that both players and coaches agree to follow democratic leadership style and corresponds a lot in using intrinsic motivation –to know, intrinsic motivation to accomplish , intrinsic motivation to experience stimulation ,extrinsic motivation –identified ,extrinsic motivation interjected and external motivation – external regulation. Whereas, this study reported that both coaches and players neutral to follow autocratic and laissez- fair leadership styles, as well as neutrally a motivated.

#### **4.2.3. Current existing coaches leadership style**

From the aforementioned leadership style analysis one can easily understand that more than half of coaches reported as they agreed in exercising leadership style mainly autocratic and democratic and laissez fair leadership style. Other research didn't confirmed that autocratic leadership is one of the least popular management styles; it's also among the most common (Eric, 2014). In agreement with our research output coaches will use a variety of coaching styles depending on the coaching situation as retrieved on May 30, 2016. On <http://www.brianmac.co.uk/styles.htm>.

#### **4.2.4. Current existing players motivational status**

The sport motivation has the direct implication that majority of players presently practicing for football because it has directly corresponding to their sport discipline.. In the context of this research, football players were motivated internal and externally. Strengthening this paper other research output reveals that athletes compete in and practice sport for a variety of reasons. These reasons fall into the two major categories of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Athletes who are intrinsically motivated participate in sports for internal reasons, such as enjoyment, whereas athletes who are extrinsically motivated participate in sports for external reasons, such as material rewards. Extrinsic rewards are central to competitive sports; athletes receive publicity, awards, and money, among other things, and college level athletes obtain scholarships for their talents. Extrinsic rewards, when used correctly, can be beneficial to athletes. However, athletes in highly

competitive levels of sport may experience decreases in their intrinsic motivation because of the increasing use of extrinsic rewards offered by the media, coaches, and parents. As a coach, you can help increase or maintain the intrinsic motivation of athletes even with the presence of extrinsic rewards, such as scholarships (Stephanie, Danielle and Jennifer, 2016).

#### **4.2.5. Relationship between coaches leadership style and players motivational level**

In my context democratic leadership style significantly and negatively correlated with intrinsic motivation to know and intrinsic motivation to accomplish. This could mean that as their coaches exercise democratic leadership style especially intrinsic motivation pillars such as to know and to accomplish were slowly decreased. Democratic leadership style explained intrinsic motivation to know by 1.4 % and intrinsic motivation to accomplish by 1.7% which were believed to be very slow in its' magnitude. To the reverse, exercising Autocratic leadership and laissez fair leadership style couldn't bring significant motivation change on players.

This research output reveals that positive low significant correlation between coaches' leadership style and player's motivation. The leadership styles of coaches positively influence player's motivational level. Other supporting literature shows that Perceived leadership behaviors have positive correlations with Players Motivation (Nancy, 2009). More recently, motivational concepts have been drawn upon to understand leadership processes. Many motivational theories were posited to have direct implications for leader behavior; however the evidence for motivational impact is unclear. As motivation is an abstract construct, motives can only be inferred from reports or performance outcomes, not directly measured (Stephanie, 2009).in the same way, different research confirm that the motivational influence on particular leadership style, considering management level, is being analyzed from the aspect of extrinsic and intrinsic motivation (Mario, Ana and Ivan, 2014).as well as other supportive in agreement with our finding and suggest that Strong correlation between the leadership style and the motivation as retrieved on May 30, 2016 on <http://jalalonmanagementmatters.blogspot.com/2010/01/relation-between-leadership-style-and.html>. An executive must have the right leadership traits to influence motivation. However, there is no specific blueprint for motivation (<https://managementstudyguide.com/leadership-motivation>, 2016).

#### **4.2.6. Effect of Coaches leadership style on players motivational status**

In the context of this research independently exercising leadership style such as Autocratic and democratic and laissez fair couldn't brought significant change on football players motivational changes. Whereas, fruitful result was observed when mixed leadership style has been used, For instance, autocratic and democratic style have a positive influence on players motivation, autocratic and Laissez fair have a positive effect on player's motivation, Democratic and laissez fair have positive effect on players motivation. Finally autocratic and democratic and laissez fair have a positive effect in bringing positive player's motivational performance. Other literature confirming this research and revealed that good manager effect the motivation of their colleagues and workers according to their "style" of leadership as retrieved on May 30, 2016 on <http://jalalonmanagementmatters.blogspot.com/2010/01/relation-between-leadership-style-and.html>. Leadership and motivation has become very important in every organization and the quest of management to achieve the very best of investments, there is the need to pay attention to how effective leadership can be practiced in their organizations (Frederick et al, 2013 ).



## CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

### 5.1. Conclusions

The purpose of the present research was to be assessing coach's leadership style as determinates of Ethiopian male football premier league players motivational level. To this effect, the investigator draws, the below mentioned conclusions. These were;

This finding suggests that Most of football players had one-two years of playing experience in their clubs, 2015/2016.

- This study confirmed that huge number of football players had less than four years of experience in Ethiopian male football premier league.
- Majority of football player's educational level were between elementary to secondary school.
- Almost equal percentage coaches (100%) and players (50%) were selected from each premier league club.
- This study confirmed that most the coaches' age swings between 45-54 years old.
- This research suggested that coaches' were having sufficient coaching experience.
- Ethiopian premier league were dominated with male coaches.
- Most coaches were diploma holders.
- Based on FIFA and CAF license the coaches were having, they could eligible to be Ethiopian clubs.
- This study demonstrated that both subscales of coaches leadership style and players motivations were exercised agree and corresponding a lot.
- This research output shows that coaches prefer firstly autocratic, secondly democratic and last lassize fair leadership style.
- The study shows that majority of player's currently practicing football, since it has corresponding to their profession.
- Democratic leadership style has statistically low negative correlation with intrinsic motivated to know and accomplish.
- This finding suggested that mixed approach of autocratic, democratic and lassiz fair leadership style positively influence football players motivational scale.

## 5.2. Recommendations

From the results of the study the following recommendations has been collected and discussed in this study as followed:

- Majority of clubs players have less than two years of experience in their clubs, so, if they stay in a club for a longer time, most probably they could understand clubs playing formation and system of play.
- Since most players were juniors in Ethiopia male football premier league, players should experience playing in the league for consistency of their performance.
- Large number of players was from elementary to secondary school students. So that players should get complementary education in their camp and home.
- Most premier league coaches were coach's elders, to this effect, younger coaches should scale themselves to be the league coaches.
- Almost all league coaches were males; female coaches should be encouraged to coach the league.
- There were two FIFA and CAF licensed league coaches, so, coaches should scale up their FIFA and CAF license to be international coaches.
- Using leadership style components independently and separately couldn't brought statistically significant changes on players motivational scale. Therefore, coaches should use them independently based on the situation and condition they could phase.

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## Appendix-I

### Leadership Style Questionnaire

This Leadership Style Questionnaire helps incoming leaders understand their preferred leadership style. The questionnaire provides three categories of leadership style (Authoritative, Democratic, Laissez faire) which are determined by a participant's cumulative score. Additional descriptions of each style are also included in the questionnaire that provides further insight into each style

Statement	Strongly Di Agree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. Members need to be supervised closely or they are not likely to do their work.	1	2	3	4	5
2. It is fair to say that most members in the general population are lazy.	1	2	3	4	5
3. In complex saturations, leaders should let members work out problems on their own.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Members want to be a part of the decision-making process	1	2	3	4	5
5. Providing guidance without pressure is the key to being a good leader.	1	2	3	4	5
6. As a rule, members must be given rewards or punishments in order to motivate them to achieve organizational objectives.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Leadership requires staying out of the way of members as they do their work	1	2	3	4	5
8. Most members want frequent and supportive communication with their leaders.	1	2	3	4	5
9. As a rule, leaders should allow members to appraise their own work.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Most members feel insecure about their work and need direction.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Leaders need to help members accept responsibility for completing their work.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Leaders should give members complete freedom to solve problems on their own.	1	2	3	4	5
13. In most situations members prefer little input from the leader.	1	2	3	4	5
14. It is the leader's job to help members find their "passion".	1	2	3	4	5
15. The leader is the chief judge of the achievements of the members of a group.	1	2	3	4	5
16. Effective leaders give orders and clarify procedures.	1	2	3	4	5
17. In general, it is best to leave members alone.	1	2	3	4	5
18. People are basically competent and if given a task will do a good job.	1	2	3	4	5

### Scoring

Sum the responses for items 1,2,6,10,15 and 16

(Authoritarian leadership)

Sum the responses for items 4,5,8,11,14 and 18

(Democratic leadership)

Sum the responses on items 3,7,9,12,13 and 17 (laissez-faire leadership)

### **Total Scores**

Authoritarian Leadership \_\_\_\_\_

Democratic Leadership \_\_\_\_\_

Laissez-Faire Leadership \_\_\_\_\_

**Scoring Interpretation** This questionnaire is designed to measure three common styles of leadership: authoritarian, democratic, and laissez-faire. By comparing your score, you can determine which styles are most dominant and least dominant in your own style of leadership.

**Authoritarian Leadership-** Leader needs to control members and what they do. They emphasize that they are in charge and exert influence and control over group members. Authoritarian leaders prefer communication be directed up.

**Democratic Leadership-** Leaders treat members as fully capable of doing work on their own. They work with group members; try hard to treat everyone fairly, and to not be above others. Their main goal is to help group members reach personal goals. Communication is interactional between leader and members.

**Laissez-Faire Leadership-** Leaders do not try to control member and do not try to nurture and guide members wither. Instead, this leader engages in minimal influence and has a “hands-off” approach.

If your score is 26-30, you are in the very high range

If your score is 21-25 you are in the high range.

If your score is 16-20, you are in the moderate range.

If your score is 11-15, you are in the low range.

Of your score is 6-10, you are in the very low range.

## Appendix-II

### THE SPORT MOTIVATION SCALE (SMS-28)

Using the scale below, please indicate to what extent each of the following items corresponds to one of the reasons for which you are presently practicing your sport.

	Corresponds not at all	Corresponds a little	Corresponds moderately	Corresponds a lot	Corresponds exactly					
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7			
1. For the pleasure I feel in living exciting experiences.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7			
2. For the pleasure it gives me to know more about the sport that I Practice.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7			
3. I used to have good reasons for doing sport, but now I am asking myself if I should continue doing it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7			
4. For the pleasure of discovering new training techniques.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7			
5. I don't know anymore; I have the impression of being incapable of succeeding in this sport.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7			
6. Because it allows me to be well regarded by people that I know.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7			
7. Because, in my opinion, it is one of the best ways to meet people.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7			
8. Because I feel a lot of personal satisfaction while mastering certain difficult training techniques.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7			
9. Because it is absolutely necessary to do sports if one wants to be in shape.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7			
10. For the prestige of being an athlete.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7			
11. Because it is one of the best ways I have chosen to develop other aspects of myself.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7			
12. For the pleasure I feel while improving some of my weak points.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7			
13. For the excitement I feel when I am really involved in the activity.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7			
14. Because I must do sports to feel good myself.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7			
15. For the satisfaction I experience while I am perfecting my abilities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7			
16. Because people around me think it is important to being shape.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7			
17. Because it is a good way to learn lots of things which could be useful to me in other areas of my life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7			

18. For the intense emotions I feel doing a sport that I like.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. It is not clear to me anymore; I don't really think my place is in sport.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. For the pleasure that I feel while executing certain difficult movements.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. Because I would feel bad if I was not taking time to do it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. To show others how good I am good at my sport.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. For the pleasure that I feel while learning training techniques that I have never tried before.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. Because it is one of the best ways to maintain good relationships with my friends.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25. Because I like the feeling of being totally immersed in the activity.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26. Because I must do sports regularly.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27. For the pleasure of discovering new performance strategies.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28. I often ask myself; I can't seem to achieve the goals that I set for myself.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

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**KEY FOR SMS-28**

**#2, 4, 23, 27 intrinsic motivations - to know**

**#8, 12, 15, 20 intrinsic motivations - to accomplish**

**#1, 13, 18, 25 intrinsic motivations - to experience stimulation**

**#7, 11, 17, 24 extrinsic motivations - identified**

**#9, 14, 21, 26 extrinsic motivations - introjected**

**#6, 10, 16, 22 extrinsic motivations - external regulation**

**#3, 5, 19, 28 A motivation**

(Luc, *et al.*, 1995)

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## **Appendix-III**

### **Participation Information Sheet**

#### **The Research Title:**

Assessment of coaches leadership style determinant, players motivation in Ethiopian male premier league clubs

**Investigator:** Amanu Eba (B.Sc.)

**Introduction:** Before agreeing to participate in this research study, it is important that you read the following explanation. This statement describes the right, purpose, procedures, benefits, risks, and precautions of the program. There will be no costs for participating in the research. Also, participants will not be paid to participate in this research project.

**Right:** Your participation is voluntary. If you believe you may choose your comfort and not to answer any question(s) that makes you uncomfortable there are alternative procedures available to you, as well as your right to withdraw from the study at any time.

**Purpose of the research:** The purpose of this study is to fulfill master's degree in Sport Science (Sport Management). And desire to assess coach's leadership style determinants with players motivation in Ethiopian male premier league clubs.

**Procedure and Data Collection:** The study will be conducted through the Leadership Style Questionnaire and the sport motivation scale questionnaire will be distributed to the selected coaches and players after acquiring their consent by the researcher, and all will duly returned.

**Risk:** there is no any risk on the study participant.

**Benefit:** this study will helps to aware the leadership style of coaches, and also help to alleviate the challenges for players motivation in Ethiopian male premier league clubs. Finally, this study may help for other researchers as baseline information for future.

**Confidentiality:** If you consent to participate in this evaluation, your personal information will be kept confidential. Participant's individual scores will not be disclosed outside without each



participant's written permission. However, the only researcher may review the study data without written consent.

Furthermore, participants will have do favor to the research to contribute to the greater field of sport science.

Questions regarding the research should be directed to: Amanu Eba, +251 913861155, Dr. Asim Khan, +251945049730, and Mr. Samson Wondirad, +251919691753.

**Agreement:** *I have read all the information provided on this form and consent to participate in this study.*

Name \_\_\_\_\_ Signature & Date \_\_\_\_\_

*If you do not consent to participate, you do not need to sign this form. Simply return it to the researcher.*

Signature of Investigator \_\_\_\_\_ Date \_\_\_\_\_