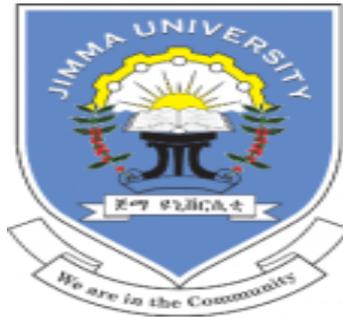


**JIMMA UNIVERSITY
COLLEGE OF NATURAL SCIENCE
DEPARTMENT OF SPORT SCIENCE**



**EFFECT OF LEADERSHIP STYLES ON PLAYERS' SATISFACTION
OF JIMMA ABA BUNA AND JIMMA CITY FOOTBALL CLUB**

MSc. THESIS

BY: DESALEGN MEKURIA

**ATHESIS PAPER SUBMITTED TO DEPARTMENT OF SPORT FOR
PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF M.A DEGREE IN SPORT MANAGEMENT**

JUNE, 2017

JIMMA, ETHIOPIA

**EFFECT OF LEADERSHIP STYLES ON PLAYERS' SATISFACTION OF
SOME SELECTED JIMMA ZONE FOOTBALL CLUB**

MSc. THESIS

BY: DESALEGN MEKURIA

Advisor: Dr. Wondemagegn Demissie (PhD)

Co-Advisor: Beshir Edo (MSc.)

**SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES
JIMMA UNIVERSITY
COLLEGE OF NATURAL SCIENCE
MSC THESES APPROVAL SHEET**

We, the undersigned, member of the Board of Examiners of the final open defense by **Desalegn Mekuria** have read and evaluated his/her thesis entitled “**Effect Of Leadership Styles On Players’ Satisfaction Of Jimma Aba Buna and Jimma City Football Club.**” And examined the candidate. This is therefore to certify that the thesis has been accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree master of science in Sport Management.

Name of Chairperson Signature

Date

Name of Major Advisor

Signature

Date

Name of Internal Examiner Signature

Date

Name of External Examiner Signature

Date

Table of Contents

APPROVAL SHEET	I
List of Figure.....	IV
List of Table.....	V
Acknowledgment	VI
Abbreviations	VII
Abstract	VIII
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION	1
1.1. BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY.....	1
1.2. Statement of the Problem	4
1.3. Objectives of the study.	6
1.3.1 The General objective of study	6
1.3.2 Specific objectives of the study	6
1.4 significance of the study	7
1.5 Delimitation of the study	7
1.6. Limitation	7
1.7. Operational Definitions.....	8
CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW	9
2.1. Theoretical Frame work of the leadership styles.....	9
2.1.1 Autocratic Leadership	9
2.1.2. Democratic Leadership	9
2.1.3. Laissez-faire Leadership	10
2.1.4 Transformational Leadership	10
2.1.5. Transactional Leadership	12
2.2. Choosing a Leadership Style	13
2.2.1. Authoritarian Decision-Making	13
2.2.2. Democratic Decision-Making	13
2.2.3. Laissez-Faire Decision-Making	14
2.3. Previous studies related the topic this study.....	14
2.3.1. Team Types.....	14
2.3.2. The Importance of Teams	15
2.3.3. Team Leadership.....	16

2.3.4. Transformational Leadership and Team Performance	19
2.3.5. Transactional Leadership and Team Cohesion	19
2.4. Players Satisfaction	20
CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY.....	23
3.1 Research Design	23
3.2 Subject of the study	23
3.3 Source of Data.....	23
3.4 Population of the study.....	23
3.5 Sample and sampling technique	24
3.6 Instrument of Data collection	24
3.6.1. Revised version Leadership Scale for Sport (RLSS) questionnaire.....	24
3.6.2. Athlete satisfaction questionnaire (ASQ).....	24
3.7 Data collection procedure.....	25
3.8. Ethical Clearance.....	26
3.7. Conceptual Framework.....	27
3.9 Method of Data Analysis.....	27
CHAPTER FOUR: DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION	28
4.1. Introduction	28
4.2. Descriptive statistics of players.....	28
4.2.1. Descriptive statistics of player’s age.....	28
4.2.2. Descriptive statistics of player’s experience	29
4.2.3. Descriptive statistics of player’s educational background	31
4.2.4. Descriptive statistics of Coach Leadership Style Perceived by players	32
4.2.7. Descriptive statistics of player’s Satisfaction in the Team	33
4.3. Correlation Results.....	34
4.3.1. Pearson Correlation between players satisfaction.....	34
4.3.2. Pearson correlation between coaching leadership style	35
4.3.3. Correlation between players Perceived Leadership Style of the Coaches and players Satisfaction in the Team.....	36
4.4. Discussion.....	37
CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION.....	39
5.1. CONCLUSION.....	39

5.2. RECOMMENDATION 40
References..... 41

List of Figure

Figure 1 Players age.....	28
Figure 2 Players educational background	31
Figure 3 Players experience	29
Figure 4 Mean and Std. Deviation between coaching leadership style (N = 50).....	32
Figure 5 Mean and Std. Deviation score between players satisfaction.....	33

List of Table

Table 1 Descriptive statistics of players' age.....	28
Table 2 Descriptive statistics of players' experience	29
Table 3 Mean and Std. Deviation between coaching leadership style	32
Table 4 Mean and standard score between players satisfaction.....	33
Table 5 Pearson Correlation between players satisfaction (N = 50).....	34
Table 6 Pearson correlation between coaching leadership style (N = 50)	35
Table 7 Pearson Correlation between coaching leadership style and players satisfaction (N = 50).....	36

Acknowledgment

First of all I would like to thank almighty God with whom none of this would be possible. I am very grateful for the support and encouragement from families and friends. I would like to express my deepest gratitude to Dr. WondemagegnDemissie and Mr. Beshir Edo, my thesis advisor and co-advisor for their unreserved support and encouragement throughout the thesis work. I also don't want to pass on expressing my heart gratitude for passengers who took the time to cooperate and participate in this research.

Abbreviations

IPS: Individual Performance Satisfaction

PTS: Personal Treatment Satisfaction

TPS: Team Performance Satisfaction

TIS: Training & Instructor satisfaction

TI: Training and Instruction

DB: Democratic Behavior

AB: Autocratic Behavior

SS: Social Support

PF: Positive Feedback

Abstract

This study examines the effect of leadership style on players' satisfaction of Jimma Aba-Buna and Jimma City football clubs. To achieve this objective, cross-sectional descriptive survey method was used in order to collect data once from both Jimma Aba Buna and Jimma city football club players (n = 2clubs x 25 players) through Multistage sampling technique. Revised version Leadership Scale for Sport (RLSS) by Zhang, Jensen and Mann (1997) and Jowett and Clark-Carter's (2006) adoption of the 56-item Athlete Satisfaction Questionnaire (ASQ; Riemer&Chelladurai, 1998) were used in order to collect data from the players. Percentage, mean and standard deviation and linear regression were used to analyze the data. In general, the finding of this study reveals that Players are on the appropriate age to play football, players had ample playing in league football, and players were licensed with at least one, players were more perceived positive feedback coaching behavior which the highest mean score and followed by social support behavior, autocratic behavior coaching behavior, training and instruction coaching behavior while democratic behavior were the least perceived one. Personal treatment satisfaction was the most important subscale influencing athlete satisfaction in the team followed by team performance satisfaction, individual performance satisfaction while training & instructor satisfaction was the least factor determines the player's performance in the team. Almost all the subscale of the player's satisfaction was found to be statistically insignificant to correlate with the player's satisfaction in the team. The study reported all the subscale of the player's satisfaction was found to be statistically insignificant to correlate with the player's satisfaction in the team. This research highlights that statistically significant low negative relationship was observed between democratic behavior as well as training and instruction and democratic behavior. The study reported that statistically significant low positive relationship was registered between personal treatment satisfaction and autocratic behavior and low negative relation between individual performance satisfaction and democratic behavior.

Key words: leadership, league, players' satisfaction, coaches leadership style and satisfaction

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1. BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Barrow (1977) defined leadership as “the behavioral process of influencing individuals and groups towards set goals”. This definition is important because it places emphasis on the vision of a leader (i.e. goals, objectives) while also highlighting the necessary interaction between the leader and group members. Effective leadership will encompass an understanding of motivation and is likely to minimize any loss of productivity through the development of both task and group cohesion, allowing a group to operate at, or close to its potential. Indeed, Carron and Chelladurai (1981) found that cohesion was dependent upon player and coach relationships. Loehr (2005) stressed that the common theme of effective leadership is the “positive impact that individuals can have on group dynamics relative to a team objective”.

Football is an incredibly the most important issue, which knocks, the door of every individual house in the world (NASOU,1999), The issue of Ethiopian football has recently grown in its importance , recent development in the field of football have led to a renewed School level, College, University, Clubs National and international level (ESP,2000).Over the past half century, Ethiopian national football team international participation has been declined gradually Since 1962, Until now, no Ethiopian football club has been never ever won CAF Champion League, African confederation cup or any other international club competition (Gibbon, 2006).

Researchers have suggested that the interpersonal dynamics at play between player and coach are complex (Bloom, Schinke, &Salmela, 1998; Martens, 1990) and this complexity is also likely to extend to player and manager relations. Managers unable to communicate effectively with their players may inadvertently exacerbate problems due to a lack of understanding from their perspective. Perceptions and interpretation of information conveyed by the manager may have its origins in the formative stage of an individual’s development (Seligman, 1991). To improve the intellectual exchange between player and manager it may be necessary to integrate specialist sports psychology consultants into the team to facilitate reflection from both parties.

To understand leadership it is important to transcend the superficial and retrospective lay-perspective which tends to define success in terms of winning. For some football clubs with

limited resources, success might be defined in terms of maintaining their status (i.e. avoiding relegation to a lower division). According to Weinberg and Gould (2003), leaders typically have two functions in that they ensure the demands of the organization (club) are satisfied by the group effectively meeting its targets and ensure the needs of group members are satisfied. Clearly, those individuals who are responsible for appointing leaders / managers need to ensure that the visions and targets of both the club and potential leader are compatible and that the qualities of the leader and group members (players) are not incongruent.

In association football as in other high status sports, the position of manager represents a stressful and turbulent occupation where individuals are publicly held responsible for a team's performance. In 2004-2005, more than half of the 92 managers that started the English professional league season had been fired by the end of the season, thus reflecting the precarious nature of the position. The average length of tenure per managerial position during this period averaged at just 2 years (The Guardian, 2002), a feature seldom conducive to the successful management of a complex business. However, the goal of an effective and successful manager is arguably the ability to select, retain and develop the best people; this may ultimately be the key to longevity in the role.

The title of 'manager' in British association football is distinct from that of coach and is closer to that of the responsibilities held by a Head Coach or Athletic Director in the United States. The process of managing people whether in sport or business is a complex task and requires a sympathetic appreciation of the multi-dimensional roles required. Traditionally, a coach has a prescribed number of roles, which typically includes a planned, coordinated and integrated program of athlete preparation (Baker, Horton, Robertson-Wilson & Wall, 2003; Lyle, 2002; Pyke, 1992; Sabock, 1985; Woodman, 1993). In contrast, the modern football manager must acknowledge the importance of his role from a business or financial perspective (Perry, 2000).

While some theorists have attempted to distinguish the difference between a manager and a leader by emphasizing the organizational role of the manager and the vision and direction provided by leaders (Weinberg & Gould, 2003), the role of the football manager clearly encompasses elements of both. According to Beech (2002), the consensus is that management implies leadership, but that leaders need not necessarily be managers. Blair (1996) suggests that

the role of a manager is to maximize the output of the organization by organizing, planning, staffing, directing and controlling; and that leadership is just one aspect of the directing function.

Jimma is one of the oldest of the old city among Ethiopian cities which registered more than a decade. Remarkably, Jimma is known as coffee producing city and favorable environment which possess annual rainfall. Supporting with this notion from the very beginning Jimma zone is sport loving and participating community. Jimma Zone players have been representing Ethiopian Football national team at continental level as well as international level. There are a lot role model players at Ethiopian premier league club players and Ethiopian Football national team member players. As a result of this a number of players are following the footsteps their model players and football project are emerging in the Jimma town and surrounding for instance Jimma Tesfa football club U-15 & U-17. Above all, Aba Buna football club and Jimma City football club are the clubs taking part in Ethiopian premier league and Ethiopian super league respectively.

The most important successful factor of a coach is to help athletes to improve their athletic skill in a wide range of tasks from sequential development and mastery of basic skills, to the more specialized physical, technical, tactical and psychological preparation. Chelladurai (1978), effective coaching behavior varies across specific contexts as the characteristics of athletes and the prescribed situation change. The context of the sport situation and characteristics of the coach and the athletes themselves dictate appropriate leadership behavior. To achieve improvement in athletic performance, it may be necessary for the coach to engage in coaching behaviors to which there athlete is receptive. Anyone can conclude that Jimma Zone is the potential area for football that the research is motivated to investigate the research problem entitled as effect of leadership styles on players satisfaction of some selected Jimma zone football clubs.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

Successful sport teams have often a prominent feature distinguishing them from unsuccessful teams which is an effective, active and qualified leadership and management. Leadership style and coaching feedback play an important role in the performance and success of the team (Anshel, 2001). Coach is among the most important elements affecting the efficiency or success of sport teams since in clubs, sport teams and especially in football, a coach has an undeniable role and importance as a thoughtful and dynamic brain to determining destiny and achieving the highest possible return.

One of the most important aspects in decision making of coaches is to select the style and way of coaching. It is important that how a coach decides, what skills and strategies he trains, how he does the necessary organization for doing exercise and competition, what ways he uses for creating discipline in team and above all, what roles he considers for players in decisions (Hosseini, 2007). A coach should possess necessary skills and characteristics for leading the group so that he can conduct the group members to the desired goal. Thus, the leadership style of a coach plays an important role in the performance and success of the team (Anshel, 2001).

Research findings by Yousefi (2007) showed that the relationship between the coaches' leadership styles (except for the autocratic style) and technical atmosphere is negatively significant, while it is positively significant with performance atmosphere. Coaches' leadership styles have four dimensions that the presence of these dimensions causes the difference in the rate of players' collective efficacy, Coaches' support feedback due to creating friendly and respectful environment, the conductional feedback specifying the role and responsibilities of all team members based on regulations, the participatory feedback creating a democratic atmosphere in the team and decision making is done participatory with the team members and coaches' targeting feedback that tries to challenge the targets for individuals with reference to the team results.

According to the results obtained, among the leadership styles, the training and instruction and autocratic style is the predictor of player's efficiency. In other words, among the leadership styles, training and instruction style is only the predictor of the rate of player's efficiency.

Hosseini (2007) showed that coaches use training and instruction feedback more and democratic feedback less. Also, a significant positive relationship between the task and social cohesion and training and instruction, democratic leadership social support and positive feedback was observed.

Also, the study findings suggest that there is a positive and significant relationship between training and instruction, democratic and social support feedback with the collective efficacy that shows the importance of coaches' feedback in group dynamics and group mental condition and finally team performance so that it indicates that coaches' teams with more collective efficacy used the leadership style and social support feedback.

In the past two decades, researches on coaching efficacy have more been focused on identifying coaches characteristics, leadership styles and the feedback patterns of the coach.

In these studies, an effective coach has generally been introduced as a person having the ability to change the results and successful performance and positive mental reactions in the team (Horn, 2002).

There were a considerable amount of research were done on the basis of this local research by different postgraduate students on Jimma zone and leadership for instance by Amanu (2016) reported on assessment of coaches leadership style determinant, players motivation in Ethiopian male premiere league clubs. Gezahagn (2016) confirmed on practices and challenges of human resource development in Jimma zone selected sport and youth affairs offices. Dereje (2016) wrote on leadership style and coaching behaviour in relation with athletes performance of oromia special zone athletics clubs and Henok (2016) conducted on the relationship between leadership styles and organizational culture in Jimma zone youth and sport affairs office, south west, Ethiopia. so that the aforementioned local and international research outputs literatures were failed to show the effect of leadership styles on working efficiencies of some selected Jimma zone football clubs.

Poor coaching and poor athletic behavior, while not popularly studied and verified, does exist and should be evaluated and remedied. The empirical evidence that does exist explains that performance success is positively influenced by a stable and harmonious relationship (Jowett & Cockerill, 2003). Recently in 2009 E.C. AbaBuna Football Club has been lost his point in the first round of Ethiopian first premier league football competition supporting with this idea the

club was lost his point at home as well. For three consecutive years Jimma city football club was unable to elevate himself from super league to premier league. Moreover attempts have been done by firing and hiring new coaches and players as well. Unfortunately, both clubs have been unable to address coaches' leadership style on satisfaction still. The presences of these gaps motivated the researcher to conduct research on the topic of this study. Based on these identified gaps of this study the following basic question was answered.

1. Was the demographic information of players affecting the players' satisfaction of Jimma Aba Buna & Jimma City football team?
2. Which leadership style in favor Jimma Aba Buna & Jimma City football team players?
3. What types of players satisfaction exhibited in Jimma Aba Buna & Jimma City football team?
4. Was there significant relationship between coaches leadership style and players satisfaction of Jimma Aba Buna & Jimma City football team?
5. Was the coaches' leadership style affecting the players' satisfaction of Jimma Aba Buna & Jimma City football team?

1.3. Objectives of the study.

1.3.1 The General objective of study

The main objective of this study was to assess the effect of leadership style on players satisfaction of Jimma zone football clubs.

1.3.2 Specific objectives of the study

The specific objective of this study was:

1. To identify players demographic information of Jimma Aba Buna & Jimma City football team
2. To examine perception coaches leadership in Jimma Aba Buna & Jimma City football team
3. To identify the types of player's satisfaction in Jimma Aba Buna & Jimma City football team

4. To investigate the relationship between coaches leadership style and players satisfaction of Jimma Aba Buna & Jimma City football team
5. To examine the effect of coaches' leadership style on players' satisfaction of Jimma Aba Buna & Jimma City football team

1.4 significance of the study

The result of this study was important for the leaders of Jimma Aba Buna football clubs and Jimma Kenema foot clubs to get information on the leadership style that are more effective on players' satisfaction of football clubs and its current status. On the basis of the information they will get from the result of this study they will plan to up-to-date the important leadership style positively affect the players' satisfaction of the football clubs. Additionally the result of this study was used as the source of information for the future researchers those who was interested to conduct research in the area.

1.5 Delimitation of the study

This study was delimited to Jimma Aba Buna football club and Jimma Kenama football club since there are only two clubs in the zone which have the same setting. This was also delimited to the effect of leadership style on players' satisfaction of Jimma zone football clubs. This study was limited to football players, coaching staffs, administrative staffs and stakeholders working with football clubs in the year 2016/17.

1.6. Limitation

Shortage of time, Reading materials and very limited cooperation of players were among the front runners that the researcher encountered. Had it not been for time shortage the researcher would have interviewed leaders of the organization and also perform standardized observation that would have made the study more refined and complete. Lack of information what the researcher desired to show in his research work was the other one.

1.7. Operational Definitions

Leadership can be hard to define and it means different things to different people. In the transformational leadership model, leaders set direction and help themselves and others to do the right thing to move forward. To do this they create an inspiring vision, and then motivate and inspire others to reach that vision (Barrow, 1977).

A **leadership style** is a leader's style of providing direction, implementing plans, and motivating people (Beech, 2002).

Efficiency is the (often measurable) ability to avoid wasting materials, energy, efforts, money, and time in doing something or in producing a desired result. In a more general sense, it is the ability to do things well, successfully, and without waste (Gill, 2000)

A **football team** is the collective name given to a group of players selected together in the various team sports known as football (Kellett, 2002).

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1.Theoretical Frame work of the leadership styles

There are many different ways to lead and these styles are sometimes taken up and practiced as pure methodologies but more often than not the leadership we experience and even the leaders we become are a mixture of these styles. It is important nevertheless to identify what these styles are so what follows is an analysis of the various leadership styles in existence (Pasha and Mehr, 2015).

2.1.1Autocratic Leadership

Autocratic leaders expect obedience, not understanding and input from their staff or followers. Under the autocratic style, the leader is the maximum ruler and they make all the decisions without seeking any input from those below them. It is characterized by very little trust and management relies on threats and negative enforcement to get things done (Ronayne, 2004).

Despite the overwhelming amount of negativity surrounding this style of leadership there are certain instances when it can be the best suited option. When employees are largely untrained and insecure, the firm decisions that come down from an autocratic leader can be welcomed. When there is limited time to get results or if there is a power struggle arising from lower levels an autocratic style might be able to maintain orderKhabiri, etal (2000).

In most instances, autocratic leadership must be taken in smaller doses. This style probably won't work for an extended period, especially in modern organizations because Generation X employees expect to have a different level of participation in the work environment and autocratic leaders eventually create fear and low employee morale, which are both counter-productiveHoseini, &Misagh, (2010).

2.1.2. Democratic Leadership

Democratic leadership can be described as the polar opposite of autocratic leadership. It is sometimes referred to as a participative style because it is characterized by a more of a bottom-up approach. Management empowers lower-level staff to establish goals and even to evaluate their own performance. There is a constant flow of information up the chain of command. This

style of leadership often enlists greater employee commitment because everyone has a say in the direction of decisions so they are more likely to try to make sure they succeed.

Democratic leadership styles come in handy when there are complex problems to be addressed and they require several different perspectives to come to some agreement. When there is a great focus on team work and improving production based on this model of working in groups a democratic style is also appropriate Hoseini, & Misagh, (2010).

This leadership style can seem particularly attractive so it might be hard to think of situations where it would not be useful, but when there is no time for mass consultation and the cost of making the wrong decision is simply too high, the consultative democratic style may have to take a backseat. If the workforce does not have the level of experience necessary to make decisions, the democratic style can have devastating results.

2.1.3. Laissez-faire Leadership

Continuing with the leadership style analysis, laissez-fair leadership must also be examined. This style of leadership calls for the person at the head to allow those who follow to make their own decisions and choose the path they think is best. The leader takes direction and advice from those placed in key positions and this is in stark contrast to the democratic leader who invites input but reserves the right to make the final decision. Under a laissez-faire approach the experienced staff members analyze, interpret and arrive at a decision. Laissez-faire leaders should not choose this as a path to laziness but rather they must have extreme trust in their team (Chelladurai, 1980)

Laissez-faire leadership is only ever appropriate when the employees are subject area experts, and they are capable of responsibly executing their duties. Laissez-fair leadership should not be used stronger management input is required and it is not an excuse to mask management incompetence. It is usually adopted when dealing with consultants or other field specialists (Blair, 1996).

2.1.4 Transformational Leadership

Transformational leaders lead by example. They are willing to take charge by standing front and center and inspiring those who look up to them to perform in ways that are always reaching for excellence. Transformational leaders seek to bring about some sort of change so they are

characteristically passionate and energetic. They are also usually charismatic, although the subtle difference between a charismatic leader and a transformational one lies in a shift in focus, while the charismatic leader has a strong belief in himself and is able to project that onto others, the transformational leader is there to sell belief in a process and highlight that all hands need to be on deck to achieve the change Hoseini, & Misagh, (2010).

Transformational leadership is a process of engagement between people during which a connection is made and both the level of motivation and morality of leader and follower are raised. Initially termed “charisma”, the original scale was later separated into two distinct sub-facets: idealized attributes; character qualities that employees attribute to the leader, and idealized behaviors; a leader’s charismatic actions directed toward a set of values, beliefs, and a sense of mission (Antonakis et al., 2003; Bass and Riggio, 2006). This higher order construct of leadership is composed of five distinct components: idealized influence attribute, idealized influence behavior, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration (Avolio et al., 1999; Antonakis et al., 2003).

Leaders attain idealized influence by evoking feelings of integrity, trust, and respect in employees, who ultimately view them as role models. Idealized influence attribute focuses on the socialized charisma of the leader, and the perceptions of a leader’s self-confidence, strength and whether or not they are focused on a set of high ethical ideals and moral standards; idealized influence behaviors are those things the leader does to earn such attributions (Antonakis et al., 2003; Bass and Riggio, 2006). Inspirational motivation involves energizing followers by providing optimism, clarifying goals and articulating an idealized, achievable vision that helps to create meaning, mutual understanding, and challenge to the work of subordinates. Intellectual stimulation is defined as the degree to which the leader challenges assumptions and encourages followers to question the status quo, take risks, see problems differently, endeavor fresh approaches to old situations and solicit followers’ ideas (Antonakis et al., 2003; Judge and Piccolo, 2004; Yukl, 1999).

When leaders display individualized consideration, they pay attention to individual follower’s concerns and needs, engage in helping relationships (i.e., mentoring, advising, coaching) to

benefit followers and foster a supportive environment to allow for individual growth and self-actualization (Judge and Piccolo, 2004; Walumbwa et al., 2008).

Adopting this style of leadership is great when there is a need for a change leader. If the situation calls for conversion of ideas and processes towards a different way of thinking and doing, nothing is more appropriate than a transformational leader.

The danger of transformational leadership is the sacrifice of substance for style. Transformational leaders need to depend on a heavy dose of charisma to glamour their followers into accepting their chants for change, but there needs to be a solid vision and plan of action to back-up their claims otherwise they may direct their followers to disillusionment.

2.1.5. Transactional Leadership

As its name suggests, it is a leadership style which lays emphasis on the transaction between leader and its subordinates. Transactional leadership is defined as a process of leader-subordinate exchange, and includes three first-order factors: 1) contingent reward, 2) active management by exception and 3) passive management by exception. Contingent reward refers to leader behaviors focused on clarifying role and task requirements and providing followers with implicit or explicit rewards contingent on the fulfillment of contractual obligations (e.g., offering incentives and rewarding good performance). The leader establishes rewards based upon the successful attainment of clarified expectations (Judge and Piccolo, 2004).

Providing praise and recognition is usually more personal and may involve a combination of transformational leadership and transactional leadership. The broad operational description of management by exception is that the leader waits until the followers' performance problems are serious before responding to them (Bass and Avolio, 1990).

This is a reactive behavior that does not explicitly involve an exchange process. The two leadership behaviors dimensions seen as lacking a positive effect are both active and passive management by exception. In the former, the leader monitors followers' behaviors to help avoid error correction. In the latter, the leader waits for problems to arise or noncompliance has

occurred before taking corrective action. Researchers have asserted that in order to derive the effectiveness of transformational leadership, leader and follower should have initially developed a transactional relationship (Avolio, 1999).

2.2. Choosing a Leadership Style

After careful analysis of just a few of the major leadership styles it is clear to see there are several to choose from. The final choice must be based on a match between the needs of the company, the level of experience of the employees and the preference and limitations of those at the helm.

2.2.1. Authoritarian Decision-Making

Leaders those who use **authoritarian decision-making** make all the major group decisions and demand compliance from the group members. Authoritarian leaders typically make decisions on their own and tell other group members what to do and how to do it. Authoritarian leadership can be beneficial when a decision needs to be made quickly or when a project or situation is particularly stressful.

While authoritarian leadership can be beneficial at times, it is often the case that it's more problematic. This type of decision-making is easily abused, and authoritarian leaders are often viewed as bossy and controlling. Because authoritarian leaders make decisions without consulting the group, many group members may resent the leader because they are unable to contribute ideas Khabiri, etal (2000).

2.2.2. Democratic Decision-Making

The next type of leadership decision-making is democratic. Leaders who use **democratic decision-making** encourage group discussion and believe in decision-making through consensus. Democratic leaders still make the final decision, but do so only after carefully considering what other group members have said. Usually, their decision goes with the majority. Democratic leaders are generally the most popular. They make members of the group feel included and promote teamwork and creativity Khabiri,etal. (2000).

While democratic leadership has been described as the most effective decision-making style, it does have a downside. The time that it takes to reach a group consensus can be crippling for a project. In order for every group member to be heard, discussion can last for a very long time. This can lead to frustration and sometimes even uncompleted projects Khabiri, et al(2000).

2.2.3. Laissez-Faire Decision-Making

Laissez-faire, loosely translated, means 'to leave alone' in French. Therefore, leaders who use **laissez-faire decision-making** let the groups make their own decisions. They are only minimally involved, basically sitting back and letting the group function on its own. Laissez-faire is usually the least effective style of leadership decision-making.

2.3. Previous studies related the topic this study

2.3.1. Team Types

Team researchers have yet to settle upon a single team typology although several have been put forth (e.g., Devine, 2002). From a functional perspective, Sundstrom (1999) details six types of work teams categorized according to organizational position, tenure or organizational mandate. These team types are management, production, service, project, parallel, and action/performing teams. Management teams are typically composed of functionally heterogeneous members with varying specializations that interact interdependently between themselves and with other parts of the organization. These teams usually possess the highest rank and the greatest authority in an organization due to their span of control, responsibilities and resources (Sundstrom, 1999). Production teams are generally described as homogeneous groups of front-line employees who produce tangible outputs in a routine, continuous fashion using relatively advanced technology (Devine, 2002). Production teams usually have short, recurring work cycles involving tasks that are very structured and unambiguous; the collective goal is to build, harvest or assemble as efficiently and accurately as possible. These teams usually possess the lowest rank and the least authority in an organization.

Project teams are sometimes called “task forces” and are characterized as heterogeneous groups collaborating on one-of-a-kind endeavors whose operations are only weakly linked to the organization’s day-to-day activities (Devine, 2002). Parallel teams represent a group of workers outside of, and in parallel with a formal organizational structure (Cohen and Bailey, 1997). In

this configuration, members from various peripheral work groups are brought together to form committees, advisory boards or other functions focused on making recommendations or suggestions to those at a higher level in the organization (Hollenbeck, Beersma and Schouten, 2012) and team members tend to work in a support role, while not necessarily providing technical expertise.

Teams in the category of action and performance are heterogeneous groups of highly specialized individuals that engage in relatively brief, real-time “performance events” for which they maintain a collective skill (Devine, 2002). The diversity of the team members’ skills typically are matched to the impromptu creation required in their roles. The work of these teams can be done in circumstances that are complex, intense and unpredictable, and the structure of their task interdependency with the rest of the organization can range on a continuum from low (e.g., pooled or sequential interdependence) to high (e.g., reciprocal or team interdependence) (Comeau and Griffith, 2005). Examples of this team type include negotiating teams, surgery teams, professional musicians, and sports teams (Rasmussen and Jeppesen, 2006). A distinguishing quality of this team type is the requirement for coordination among specialized roles. This mandates the necessity for individual members to maintain and blend the specialized quantitative skills necessary to complete the task work, with the qualitative skills necessary to ensure teamwork is maximized, and a smoothly coordinated, collective performance event is delivered. The use of action and performing teams is argued to be the appropriate team type for this study because of the prevalence of this team type in the workplace, the increasingly common expectation that employees work effectively in teams to help firms gain a competitive advantage, and the realization that these teams are sometimes asked to perform in a variety of complex, stressful conditions (e.g., Day, Gronn & Salas, 2004; Humphrey, Mannor and Morgeson, 2009; Pfeffer and Blake, 1986) along a continuum of interdependence with the organization as a whole. Although this research sample involves only one category of teams, the need for leadership is a common denominator for all team types who aspire to success by leveraging the individual efforts of its members into a synchronous, collective whole.

2.3.2. The Importance of Teams

Over the past several decades, the use of teams in industrial, governmental and educational settings has grown in importance as organizations realize the power of teams to help meet

challenging performance targets (Devine, Clayton, Philips, Dunford, & Melner, 1999). As an example, the strategy to utilize teams in Fortune 1000 firms increased from below twenty percent in 1980, to about 50 percent in 1990, and exceeded 80 percent by 2000 according to time-series surveys (Garvey, 2002). Greater utilization of teams in organizations provides a better response to competitive forces, mines greater efficiencies from existing resources and offers an ability to produce better results (Kozlowski and Bell, 2003; Belout, 1997; Sundstrom, 1999). First, increasing global competition coupled with the paradox of having to do more with less has influenced organizations to build upon a foundation of teamwork to leverage human capital (Kozlowski and Bell, 2003). In an effort to abate these pressures, organizations realize the need to be efficient, effective and flexible (Belout, 1997).

2.3.3. Team Leadership

Team leadership is defined as the “ability to direct and coordinate the activities of other team members, assess team performance, assign tasks, develop team knowledge, skills, and abilities, motivate team members, plan and organize, and establish a positive atmosphere” (Salas et al., 2005, p. 560). The central duty of an organizational leader is to influence the efforts of followers for the overall benefit of the firm (Zaccaro and Klimoski, 2001). Research into team leadership has risen in importance as the organizational reliance on teams continues to increase (Lorinkova, Pearsall and Sims, 2013). Further, according to Raelin (2004), organizations in the United States spend approximately 50 billion dollars each year on leadership training with the desired outcome of helping their managers, executives and future leaders learn to positively influence their teams of subordinates as they help guide their respective organization toward its targets and objectives.

The most common conceptualizations of leadership include four elements as central to its definition: leadership (a) is a process, (b) entails influence, (c) occurs within a group setting or context, and (d) involves achieving goals that reflect a common vision (Northouse, 2004; Shaw, Duffy and Stark, 2000; Shortell and Kaluzny, 2006). This combination of elements establishes leadership as an essential feature of social groups, and observers draw parallels between a group's performance and its leadership as being responsible for a group's level of success. The context of leadership in teams has enjoyed considerable attention in the research literature across a plethora of disciplines ranging from military (Hardy, et al., 2010), education

(Purvanova and Bono, 2009), psychology (Gibson, et al., 2009), management (Carpenter, 2004), healthcare (Judge and Ryman, 2001) to nursing (Cummings, et al., 2009). Given the organizational role and overall importance of executive leaders, research into the full breadth of leadership in the unstudied context of sports is necessary and important to explore boundary conditions and inform future organizational leaders.

Watson (2001), Greenlees (1999), and Swain (1996) observed a positive and significant relationship between collective efficacy and successful performance of the teams (Jabbari, 2000; Ramazaninejad et al, 2010). However, Allen et al (2009) reported that it is the victory and successful results that enhance efficiency levels of the teams (Ramazaninejad et al, 2010). Also, Hodges and Curran (1992) indicated that subsequent to failure, teams with a high efficiency will have a better performance by much effort and in contrary; teams' performance with low efficiency will suffer (Carron et al, 2002). In the field of coaching, coaches employ various styles; however, no single style would always lead to desired success. In one of the earliest studies using leadership scale questionnaire in sport (Chelladurai and Saleh, 1992), Weiss and Friedrich (1986) concluded that athletes whose coaches used social support leadership styles, positive and democratic feedback were more satisfied than athletes whose coaches used these leadership styles less.

After the issue of the relationship between coaches' leadership styles and the satisfaction of athletes, the collective efficacy was considered by researchers. Also, in a study on the student teams, Ronayne (2004) showed that there were low levels of autocratic and punishment oriented feedback between athletes' perceptions of team cohesion and team efficiency during the season with their perceptions of variables of informational feedback. However, Pease and Kozub (1994) observe no significant relationship between coaches' leadership styles and social cohesion (Yousefi, 2007).

In so doing, in the present study, coaches' leadership style was investigated in the frame of five common styles of training and instruction, social support, democratic, autocratic and Positive feedback. There are feedbacks to improve athletes through training techniques which is said to coordinate activities of team members in team sports (Moradi, 2006). In the present study, training and instruction feedback is defined as the tactical and technical guidelines of coaches during competition and instruction. In this style, the coach emphasizes the training the strengths

and weaknesses of the players and on the improvement of their skills. This style is related to the amount of coach's tendency to athletes' participation in decision making to the team in which the coach allows the athletes to participate in decisions related to determining the team goals and the way to achieve those objectives and seeks the players' opinion on making decision on how to play, exercise and on important issues of coaching (Carron et al, 2002). Autocratic style is a feedback in which the coach does not let the players involve in decision-making and in team issues and players should obey coach commands (Horn, 2002). In social support feedback, to satisfy the mutual personal requirements of the athletes, the coach tries to establish a friendly relationship with players, investigate players' issues and problems and help to resolve disputes among team members (Hoseini and Misagh, 2010). Finally, the positive feedback (rewarding) is a feedback in which the coach praises and encourages the players for good and correct performance and even appreciates them in front of other players (Ronayne, 2004). Also, collective efficacy is defined as the capability and abilities of the team in doing special team skills and achieving objectives that is the team players believe to what extent their teams achieve the desired aims and demands predetermined in each game and in general, in the whole games (Ronayne, 2004). Not much research has been conducted on the leadership style of group cohesion in Iran (Shields, 1997).

Also, on the issue, more researches are needed by the advancement of football science. The main research question is that what leadership style is more used by football team coaches of M. D., Zaccaro S. J., Harding F. D., Jacobs T. O. & Fleishman E. A., 2000 :14). With respect to understanding effective leadership in organizational settings however, the nature of the problems at hand and their associated performance demands have another remarkable set of implications. Specifically, they provide us with some important clues about the type of knowledge and skills likely to underlie effective performance in organizational settings (Mumford M. D. et al, 2000:15). Leaders must not only be able to formulate a plan that works within the context of organization, they must also be able to implement this plan within a distinctly social context, marshaling support, communicating a vision, guiding subordinates, and motivating others. Thus, leaders must be able to understand and work with others, another point which underscores the need for social skills (Mumford M. D., et al, 2000:19).

2.3.4. Transformational Leadership and Team Performance

The link between leadership and team performance has been the source of several studies. Most of this research has focused on the organizational outcomes of a specific leadership style, such as performance and efficiency (e.g., Harter et al., 2002; Howell and Avolio, 1993). A meta-analysis of 63 empirical studies found that about 12% of the variance in team performance was associated with task-focused leadership and 10% of the variance was attributed to developmentally focused leadership (Kozlowski and Ilgen, 2006). Leadership makes a difference for teams: Past research has found leaders' emotional displays (e.g., Van Kleef et al., 2009), behaviors (e.g., Hoffman and Lord, 2013) and values (e.g., Mayer, Aquino, Greenbaum and Kuenzi, (2012) have an effect on the performance of teams.

Transformational leadership is characterized by an ability to bring about greater follower performances by setting higher expectations and motivating the follower to address more difficult work challenges (Avolio, 1999; Bass, 1998). Leaders are able to inspire these higher levels of performance because of their ability to connect in part with followers' individual needs, aspirations and abilities, and influence them to put the good of the organization ahead of their individual desires (Avolio et al., 2009; Bass et al., 2003). The primary mechanism for enabling higher team performance is the leader's ability to create a safe environment where the status quo is challenged and growth is supported (Walumbwa et al., 2008). Whether at the individual (Hater and Bass, 1988), group (Sosik et al., 1997) or organizational / business unit level (Howell and Avolio, 1993), those rated as transformational managers were perceived to have higher performance because of their attention to the developmental desires of followers along with providing opportunities for personal growth, accomplishment and ensuring the intellectual stimulation of followers.

2.3.5. Transactional Leadership and Team Cohesion

Leaders demonstrating contingent reward leadership can directly encourage team cohesion by reinforcing individual followers' understanding of what is expected of them, clarifying the rewards of accomplishing these expectations and recognizing the achievement of these goals (Huang et al., 2010; Lyons and Schneider, 2009). By so doing, these leaders can build a base level of trust with the team as he or she reliably executes what has been agreed to over time. Additionally, when clarity exists around expectations and performance objectives, subordinates learn to trust that those expected to perform according to plan will follow through. For example,

the transactional leadership of army sergeants was found to contribute to a military unit's level of cohesion (Bass et al., 2003). These interactions are representative of coaching interventions between management and subordinate. Further, researchers posit that transactional contingent reward leadership is needed to establish clear standards and expectations of performance (Bass et al., 2003).

Management by exception is considered a corrective form of transactional leadership behavior, and has been found to exist in two sub-dimensions; active and passive (Bass et al., 2003). Leaders who practice active management by exception will monitor follower's activities for performance shortfalls, and then take action to correct these deviations as they occur. In a meta-analysis of leadership literature, Lowe et al. (1996) found leaders exhibiting these behaviors are associated with lower levels of satisfaction, motivation and poorer performance in their teams. Additionally, management by exception was associated with greater conflict and ambiguity in a study of nurse teams (Stordeur et al., 2001). Leaders focused on management by exception behaviors tend more toward error correction than on employee development, and may be perceived as fostering negativity and a feeling of M. Leaders exhibiting passive management by exception behaviors will initiate corrective steps after notification that deviations have surfaced (Bass et al., 2003). This could be seen as demonstrating behaviors that do not support team cohesion. The negative feedback and reinforcement approach inherent in the leadership behaviors of this approach represent a stark contrast to the positive feedback employed by the practitioners of both transformational and contingent reward leadership.

2.4. Players Satisfaction

Recent development in the area of human resource has led to renew the interest of many researchers. Thousands of strategies and mechanism has been devised to identify and intervention has been made in order to enhance the working performance of employee. Nowadays, new management patterns are arising as a result of social, economic and political changes and in recent years, the human factor has emerged as the focal point of changes taking place in organizations. Total Quality Management also seeks constant development by placing the human factor in the foreground. This approach maintaining that total quality can be attained with the co-operation of all the employees is being used to solve numerous problems in many industrial and service providing organizations across the as well as in Ethiopia.

Implementing Total Quality Management in organizations is only possible when the satisfaction of all parties participating in the production process is maximized. This is referred to as “customer satisfaction” in Total Quality Management. Attaining customer satisfaction, especially ‘internal customer (employee) satisfaction’ which has become widespread with total quality (see Sitkin et al., 1994), can be accomplished with holders of successive processes responding to each other’s expectations and desires in a customer-provider relationship.

The satisfaction level of employees is a concept reflecting the degree to which the individual’s needs and desires are met and the extent to which this is perceived by the other employees. Although different researchers have different definitions of employee satisfaction, it is usually perceived as “the scope of the work and all the positive attitudes regarding the work environment” (Staples and Higgins, 1998) and can only be attained if the parties regard one another as customers they have to satisfy.

Especially in recent years, the fact that the level of satisfaction is as important for the employee as it is for the organization is an issue often emphasized in studies on management and organizational behaviour. Finding significant and important relations between absenteeism (Dwyer and Ganster, 1991), employee turnover (Jenkins, 1993) and organizational loyalty (Witt and Beokermen, 1991) in some studies conducted in this area has led to a better understanding of the increasing importance of employee satisfaction. Moreover, employee satisfaction has been emphasized to such a degree that a relation between employee satisfaction and life satisfaction has been queried in many studies (Chacko, 1983; Tait et al., 1989; Judge and Watanabe, 1993; Howard and Frink, 1996). With the understanding of the importance of employee satisfaction, numerous top managers have encouraged their organizations to make endeavors in this direction.

2.4.1. Players Satisfaction Model

Satisfaction is an integral part of sport participation and enjoyment. Without satisfaction, athletes would turn to other sources for potential success and enjoyment (Maday, 2000). Satisfaction in sport has been studied extensively in combination with several variables, mostly leadership (Chelladurai, 1984; Chelladurai et al., 1988; Coffman, 1999; Dwyer & Fischer, 1990; Horne & Carron, 1985; Riemer&Chelladurai, 1995; Riemer&Toon, 2001; Schliesman, 1987; Sriboon, 2001; Yusof, 1999). Several scholars in sport psychology have included athlete satisfaction as an antecedent or outcome variable in their work. For example, the multidimensional model of leadership (Chelladurai, 1980, 1990) includes satisfaction as an outcome variable along with performance. Studies based on the multidimensional model of

leadership (Chelladurai, 1980, 1990) have been largely concerned with linking leadership dynamics with athlete satisfaction. Satisfaction as an outcome has been employed in different leadership studies based on the multidimensional model of leadership (Chelladurai, 1984; Chelladurai et al., 1988; Dwyer & Fischer, 1990; Eichas, 1992; Horne & Carron, 1985; Riemer&Chelladurai, 1995; Riemer&Toon, 2001; Schliesman, 1987; Sriboon, 2001). In the multidimensional model (Chelladurai, 1980, 1990), leadership behaviors were suggested to be antecedents of member satisfaction. The model suggests that the discrepancy between athletes' perceived and perceived leadership style would impact their level of satisfaction. In 1997, Chelladurai and Riemer proposed the model —A Classification of Facets of Athlete Satisfaction.¶ The purpose of the model was to study the needs, benefit, and treatment that were provided for intercollegiate athletics. Based on Chelladurai and Riemer's (1997) classification of facets of athlete satisfaction, Riemer and Chelladurai (1998) developed, a multiple-item, multiple-dimension scale to measure athlete satisfaction, the Athlete Satisfaction Questionnaire (ASQ). The development of the ASQ resulted in a final scale with 15 facets, or subscales, and a total of 56 items on the scale. The format of the scale allows researchers to include those dimensions of satisfaction most salient for a particular situation (Riemer&Toon, 2001). satisfaction was evaluated using 4 of the ASQ's 15 subscales: training and instruction satisfaction, personal treatment satisfaction, team performance satisfaction, and individual performance satisfaction. The first two subscales concentrate on satisfaction with the process of coaching behavior, while the second two assess satisfaction with outcomes associated with the processes of leadership (Riemer&Chelladurai, 1998). *Training and instruction satisfaction* refers to satisfaction with the training and instruction provided by the coach. *Personal treatment satisfaction* refers to satisfaction with those coaching behaviors that directly affect the individual yet indirectly affect team development. It includes social support and positive feedback. *Team performance satisfaction* refers to athlete's satisfaction with his or her team's level of performance. Task performance includes absolute performance, goal achievement, and implies performance improvements. Finally, *individual performance satisfaction* refers to athlete's satisfaction with his or her own task performance. Task performance includes absolute performance, improvements in performance, and goalachievement (Riemer&Chelladurai, 1998)

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Research Design

The main objective of this study was to assess the effect of leadership style on players' satisfaction of Jimma Aba Buna foot club and Jimma Kenama football club. To achieve this objective, cross-sectional descriptive survey method was used in order to collect data once from respondents. In this descriptive survey method, quantitative and qualitative approaches will be used throughout this study. Quantitative approach was used to collect the large scale responses that were collected through questionnaire and qualitative approach was used to gain a deeper understanding of the respondents from the Jimma Aba Buna and Jimma Kenama documents as well as from interviews that were collected from coaches, managers, club members and suggested stakeholders that have more acquaintance with these football clubs.

3.2 Subject of the study

The proposed subject of the study was both Jimma Aba Buna and Jimma Kenama Football club representative players from 2015 to 2017 year and available coaches and board members currently engaged in the training.

3.3 Source of Data

Primary data and secondary data were the source of data for this study. The primary data was collected through semi-structured interviews from sport managers, coaches, Jimma Aba Buna and Jimma city football club members. The secondary data was collected from document reviews.

3.4 Population of the study

The population of this study was football players ($N = 2 \text{ clubs} \times 25 \text{ players}$), Coaches ($N = 2 \text{ clubs} \times 2 \text{ coaches}$), supportive staffs ($N = 2 \text{ clubs} \times 20 \text{ supportive staffs}$) and board members ($N = 2 \text{ clubs} \times 10 \text{ board members}$).

3.5 Sample and sampling technique

Multistage sampling technique was employed in order to select representatives from the target population. Therefore in order to select clubs from the target population purposive sampling was employed. Experience of the clubs and availability of the data was using as a criteria to sample a club. Based on the above criteria Jimma Aba Buna and Jimma City was selected as a sample club. Secondly in order to select players, simple random sampling was employed. Therefore all players from two clubs ($2 \times 25 = 50$) was taken as a sample for this subject.

3.6 Instrument of Data collection

3.6.1. Revised version Leadership Scale for Sport (RLSS) questionnaire

Revised version Leadership Scale for Sport (RLSS) by Zhang, Jensen and Mann (1997). In the first questionnaire, players was asked to choose the style of leadership behaviors should prefer. To define priority of the leadership styles which player perceived, a mean scale is used from the total answers given. This instrument consisted of 40 questions with a five point Likert type scale; 1 (Never), 2 (Seldom), 3 (Occasional), 4 (Often) and 5 (Always).

3.6.2. Athlete satisfaction questionnaire (ASQ)

The study's second set of variables mirrored Jowett and Clark-Carter's (2006) adoption of the 56-item Athlete Satisfaction Questionnaire (ASQ; Riemer&Chelladurai, 1998). Coaches and athletes' self and meta-perceptions of three of the 15 satisfaction dimensions are included in this study. The questionnaire is modified to accommodate the study's intent to sample individual athletes and coaches, not coach-athlete pairs. Items relating to athletes' and coaches' direct and meta-perceptions covered: (a) athletes' satisfaction with training/instruction (six items; e.g. "I am satisfied with my coach's training program this season" or "My coach is satisfied with his/her training program this season) and coaches' satisfaction with training and instruction (six items; e.g. "I am satisfied with my training program this season" or "My athletes are satisfied with my training program this season); and (b) athletes' satisfaction with performance (four items; e.g. "I am satisfied with my skill improvement thus far" or "My coach is satisfied with my skill improvement thus far) and coaches' satisfaction with performance (four items; e.g. "I am satisfied with my athletes' skill improvement thus far" or "My athletes are satisfied with their skill improvement thus far"). While Jowett and Clark-Carter (2006)

used a third dimension of satisfaction with external agents, this study replaced that subscale with athletes' satisfaction with personal treatment (ten items; e.g. "I am satisfied with the recognition I receive from my coach" or "My coach is satisfied with the recognition he/she gives me") and coaches' satisfaction with personal treatment (ten items; e.g. "I am satisfied with the recognition I give my athletes" or "My athletes are satisfied with the recognition I give them"). The items were assigned a score ranging from "strongly disagree" (1) to "strongly agree" (7). So close and open ended questions was designed for this study and Question was written in computer and was delivered for the respondents of this study. Additionally, structured interviews and document reviews was used as the instruments to collect data for this study.

3.7 Data collection procedure

A key element in the design of a high quality research project is the use of a pilot study (Prescott & Soeken,1989). The pilot study can represent different choices: a feasibility study conducted to prepare for the major research study, or as part of the research plan to develop or refine the methodology. Hence, Pilot studies are applicable to both qualitative and quantitative research and are not merely research projects that were unsuccessful in obtaining adequate sample size. As demonstrated in the literature by Dallas et al. (2005a,b), large-scale studies may contain several pilot studies before the launch of the main study. Implementing a pilot study will often add to groundwork time for a project, however, it will provide an opportunity to correct defects in the ultimate research design (Teijlingen& Hundley,2001) and Lindquist(1991).

Cranach's Alphas an important concept in the evaluation of assessments and questionnaires. It is mandatory that assessors and researchers should estimate this quantity to add validity and accuracy to the interpretation of their data (1996). In case of evaluating internal consistency of both questionnaires was distributed to Jimma Tesfa football project.

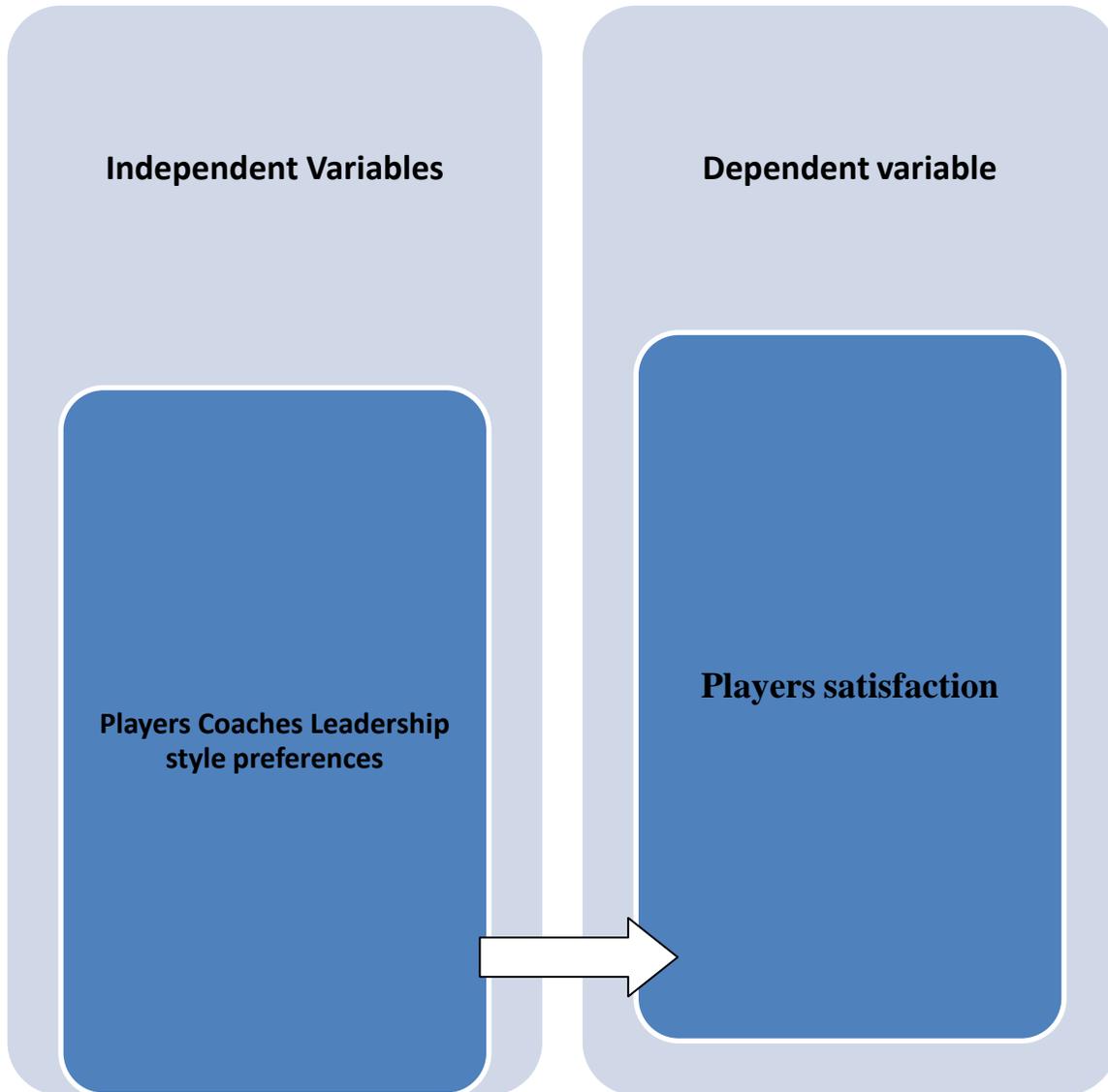
Test-Retest Reliability is the most straightforward method of estimating reliability is to administer the test twice to the same set of subjects and then correlate the two measurements (that at Time 1 and that at Time 2). Pearson r is the index of correlation most often used in this

context. If the test is reliable, and the subjects have not changed from Time 1 to Time 2, then we should get a high value of r (Kumar et al, 2013). To this effect, both questionnaires was distributed to Jimma Tesfa football project U-17. The Cronbach's Alpha $\alpha = 0.8$ and Test-Retest Reliability $r = 0.78$. this implies that the questionnaire were accepted then the final questionnaire was distributed to the appropriate subjects.

3.8. Ethical Clearance

The study deals with the ethical issues which 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 is 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 informed to the concerned bodies.

3.7. Conceptual Framework



3.9 Method of Data Analysis

Descriptive statistical analysis was used to analyze the data of this study. In this descriptive statistical analysis percentage, mean and standard deviation was used to analyze the independent variable score as well as inferential statistics such as linear regression was used to analyze the quantitative data and qualitative data was analyzed using conceptual framework thematically.

CHAPTER FOUR: DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

4.1. Introduction

This paper assessed the effect of leadership style on players' satisfaction of Jimma zone football clubs. In order to obtain the data Revised version Leadership Scale for Sport (RLSS) by Zhang, Jensen and Mann (1997) and 56-item Athlete Satisfaction Questionnaire (ASQ; Riemer&Chelladurai, 1998) instrument of data collection were used. Figures, frequency, percentage, mean, standard deviation and pearson correlation coefficient were used to analyze the quantitative.

4.2. Descriptive statistics of players

4.2.1. Descriptive statistics of player's age

Table 1 Descriptive statistics of players' age

Age	Frequency	Percent
<25	17	34.0
26-30	30	60.0
31-35	3	6.0
Total	50	100.0

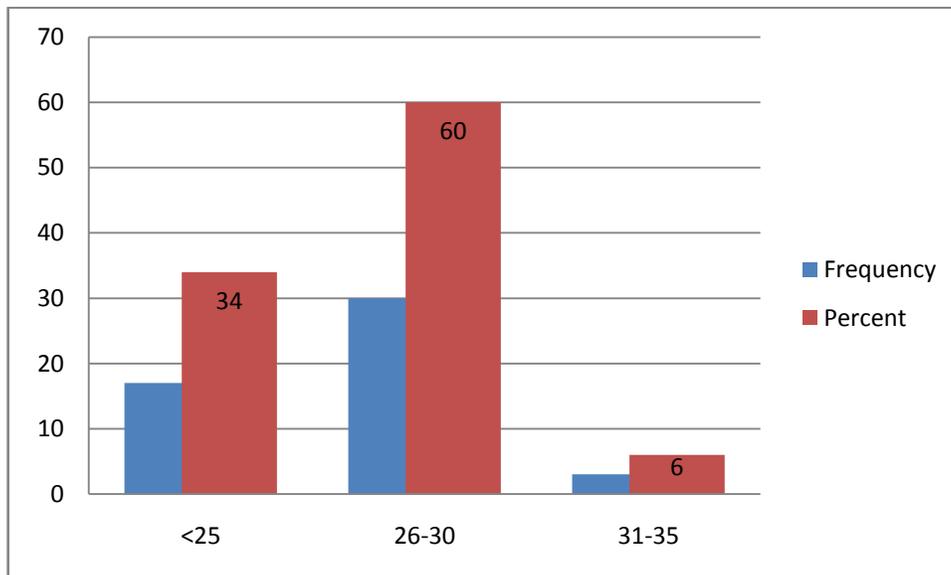


Figure 1 Players age

Table 1 and Figure 1 shows that 17 (34%) players age were <25years old, 30(60%) of football players age were ranges between 26-30years old and 3(6%) of football players age swings between 31-35 years old. from the above data we can understand that both clubs should incorporate more experienced players in the teams to increase clubs maturity.

4.2.2. Descriptive statistics of player’s experience

Table 2 Descriptive statistics of players' experience

Players experience	Frequency	Percent
<5years	43	86.0
5-9years	7	14.0
Total	50	100.0

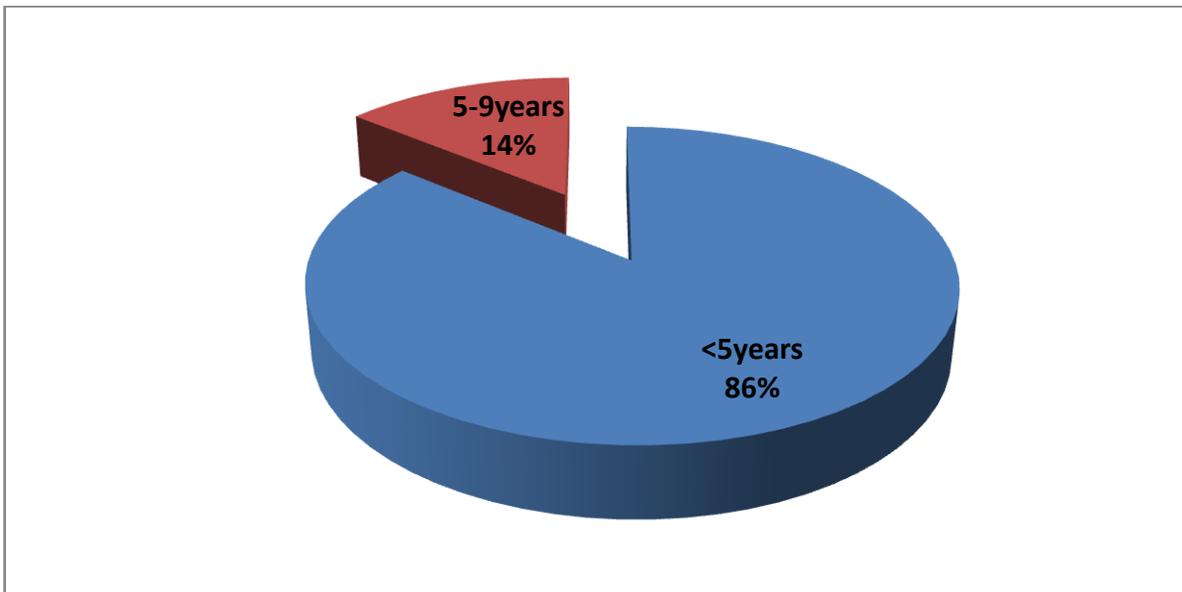


Figure 2 Players experience

Table 2 and Figure 2 revealed that playing experience of the respondents demonstrate that 86% players have less than 5 years of playing experience and 14% players have 6-9 year of experience 17% in playing for different football clubs. The reason behind their playing experience was they have played for different clubs both in super league and premier league of

Ethiopia among them very few of them played at different international arenas representing their country Ethiopia. And limitation has been found that few have experienced while the other were not blessed to be however most them experienced and they can represent their country if they work hard. So from this data we can conclude majority of players do have less experienced footballer. Therefore, the clubs should become hard to include more experienced player in order to increase the number of senior players.

4.2.3. Descriptive statistics of player's educational background

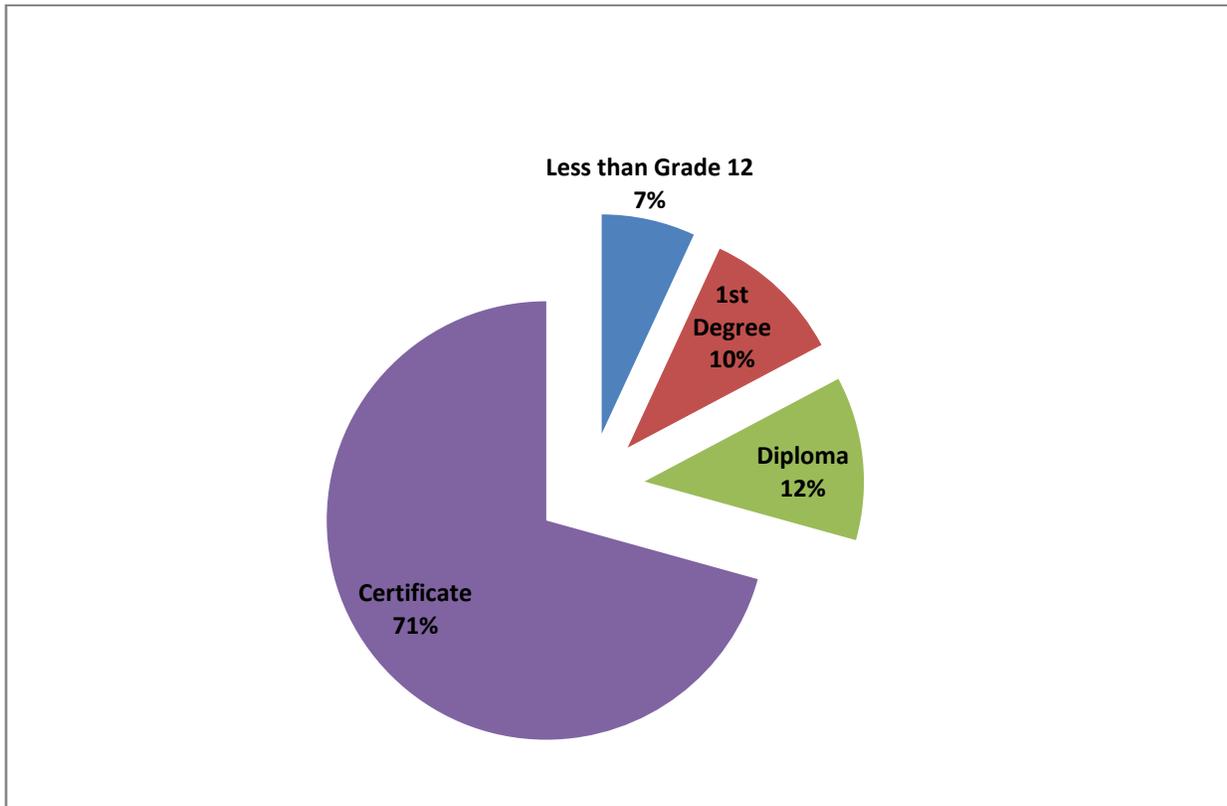


Figure 3 Players educational background

From the illustration of Figure Educational background of our subject is less than grade 12 (7%); 1st degree (10%) and certificate (71%). Almost all of the players were certificate holders and also very few football clubs having diploma, 1st degree and less than grade 12 consecutively. It is safe to say that most of the football players were licensed with at least one certificate means that they have an option to have alternative jobs were more average players are in a position to understand the game strategy.

4.2.4. Descriptive statistics of Coach Leadership Style Perceived by players

Table 3 Mean and Std. Deviation between coaching leadership style

Leadership subscales	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Training and Instruction	50	4.36	.481
Democratic Behavior	50	4.30	1.192
Autocratic Behavior	50	4.38	.486
Social Support	50	4.40	.490
Positive Feedback	50	4.44	.498

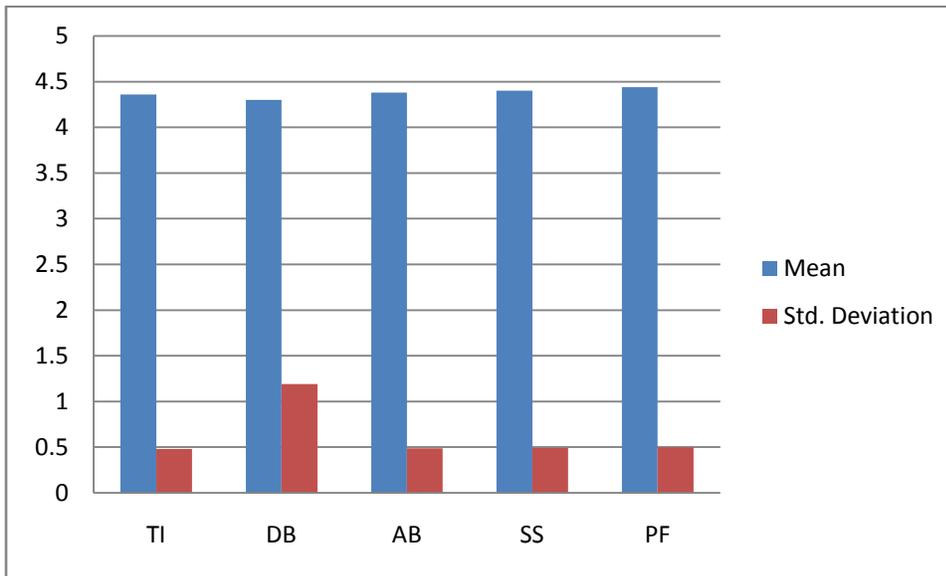


Figure 4 Mean and Std. Deviation between coaching leadership style (N = 50)

Table 3 and Figure 4 indicated that the players were more perceived Positive Feedback coaching behavior which the highest mean score ($M = 4.44$, $SD = .498$) and followed by Social Support behavior ($M = 4.40$, $SD = .49$), Autocratic Behavior coaching behavior ($M = 4.38$, $SD = .486$), Training and Instruction coaching behavior ($M = 4.36$, $SD = .481$) while Democratic Behavior coaching behavior had least score ($M = 4.3$, $SD = 1.192$.)

4.2.7. Descriptive statistics of player’s Satisfaction in the Team

Table 4 Mean and standard score between players satisfaction

Satisfaction subscales	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Training & Instructor satisfaction	50	4.20	.413
Personal Treatment Satisfaction	50	4.42	.495
Team Performance Satisfaction	50	4.40	.491
Individual Performance Satisfaction	50	4.32	.474

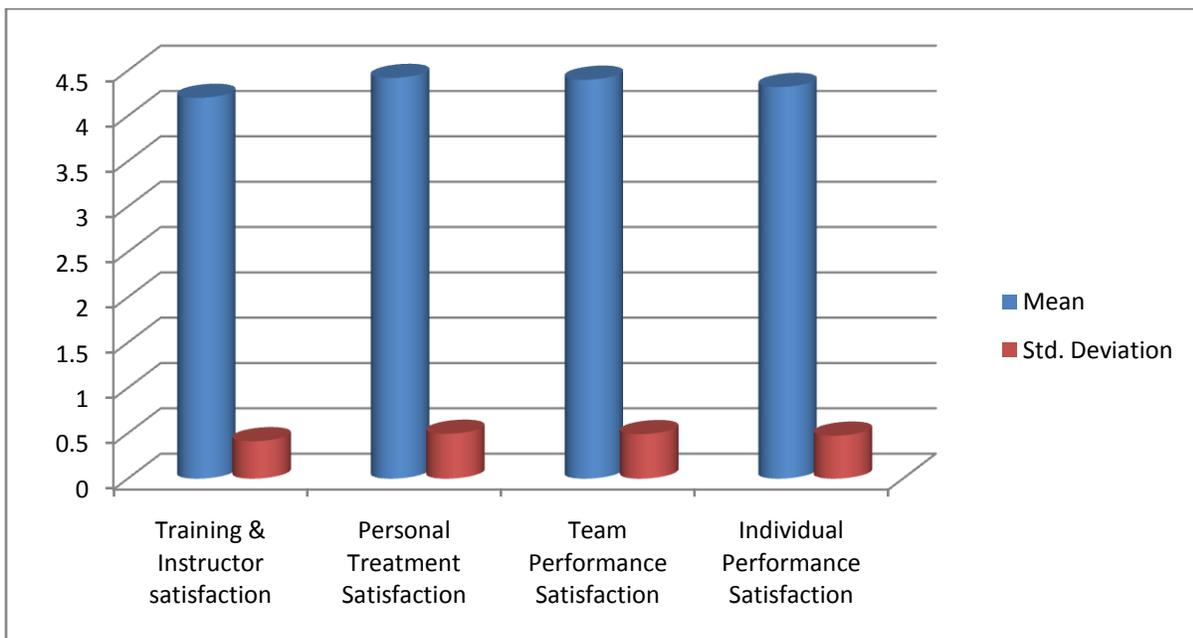


Figure 1 Mean and Std. Deviation score between players satisfaction

Table 4 and Figure 5 shows that Personal Treatment Satisfaction ($M = 4.42$, $SD = .495$) was the most important subscale influencing athlete satisfaction in the team. Analysis of the mean scores showed that Team Performance Satisfaction ($M = 4.40$, $SD = .491$) was the second highest mean scored for athlete satisfaction. The third determinant was Individual Performance Satisfaction ($M = 4.32$, $SD = .474$) which affect players satisfaction in the team while Training & Instructor satisfaction ($M = 4.20$, $SD = .413$) was the least factor determines the players performance in the team. Thus, it could be concluded that coaches and club leaders should given emphasis for personal related treatment and team performance satisfaction in order to increase the satisfaction of players.

4.3. Correlation Results

4.3.1. Pearson Correlation between players satisfaction

Table 5 Pearson Correlation between players satisfaction (N = 50)

Players satisfaction subscale	Training & Instructor satisfaction	Personal Treatment Satisfaction	Team Performance Satisfaction	Individual Performance Satisfaction
Training & Instructor satisfaction	1			
Personal Treatment Satisfaction	.051	1		
Team Performance Satisfaction	-.008	.012	1	
Individual Performance Satisfaction	-.112	.070	-.029	1

* P<0.05 & ** P<0.01

Table5, reveals that TIS do have positive relationship with PTS ($r = .051, p > 0.01$) and TIS have negative relationship with TPS and IPS respectively ($r = -.008, p > 0.01$) and ($r = -.112, p > 0.01$). PTS have negative correlation with TPS and IPS ($r = -.008, p > 0.01$) and ($r = -.008, p > 0.01$) respectively. Moreover TPS had negative correlation with IPS ($r = -.112, p > 0.01$). From this data one can safely conclude that all subscales of the players satisfaction was found to be statistically insignificant to each other.

4.3.2. Pearson correlation between coaching leadership style

Table 6 Pearson correlation between coaching leadership style (N = 50)

leadership style	Training and Instruction	Democratic Behavior	Autocratic Behavior	Social Support	Positive Feedback
Training and Instruction	1				
Democratic Behavior	-.134**	1			
Autocratic Behavior	.031	.096	1		
Social Support	.081	-.135*	.008	1	
Positive Feedback	-.038	-.110	.007	.969	1

* P<0.05 & ** P<0.01

Table 6, shows that TI do have negative significant correlation with DB ($r = -.134^{**}$, $p < 0.01$) and negative insignificant with PF ($r = -.038$, $p > 0.01$) while TI have positive relationship with AB & SS ($r = .031$, $p > 0.01$) and ($r = .081$, $p > 0.01$) respectively. DB has positive correlation with AB ($r = .096$, $p > 0.01$), negative insignificant relationship with SS ($r = -.135^{*}$, $p < 0.01$) and negative relationship with PF respectively. Furthermore, AB do have positive relationship with SS & PF ($r = .008$, $p > 0.01$) and ($r = .007$, $p > 0.01$) respectively. While, SS have positive relationship with PF ($r = .969$, $p > 0.01$). From the above analysis one can easily understand that statistically significant low negative relationship between democratic behavior while training and instruction and democratic behavior.

4.3.3. Correlation between players Perceived Leadership Style of the Coaches and players Satisfaction in the Team

Table 7 Pearson Correlation between coaching leadership style and players satisfaction (N = 50)

leadership style subscale	Training and Instruction	Democratic Behavior	Autocratic Behavior	Social Support	Positive Feedback
Training & Instructor satisfaction	-.024	-.068	-.053	-.028	.056
Personal Treatment Satisfaction	.033	-.027	.142*	.015	.088
Team Performance Satisfaction	.001	.054	-.005	-.086	.086
Individual Performance Satisfaction	.035	-.108*	.000	.085	.025

* P<0.05 & ** P<0.01

Table 7, indicates that TIS has negative correlation with TI, DB, AB & PF ($r = -.024$, $p < .01$), ($r = -.068$, $p > 0.01$) ($r = -.053$, $p > 0.01$) and ($r = -.028$, $p > 0.01$) and positive relationship with PF ($r = .056$, $p > 0.01$) respectively. Secondly, PTS have positive correlation with TI, SS and PF ($r = .033$, $p > 0.01$), ($r = .015$, $p > 0.01$) and ($r = .088$, $p > 0.01$) while significant positive correlation with AB ($r = .142^*$, $p > 0.01$), whereas negative correlation with DB ($r = -.027$, $p > 0.01$), respectively. Thirdly, TPS has positive correlation with TI, DB & PF ($r = .001$, $p > 0.01$), ($r = .054$, $p > 0.01$) & ($r = .086$, $p > 0.01$) on the other hand negative relationship was registered with AB & SS ($r = -.005$, $p > 0.01$), ($r = -.086$, $p > 0.01$) respectively. Fourthly, IPS have positive correlation with TI, SS & PF ($r = .035$, $p > 0.01$), ($r = .085$, $p > 0.01$) & ($r = .025$, $p > 0.01$) and no correlation with AB ($r = .000$, $p > 0.01$) whereas negative correlation was observed with DB respectively.

4.4. Discussion

In our context the majority of football players agreed that they are satisfied with clubs. This research indicates that players were more perceived positive feedback coaching behavior which the highest mean score and followed by social support behavior, autocratic behavior coaching behavior, training and instruction coaching behavior and democratic behavior coaching behavior and the study reveals that personal treatment satisfaction was the most important subscale influencing athlete satisfaction in the team followed by team performance satisfaction, individual performance satisfaction and training & instructor satisfaction was the obvious factor determines the player's performance in the team. In similar way different scholars emphasize the importance of satisfaction as an integral part of sport participation and enjoyment. Without satisfaction, athletes would turn to other sources for potential success and enjoyment (Maday, 2000). Satisfaction in sport has been studied extensively in combination with several variables, mostly leadership (Chelladurai, 1984).

According to my finding players perceived leadership style have positive effect of players satisfaction. Other scholars depicts that the use of transformational leadership behaviors can increase player satisfaction and improve team performance, because these players expected and perceived coaches using the transformational style (Chien-Ting Chen Chair, 2007). In the same fashion, The results indicated by other researcher shows that the congruency of two particular leadership behaviors, training and instruction and autocratic behavior, play a role in the determination of athlete satisfaction among collegiate tennis players. Consequently, these results indicate that some, but not all, facets of leadership behavior have an impact on satisfaction when the coach's leadership behavior as perceived by the athlete is similar to the behavior perceived by the athlete (Andrew, 2009).

The study reported that statistically significant low positive relationship was registered between personal treatment satisfaction and autocratic behavior and low negative relation between individual performance satisfaction and democratic behavior. Correspondingly other findings show that exercise-training leadership, authoritative behavior, democratic behavior, social support and positive feedback are significantly interrelated with satisfactions of players in Teraktorsazi club. Specifically, the greatest and least coefficients of determination relate to

positive feedback (Pasha and Mehr, 2015). This result is consistent with study of Fom (2006). Fom (2006) reveals that relationship-oriented principals put in better performance, relative to criterion-oriented principals. Additionally, motivations of teachers are affected by gender of principals. Also, Sharee (1998) finds a significant correlation between leadership styles and effectiveness of principals. Moreover, relationship-oriented principals display more effective behavior, as compared with criterion-oriented principals (As cited in Khamesi, 2004). Tajvar (2004) discovers a direct relationship between relationship- and criterion- leadership styles and performance of employers and highlights direct impact of leadership styles of principals upon performance of teachers.

AzadiKavir (2004) who suggest a positive correlation between education management styles and job satisfaction of employees. Manzoori and Shokrkon (1996) show a significant relationship between conservative leadership styles of principals and job satisfactions of teachers. Also, constructive leadership style is significantly related with their job satisfaction. Wong et al. (2007) examine behavior of coaches and satisfactions of athletes in individual sports and team sports. They highlight significant impacts of principals upon satisfaction of players, irrespective of players' level. Their regression analysis shows a significant relationship between all coaches' patterns of behavior (mental readiness, technical skills, target creation, physical exercises, and strategies of matches, personal relationship, and personal negative relationship) and satisfactions of players in individual sports. Results arising from the study showed that the coach's style of training and instruction is more and democratic leadership style is less. Also there was positive correction between training and instruction, social support, positive feedback and autocratic leadership style with all types of athletic satisfaction (Gilda, 2011).

CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

5.1. CONCLUSION

Based on the finding of the study the following conclusion was formulated. These are:

- ✓ This paper reported that players are on the appropriate age to play football.
- ✓ The study confirms that players had ample playing experience which is limited to Ethiopian premier league
- ✓ The study suggested that players were licensed with at least one certificate means that they have an option to have alternative jobs.
- ✓ This research indicates that players were more perceived positive feedback coaching behavior which the highest mean score and followed by social support behavior, autocratic behavior coaching behavior, training and instruction coaching behavior and democratic behavior coaching behavior
- ✓ The study reveals that personal treatment satisfaction was the most important subscale influencing athlete satisfaction in the team followed by team performance satisfaction, individual performance satisfaction and training & instructor satisfaction was the obvious factor determines the player's performance in the team.
- ✓ The study reported all the subscale of the player's satisfaction was found to be statistically insignificant to correlate with the player's satisfaction in the team.
- ✓ This research highlights that statistically significant low negative relationship was observed between democratic behavior as well as training and instruction and democratic behavior.
- ✓ The study reported that statistically significant low positive relationship was registered between personal treatment satisfaction and autocratic behavior and low negative relation between individual performance satisfaction and democratic behavior.

5.2. RECOMMENDATION

Depending on the conclusion of this study the following recommendations were drawn. These are:

- ✓ Majority of the players' are at the right age to understand and play football in the league level. Therefore, club coaches' and team leaders should encourage and consult players to show their best performance.
- ✓ Majority of football players have minimum 5 years of experience in the respective clubs. Therefore, all club stockholders should work hard in order to incorporate experienced players in the key position as to increase club maturity.
- ✓ Despite the fact that there are there are limitations small sample size future work will concentrate on increasing the sample size and changing the research design in order to validate this research findings.
- ✓ A football coaches should promote positive feedback behavior followed by social support behavior in order to exploit best performance of players
- ✓ Coaches and players should give emphasis for personal satisfaction as to maintain players high satisfaction
- ✓ Personal treatment satisfaction should be combined with positive feedback behavior of the coaches as to increase team satisfaction.

References

- Abraham, A., & Collins, D. (1998). Examining and extending research in coach development. *Quest*, 50, 59-79.
- Amanu, E. (2016). Assessment of coach leadership style determinant, players motivation in Ethiopian male premier league clubs. Unpublished MSc.thesis. Jimma University
- Andrew, D. (2009). Event Code: 280 Personnel administration; 310 Science & research. *Journal of Sport Behavior* Publisher: University of South Alabama Audience: Academic Format: Magazine/Journal Subject: Psychology and mental health; Sports and fitness Copyright: COPYRIGHT 2009 University of South Alabama ISSN: [0162-7341](#)
- Audas, R., Dobson, S., & Goddard, J. (1997). Team performance and managerial change in the English football league. *Economic Affairs*, 17(3), 30-36.
- Baker, C. V., Salas, E., Cannon-Bowers, J. A., & Spector, P. (1992, April). The effects of interpositional uncertainty and workload on teamwork and task performance. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology, Montreal, Quebec, Canada.
- Baker, J., Horton, S., Robertson-Wilson, J., & Wall, M. (2003). Nurturing sport expertise: Factors influencing the development of the elite athlete. *Journal of Sports Science and Medicine*, 2, 1-9.
- Barrow, J. (1977). The variables of leadership. A review and conceptual framework. *Academy of Management Review*, 2, 231-251.
- BBC (2002, May 23). *The England Patient*. [VHS recording of television broadcast]. London: British Broadcasting Corporation.
- Beech, M. (2002). Leaders or managers: the drive for effective leadership. *Nursing Standard*,

16, 35-36.

Blair, G. (1996). Difference between leadership and management. Retrieved March 23, 2006, from <http://www.see.ed.ac.uk/~gerard/MENG/ME96/index.html>

Blake, R., & Moulton, J. (1969). Building a dynamic corporation through grid organisation development. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Bloom, G. A., Crumpton, R., & Anderson, J. E. (1999). A systematic observation study of the teaching behaviors of an expert basketball coach. *The Sport Psychologist*, 13, 157-170.

Bloom, G. A., Schinke, R. J., & Salmela, J. H. (1998). Assessing the development of perceived communication skills by elite basketball coaches and athletes. *Coaching and Sport Science Journal*, 2(3), 3-10.

Bolden, R., Gosling, J., Marturano, A., & Dennison, P. (2003). A review of leadership theory and competency frameworks. University of Exeter. Retrieved January 25, 2006, from www.leadership-studies.com/documents/mgmt_standards.pdf

Borrie, A., & Knowles, Z. (2003). Coaching science and soccer. In T. Reilly & A. M. Williams (Eds.), *Science and soccer* (2nd ed., pp.187-195). London: Rutledge.

Buckingham, M. (2005). What great manager's do. *Harvard Business Review*, 83(3), 1-12.

Cannon-Bowers, J. A., Salas, E., & Converse, S. A. (1993). Shared mental models in expert team decision-making. In N. J. Castellan Jr. (Ed.), *Current issues in individual and group decision-making* (pp. 221-246). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Chien-Ting Chen Chair, (2007). The effect of coach leadership behaviors on players' satisfaction in Collegiate basketball in Taiwan. Unpublished dissertation.

Carron, A. V., & Chelladurai, P. (1981). Cohesion as a factor in sport performance. *International Review of Sport Sociology*, 16, 21-41.

Chelladurai, P. (1978). A contingency model of leadership in athletics. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Waterloo, Canada.

- Chelladurai, P. (1990). Leadership in sports: A review. *International Journal of Sport Psychology*, 21, 328-354.
- Chelladurai, P. (1993). Leadership. In R. N. Singer, M. Murphey, & L. K. Tennant (Eds.), *Handbook of research on sport psychology* (pp. 647-671). New York: Macmillan.
- Chelladurai, P., & Carron, A.V. (1978). Leadership. CAPHER, *Sociology of Sport Monograph Series A*. Calgary, AB: University of Calgary.
- Chelladurai, P., & Carron, A.V. (1983). Athletic maturity and preferred leadership. *Journal of Sport Psychology*, 5, 371-380.
- Chelladurai, P., & Doherty, A. J. (1998). Styles of decision-making in coaching. In J.M. Williams (Ed.), *Applied sport psychology: personal growth to peak performance* (3rd ed., pp. 115-126). Mountain View, CA: Mayfield.
- Chelladurai, P., & Riemer, H. A. (1998). Measurement of leadership in sport. In J. L. Duda (Ed.), *Advances in sport and exercise psychology* (pp. 227-253). Morgantown, WV: Fitness Information Technology.
- Chelladurai, P., & Saleh, S. (1978). Preferred leadership in sports. *Canadian Journal of Applied Sport Sciences*, 3, 85-92.
- Chelladurai, P., & Saleh, S. (1980). Dimensions of leader behavior in sports: Development of a leadership scale. *Journal of Sport Psychology*, 2, 34-45.
- Clough, P. J., Earle, K., & Sewell, D. (2002) Mental toughness: the concept and its measurement. In I. Cockerill (Ed.), *Solutions in sport psychology* (pp. 32-43). London: Thomson Publishing.
- Coleman, S., Fairweather, M., & Ferrier, B. (2003). The analysis of football kicking skills within the Scottish Institute of Sport. *Insight: The FA Coaches Association Journal*, 6 (3), 36-37.
- Coaching Feedbacks, Influence Team Cohesion and Collective Efficacy over the Course of a Season, Master of Science in Sport Studies, Physical Education, Health, and Sport

Studies, Miami University

- Côté, J., Salmela, J., Trudel, P., Baria, A., & Russell, S. (1995). The coaching model: A grounded assessment of expert gymnastic coaches' knowledge. *Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology*, 17, 1-17.
- Carron, A.V., Colman, M. M., Wheeler, J. & Stevens, D. (2002). Cohesion and Performance in Sport: A Meta Analysis. *Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology*, 24(2), 168-188.
- Crust, L., & Clough, P. J. (2005). Relationship between mental toughness and physical endurance. *Perceptual & Motor Skills*, 100, 192-194.
- Douge, B. (1999, Summer). Coaching adolescents: To develop mutual respect. *Sports Coach*, 6-7.
- Dereje, G.(2016).Leadership style and coaching behaviour in relation with athletes performance of oromia special zone athletics clubs. Unpublished MSc.thesis. Jimma University
- Education, University of North Ramazaninejad, R., HosseiniKeshtan, M., Noshin, B. &Mahds, F. (2010). The relationship between coaches' styles with group cohesion and success of female volley ball teams in Islamic Azad University. *Journal of Sport Management*, 6, 29-46
- Fiedler, F. (1967). *A theory of leadership effectiveness*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Henok, L. (2016). The relationship between leadership styles and organizational culture in Jimma zone youth and sport affairs office, south west, Ethiopia. Unpublished MSc.thesis. Jimma University
- Gezahagn, F.(2016). Practices and challenges of human resource development in Jimma zone

- selected sport and youth affairs offices. Unpublished MSc.thesis. Jimma University
- Gill, D. L. (2000). Psychological dynamics of sport and exercise (2nded). Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
- Gill, D. L., & Perry, J. L. (1979). A case study of leadership in women's intercollegiate softball. *International Review of Sport Sociology*, 14, 83-91.
- Gilda, K. (2011). The relationship between coaches leadership styles & player satisfaction in women skate championship. Volume 15, 2011, Pages 3596-3601
- Grusky, O. (1963). The effects of formal structure on managerial recruitment: A study of baseball organization. *Sociometry*, 26, 345-353.
- Hendry, L. (1969). A personality study of highly successful and 'ideal' swimming coaches. *Research Quarterly*, 40, 299-305.
- [5] Hoseini, K. & Misagh, H. (2010). The Relationship Between Collective Efficacy and Coaching Feedbacks in Professional Volleyball League of Iran Clubs. *World Journal of Sport Sciences*, 3(1), 1-6.
- [6] Hosseini, K. M. (2007). The relationship between coaches' style and team cohesion of Iranian Premier League football teams. MA Thesis, Physical Education and Sports Science field. Guilan University.
- Horn, T. (2002). Coaching effectiveness in the sport domain. In T. Horn (Ed.), *Advances in sport psychology*, (2nd ed., pp. 309-354). Champaign, IL. Human Kinetics.
- Janssen, J., & Dale, G. (2002). *The seven secrets of successful coaches*. Tucson, AZ: The Mental Game.
- Jabbari, G. R., Kozechian, H. & Khabiri, M. (2000). Studying the leadership between coaches' style and abilities and performance of Iranian first and second league

- clubs(Azadegan cup). Harakat publication, 6, 103-120.
- Jones, G., Hanton, S., &Connaughton, D. (2002). What is this thing called mental toughness? An investigation of elite sport performers. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology*, 14, 205-218.
- Jowett, S. (2001). The psychology of interpersonal relationships in sport: The coach-athlete relationship. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. University of Exeter, UK.
- Jowett, S. (2003). When the honeymoon is over: A case study of a coach-athlete dyad in crisis. *The Sport Psychologist*, 17, 444-460.
- Jowett, S., &Cockerill, L. (2002). Incompatibility in the coach-athlete relationship. In I. Cockerill (Ed.), *Solutions in sport psychology* (pp. 16-31). Andover, UK. Thomson Learning.
- Jowett, S., &Ntoumanis, N. (2004). The Coach-Athlete Relationship Questionnaire (CART-Q): Development and initial validation. *Scandinavian Journal of Medicine and Science in Sports*, 14, 245-257.
- Jowett, S., Paull, G., Pensgaard, A., Hoegmo, P., &Riise, H. (2005). Coach-athlete relationship. In J. Taylor & G. Wilson (Eds.), *Applying sport psychology* (pp. 153-170). Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.
- Kellett, P. (2002). Football-as-war, coach-as-general: Analogy, metaphor and management implications. *Football Studies*, 5(1), 60-76.
- Kobasa, S. C. (1979). Stressful life events, personality and health: An inquiry into hardiness. *Journal of Personality and Social Psy*
- Pasha, P, and Mehr A. (2015). The Relationship between Leadership Styles of Coaches with satisfaction of football Players in Teraktorsazi Club.*International Journal of Basic Sciences & Applied Research*. Vol., 4 (SP3), 50-54, 2015 Available online at <http://www.isicenter.org> ISSN 2147-3749 ©2015

Ronayne, L. S. (2004). Effects of Coaching Feedbacks on Team Dynamics: How Sports motivational atmosphere in female sport teams. MA thesis, field of physical

YousefiPaskeh, M. (2007). The relationship between coaches' leadership styles and

APPENDIX –A

Jimma University, College of Natural Science, Department of Sport Science, Post Graduate Program in Sport management

RLSS Questionnaire filled by players,

This questionnaire is designed to gather data about effect of leadership styles on players' satisfaction of Jimma zone football clubs. This research was conducted as a partial fulfillment of Master's Degree in Sport Management at Jimma University. The data you provide are believed to have a great value for the success of this research. I confirm you that all data was used for academic purpose and analyzed anonymously through the authorization of the university. As a result, you are not exposed to any harm because of the information you provide

General Instructions

- No need of writing your name;
- Use(✓) mark to show your response for close ended questions, and
- Give short answer for the open-ended questions on the space provided
- Thank you in advance for your honest cooperation!!

Part I: Demographic Information

1. Sex : A) Male B) Female
2. Age: A) < 25 Year B) 26-30 years C) 31-35 Years
D) 36-40 Years E) 41- 45 years F) > 46 years
3. Educational status/Qualification
A) M.Sc./M.A B) Degree C) Diploma D) Certificate E) others_____
4. Service years?
A) <5 Years B) 5-9 years C) 10-14 Years
D) 15-19 Years E) > 20 years

PART II: LEADERSHIP STYLE SCALE FOR SPORT (LSS)

NOTE: Using the following scale, please circle a number from 1 to 5 to indicate your level of agreement with each of the statements regarding your Coach/Team leader.

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Seldom	Occasionally	Often	Always
	25% of the time	50% of the time	75% of the time	

My coach...

1. Sees to it that every athlete is working to his/her capacity.
A. Never B. Seldom C. Occasionally D. Often E. Always
2. Explains to each athlete the techniques and tactics of the sport.
A. Never B. Seldom C. Occasionally D. Often E. Always
3. Pays special attention to correcting athlete's mistakes.
A. Never B. Seldom C. Occasionally D. Often E. Always
4. Makes sure that his/her part in the team is understood by all the athletes.
A. Never B. Seldom C. Occasionally D. Often E. Always
5. Instructs every athlete individually in the skills of the sport.
A. Never B. Seldom C. Occasionally D. Often E. Always
6. Figures ahead on what should be done.
A. Never B. Seldom C. Occasionally D. Often E. Always
7. Explains to every athlete what he/she should and what he/she should not do.
A. Never B. Seldom C. Occasionally D. Often E. Always
8. Expects every athlete to carry out his assignment to the last detail.
A. Never B. Seldom C. Occasionally D. Often E. Always
9. Points out each athlete's strengths and weaknesses.

- A. Never B. Seldom C. Occasionally D. Often E. Always
10. Gives specific instructions to each athlete as to what he/she should do in every situation.
- A. Never B. Seldom C. Occasionally D. Often E. Always
11. Sees to it that the efforts are coordinated.
- A. Never B. Seldom C. Occasionally D. Often E. Always
12. Explains how each athlete's contribution fits in to the total picture.
- A. Never B. Seldom C. Occasionally D. Often E. Always
13. Specifies in detail what expected of each athlete is.
- A. Never B. Seldom C. Occasionally D. Often E. Always
14. Asks for the opinion of the athletes on strategies for specific competitions.
- A. Never B. Seldom C. Occasionally D. Often E. Always
15. Gets group approval on important matters before going ahead.
- A. Never B. Seldom C. Occasionally D. Often E. Always
16. Lets his/her athletes share in decision making.
- A. Never B. Seldom C. Occasionally D. Often E. Always
17. Encourages athletes to make suggestions for ways of conducting practices.
- A. Never B. Seldom C. Occasionally D. Often E. Always
18. Lets the group set its own goals.
- A. Never B. Seldom C. Occasionally D. Often E. Always
19. Lets the athletes try their own way even if they make mistakes.
- A. Never B. Seldom C. Occasionally D. Often E. Always
20. Asks for the opinion of the athletes on important coaching matters.
- A. Never B. Seldom C. Occasionally D. Often E. Always

21. Lets athletes work at their own speed.

A. Never B. Seldom C. Occasionally D. Often E. Always

22. Lets the athletes decide on the plays to be used in a game.

A. Never B. Seldom C. Occasionally D. Often E. Always

23. Works relatively independent of the athletes.

A. Never B. Seldom C. Occasionally D. Often E. Always

24. Does not explain his/her action.

A. Never B. Seldom C. Occasionally D. Often E. Always

25. Refuses to compromise a point.

A. Never B. Seldom C. Occasionally D. Often E. Always

26. Keeps to himself/herself.

A. Never B. Seldom C. Occasionally D. Often E. Always

27. Speaks in a manner not to be questioned.

A. Never B. Seldom C. Occasionally D. Often E. Always

28. Helps the athletes with their personal problems.

A. Never B. Seldom C. Occasionally D. Often E. Always

29. Helps members of the group settle their conflicts.

A. Never B. Seldom C. Occasionally D. Often E. Always

30. Looks out for the personal welfare of the athletes.

A. Never B. Seldom C. Occasionally D. Often E. Always

31. Does personal favors for the athletes.

A. Never B. Seldom C. Occasionally D. Often E. Always

32. Expresses affection he/she feels for his/her athletes.

A. Never B. Seldom C. Occasionally D. Often E. Always

33. Encourages the athlete to confide in him/her.

A. Never B. Seldom C. Occasionally D. Often E. Always

34. Encourages close and informal relations with athletes.

A. Never B. Seldom C. Occasionally D. Often E. Always

35. Invites athletes to his/her home.

A. Never B. Seldom C. Occasionally D. Often E. Always

36. Compliments an athlete for his performance in front of others.

A. Never B. Seldom C. Occasionally D. Often E. Always

37. Tells an athlete when he/she does a particularly good job.

A. Never B. Seldom C. Occasionally D. Often E. Always

38. Sees that an athlete is rewarded for a good performance.

A. Never B. Seldom C. Occasionally D. Often E. Always

39. Expresses appreciation when an athlete performs well.

A. Never B. Seldom C. Occasionally D. Often E. Always

40. Gives credit when credit is due.

A. Never B. Seldom C. Occasionally D. Often E. Always

Thank you for taking the time to complete the questionnaire!!!

APPENDIX –B

Jimma University, College of Natural Science, Department of Sport Science, Post Graduate Program in Sport management

ASQ filled by players,

This questionnaire is designed to gather data about effect of leadership styles on players' satisfaction of Jimma zone football clubs. This research was conducted as a partial fulfillment of Master's Degree in Sport Management at Jimma University. The data you provide are believed to have a great value for the success of this research. I confirm you that all data was used for academic purpose and analyzed anonymously through the authorization of the university. As a result, you are not exposed to any harm because of the information you provide

General Instructions

- No need of writing your name;
- Use(✓) mark to show your response for close ended questions, and
- Give short answer for the open-ended questions on the space provided
- Thank you in advance for your honest cooperation!!

Part I: Demographic Information

3. Sex : A) Male B) Female

4. Age: A) < 25 Year B) 26-30 years C) 31-35 Years
D) 36-40 Years E) 41- 45 years F) > 46 years

3. Educational status/Qualification

A) M.Sc./M.A B) Degree C) Diploma D) Certificate E) others _____

4. Service years?

A) <5 Years B) 5-9 years C) 10-14 Years
D) 15-19 Years E) > 20 years

PART II: PLAYERS' SATISFACTION

Please rate the following items on a scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). If more than one coach trains you, then please think about these items by referring to your **primary coach**.

4) I like my coach	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5) My coach likes me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6) I trust my coach	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7) My coach trusts me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

8)Irespect mycoach	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9)Mycoachrespects me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10)Ifeel that mytrainingunder thesupervision ofmycoach is gratifyingand satisfying	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11)Mycoachfeels that coachingmeisgratifying and satisfying	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12)Iappreciatemycoach’s sacrifices in orderto improveperformance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13)Mycoachappreciates mysacrifices in orderto improveperformance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14)Icooperatewell with mycoach so that our goals areachieved	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15)Mycoachcooperates well with meso that our goals areachieved	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16)Icommunicatewell with mycoach	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17)Mycoachcommunicates well with me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18)Iidentifywith/ understand mycoach	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19)Mycoach identifieswith/ understands me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20)WhenIam coached by mycoach,I feelcapable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

21) My coach feels capable when he/she coaches me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22) When I am coached by my coach, I am concerned/ interested	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23) My coach is concerned/ interested when he/she coaches me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24) When I am coached by my coach, I am at ease	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25) My coach is at ease when he/she coaches me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26) When I am coached by my coach, I am ready to do my best	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27) My coach is ready to do his/her best when he/she coaches me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28) When I am coached by my coach, I am supported/ understood	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29) My coach is understanding when he/she coaches me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30) I am satisfied with my coach's training program this year	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31) My coach is satisfied with his/her training program this year	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32) I am satisfied with my coach's training/instruction	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33) My coach is satisfied with	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

his/her training/instruction

34) I am satisfied with the way my coach instructs tactics and techniques	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35) My coach is satisfied with the way he/she instructs tactics and techniques	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
36) I am satisfied with the degree to which my performance goals are being reached	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
37) My coach is satisfied with the degree to which my performance goals are being reached	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
38) I am satisfied with my skill improvement thus far	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
39) My coach is satisfied with my skill improvement thus far	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
40) I am satisfied with the recognition I receive from my coach	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
41) My coach is satisfied with the recognition he/she gives me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
42) I am satisfied with my coach's friendliness towards me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
43) My coach is satisfied with his/her friendliness towards me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
44) I am satisfied with the level of appreciation my coach	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

shows me when I do well

45) My coach is satisfied with the level of appreciation he/she shows me when I do well	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

46) I am satisfied with my coach's loyalty towards me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

47) My coach is satisfied with his/her loyalty to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
--	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

48) I am satisfied with the extent to which my coach is behind me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

49) My coach is satisfied with the extent to which he/she is behind me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
--	---	---	---	---	---	---	---