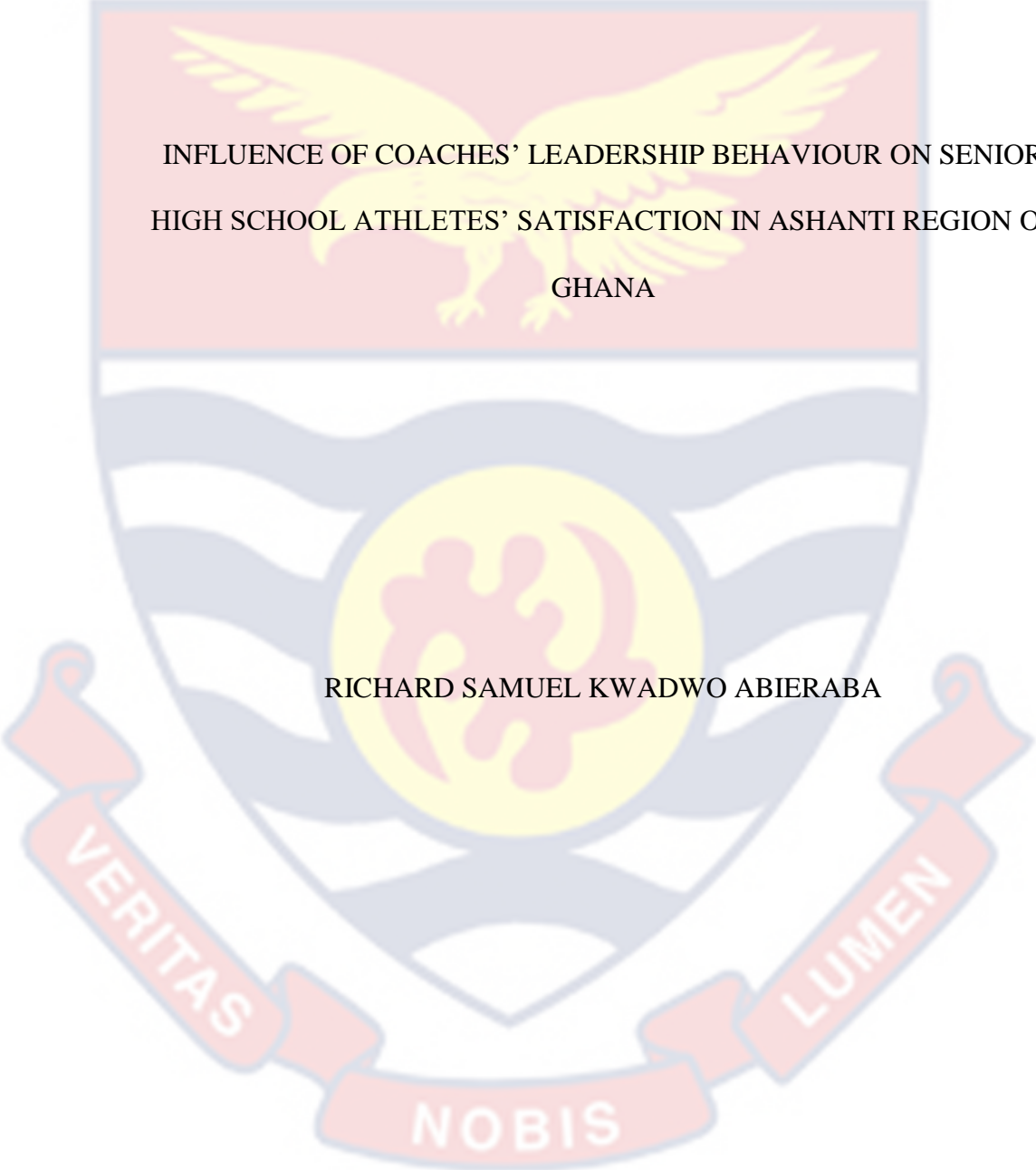


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INFLUENCE OF COACHES' LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOUR ON SENIOR
HIGH SCHOOL ATHLETES' SATISFACTION IN ASHANTI REGION OF
GHANA

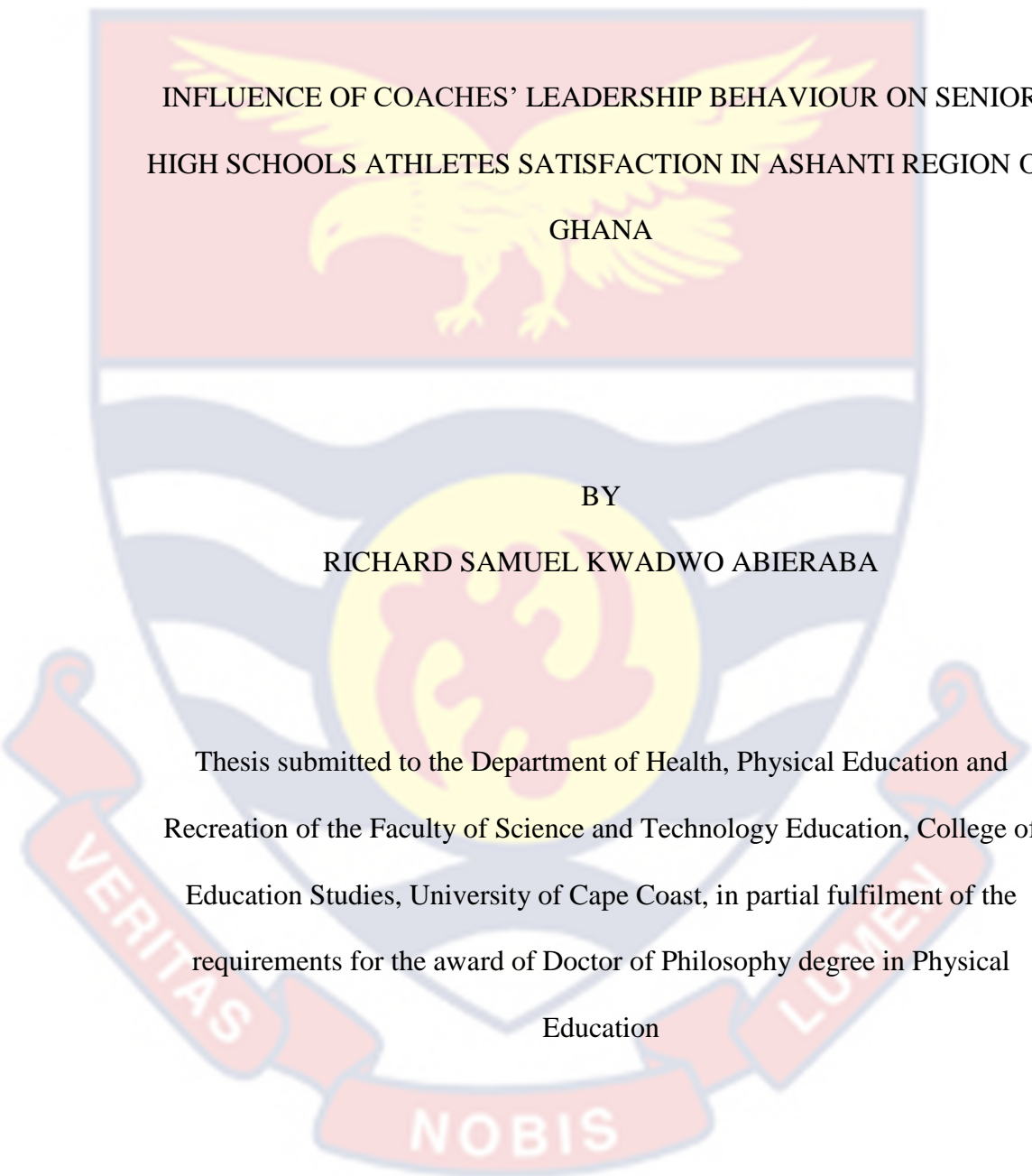
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INFLUENCE OF COACHES' LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOUR ON SENIOR
HIGH SCHOOLS ATHLETES SATISFACTION IN ASHANTI REGION OF
GHANA

BY
RICHARD SAMUEL KWADWO ABIERABA

Thesis submitted to the Department of Health, Physical Education and
Recreation of the Faculty of Science and Technology Education, College of
Education Studies, University of Cape Coast, in partial fulfilment of the
requirements for the award of Doctor of Philosophy degree in Physical
Education

MARCH 2022

DECLARATION

Candidate's Declaration

I hereby declare that this thesis is the result of my own original research and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this university or elsewhere.

Candidate's Signature..... Date.....

Name: Richard Samuel Kwadwo Abieraba

Supervisors' Declaration

We hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of the thesis were supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of thesis laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

Principal Supervisor's Signature..... Date.....

Name: Dr. Daniel Apaak

Co-Supervisor's Signature:Date: 16 – 02 – 22

Name: Dr. John Elvis Hagan Jnr.

ABSTRACT

The purpose of the study was to examine the perceived coaches' leadership behaviour of SHS athletes and how these perceptions influence athletes' satisfaction in the Ashanti Region of Ghana. Three research questions and two hypotheses were generated to guide the research. A descriptive cross-sectional survey was used to conduct the research. A sample size of 1,002 respondents selected using multi-stage sampling from a population of 16,200 Senior High School Athletes in Ashanti Region who participated in organised interschool sports competitions in the 2019/2020 academic year were used for the study. Adapted version of leadership scale for sports and adapted version of athletes' satisfaction questionnaire were the instruments used for the study. Data were analysed using means and standard deviation, multivariate multiple linear regression and multivariate analysis of variance. Results revealed that; i) the most perceived coach leadership behaviour by the athletes were positive feedback (M=4.53; SD=.53), training and instruction (M=4.50; SD=.51) and social support (M=4.17; SD=.75); ii) athletes were generally satisfied with the following: personal treatment from coaches (M=4.49, SD=.60), strategy from their coaches (M=4.32, SD=.70), their ability utilization (M=4.29, SD=.71), their individual performance (M=4.22, SD=.78) and team performance (M=4.02, SD=1.04), iii) the perceived use of any or the combination of positive response, education and social support leadership behaviours by coaches increase the probability of SHS athletes being satisfied with their ability utilisation, the strategy of their coaches, personal treatment from coaches and satisfaction with individual performance; (iv) a noteworthy difference in perceived coaches' leadership behaviours for male and female SHS athletes { $F(5, 995) = 14.11, p < .001$ }, v) the perceived coaches' leadership behaviour by SHS athletes significantly differed across the type of sports { $F(5, 995) = .488, p < .001$ }. Based on the findings, it is recommended that the coaches of SHS in Ashanti Region offer young and emerging athletes much verbal praise as a form of reward, support and special attention to correcting their mistakes during sport competitions.

KEYWORDS

Athletes Satisfaction

Influence

Leadership Behaviour

Performance

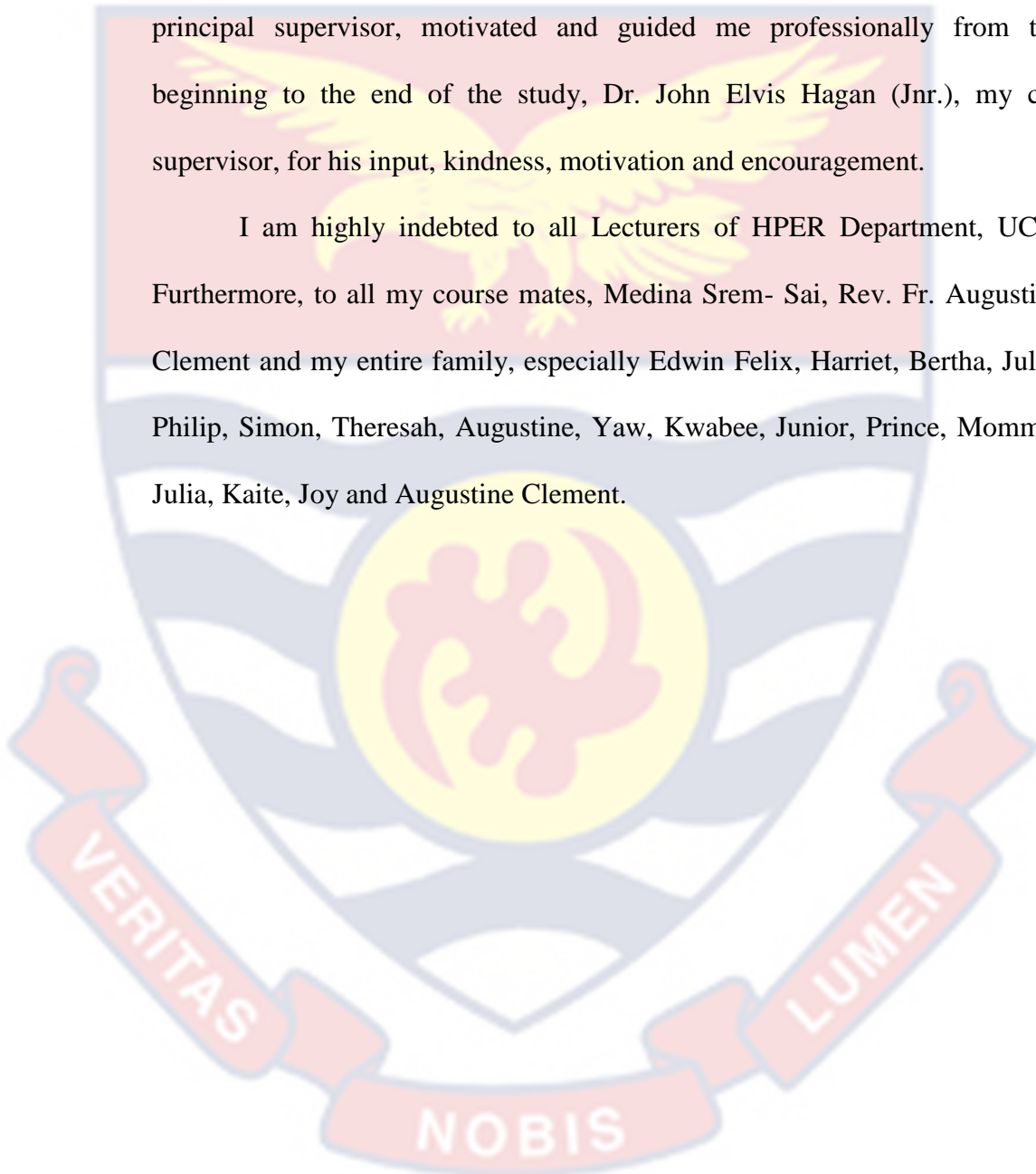
Perceived



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DEDICATION

To my parents: Felix Gour Abieraba and Felicity Faara Abieraba.



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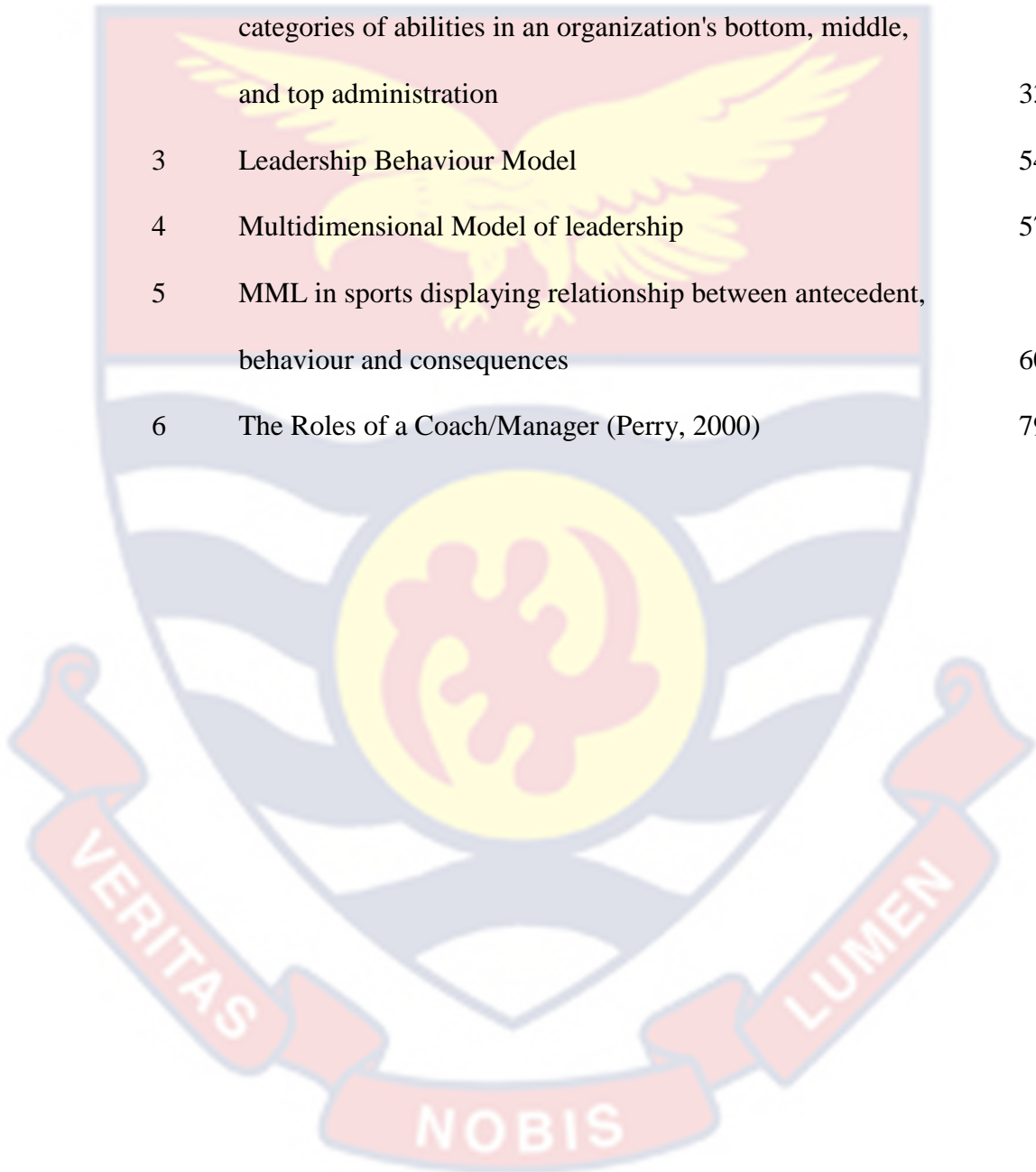


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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background to the Study

Individual and collective effectiveness are driven by leadership. Leadership is regarded as a crucial procedure in human resource management. In 2011, Sarpira, Khodayari, and Mohammadi published leadership enhances performance, motivates and satisfies subordinates. Leadership is the most imperative process in any organization or group, and it is responsible for the organization's or team's success or failure (Chelladurai & Riemer, 1998). Given the rate at which society and its organizations are altering, leadership is essential in the life of organizations. Organizations can be wiped out if they are unable to change (Hukpati, 2009). As a result of its relevance to success, there appears to be an upsurge in research on leadership in various areas in academia, including sports leadership. Notwithstanding, anecdotal studies suggest that Ghana as a developing country in terms of research, lacks enough literature to support studies on sports leadership.

Nowadays, the idea of sports leadership has engrossed attention from researchers whose in-depth studies and analysis have led to the revelation and discovery of different models of leadership in sports. Three examples of such models that are used in sport leadership are the Normative Model of Decision Making Styles in coaching by Chelladurai and Haggerty (1978), the Mediatonal Model by Smoll and Smith (1989) and the Multidimensional Model of Leadership (MML) in sports by Chelladurai (1978, 1990, 1993). Decision making is distinct from other circles of coaching behaviour, according to the Normative Model Decision Making Panaches in Mentoring.

In team sports coaching, there are three sorts of decision-making panaches: autocratic, participatory, and task-focused (Chelladurai & Haggerty, 1978).

The Mediation Model examines how athletes' cognitive and affective systems as well as their individual variations, enable the link between leadership behaviours, their antecedents, and outcomes. This research used the Multidimensional Model of Leadership (MML) in sports. The MML combines various current leadership theories to conceptualise certain behaviours and strategies. Individual performance, team performance, and member gratification are all reliant on two sets of connected criteria, according to the model. Situational qualities, such as whether the resistance is strong or weak; leader traits, such as experience, personality, and so on; and group affiliate features, such as age, gender, and experience, make up the first cluster.

There are three kinds of leader situations in the second cluster: needed actions, which define what the problem demands the leader to do; actual behaviour, which varies depending on the situation, leader, and affiliate features; and acceptable behaviour, which defines what the individual or team affiliates really want leader must do (Vaughan, 2017). The concept highlighted how coaches and their players desire and perceive behaviours as well as the virtual effect coaches' behaviour has on results, such as individual athlete happiness, self-esteem, and team performance.

The multidimensional model of leadership was propounded by Chelladurai (1978, 1990, 1993) to allow research to distinguish particular leadership attributes that distinguish coaching leadership behaviours. The researcher discusses how important it is to understand the leadership behaviours and concepts that coaches employ. In addition, a coach must have

command of connected leadership and administrative information. The coach is a unique central pillar of the formation and expansion of sports teams and his/her significant role in the satisfaction and performance of the players cannot be overlooked. The coach can generate and develop an environment around the team that upsets athlete growth and development, individual performance and team performance (Ganaden, Ejaus & Guzman, 2017). These authors (Ganaden, Ejaus & Guzman) added that when athletes' satisfaction increases, their sports performance goes high. It is an undeniable fact that, when an athlete is pleased with the coach's leadership behaviour, his/ her performance is enhanced automatically. In addition to performance and pleasure, Horn (2002) indicated that athlete outcomes serve as ideals of leadership behaviour.

Sport participation, performance, and pleasure are all dependent on one's level of satisfaction. Athletes would seek to different foundations for possible involvement, performance, and enjoyment if they are deprived of satisfaction (Maday, 2000). Rendering to Chelladurai and Riemer (1997), gratification is "the difference between the athletes' perception of what they received and what they seek." Athlete satisfaction, according to Sriboon (2001), is determined by the management or excellence of life in the organization as asserted by the athletes. According to Bassa (2012), an athlete's degree of pleasure may be known as a replication of how well the physical effort aligns with the athlete's own values.

Athlete satisfaction has been emphasised by several academics in sports psychology who have encompassed athlete satisfaction as a consequence construct in their work with performance (Chelladurai & Riemer,

1998). For instance, the MML (Chelladurai, 1978, 1990, 1993) embraces satisfaction as a product construct together with performance. The research grounded on MML has been chiefly focussed on connecting leadership build-ups with athletes' gratification and recital. This suggest that, there is an interconnection between coach leadership behaviour, athlete satisfaction and performance (Chelladurai, 1993).

The evaluation of sport participation is examined in the context of sport performance. Performance in an athletic situation is well-known for denoting the pursuit of excellence by which an athlete evaluates his or her recital as a step in the direction of success. There is a fear in sport that athletes who are motivated by satisfaction and performance will pursue it at a competitive or professional level; athletes who are motivated by simple contribution, such as fitness or weight loss, are mainly frivolous athletes who do not set detailed recital objectives (World of Sports, 2007). Senior High School Athletes in Ashanti Region tend to participate in sports for competition purposes and probably to get the opportunity to be selected by national youth team coaches. Although the above statement is the reason why these students tend to participate in sports, they need a particular level of satisfaction to improve their recital.

In most sports disciplines, determining performance is a direct procedure. The final outcome is calculable in actions where the consequence is measured and specified, such as a race, a leap or a thrown object. The examination of the distinct elements of recital in these sports is motivated by the desire to enhance recital. When an athlete and coach can isolate areas of training to concentrate on, the end outcome is likely to be better

(Encyclopedia, 2021).

Coaching behaviour and outside support for the athlete are as important as any other factor in sport success. Success is unlikely for teenage athletes if there is no caretaker or organised sport association providing instruction and assistance to the eager competitor. In some sports, such as ice skiing and field hockey, where there are significant costs for practice time and competent coaching, an athlete's probability of progressing without the help of a caregiver or an organized sports organization is exceedingly doubtful (World of Sports, 2007).

Despite that many factors that affect sports outcomes, coaches have a momentous influence on players, their attitudes, and athletic performance. The coaching they get as well as their capacities to successfully perform influence how athletes view and interpret their sporting experience. Coaches like former UCLA Bruins coach John Wooden, who was both a coach and a player elected into the Basketball Hall of Fame, displayed how coaches can inspire athletes to achieve great things (Sportsrec, 2021). Generally, it is conventional that the impact of a coach on an athlete's recital and satisfaction are significant. Coaching leadership has embraced accumulated attention over the past two decades as long as coaches are the front-runners for athlete skill and personal improvement as well as the front-runners for achieving athletic goals (Sharma, 2015).

In the sports management literature, leadership has really been explored in relation to mentoring leadership and its effects on athlete recital (Chelladurai & Carron, 1983; Chelladurai, 1984; Horne & Carron, 1985; Weiss & Friedrichs, 1986; Schliemann, 1987; Chelladurai, Imamura,

Yamaguchi, Oinuma & Miyauchi, 1988; Dwyer & Fischer, 1990; Riemer & Chelladurai, 1995; Jambor & Zhang, 1997; Zhang & Jensen, 1997; Ipinmoroti, 2002). According to research, a coach's leadership practices may promote satisfaction and recital in sports. Nevertheless, there is a gap in research linking coach leadership behaviour to satisfaction and recital consequences outside successes and failures (Sharma, 2015). It is, therefore, imperative that this study is conducted.

Statement of the Problem

Research in leadership studies started from a long time ago and has continued up to date. Over the last 20 years, coaches' leadership in the sports context has been used to research leadership patterns and strategies to assess leadership in organizations. Chelladurai and Saleh (1978, 1980) built the leadership scale for sport (LSS) to assess leadership in sports. The tool evaluates five aspects of a sports coach's leadership style: training and direction, social assistant, helpful comment, authoritarian and democratic leadership styles, and so on (Ethrani, Amiri, & Norouzi, 2012).

Sports leadership research has sought to define key variables that may be linked to leadership behaviour (Soyer, Sari & Talaghir, 2014). Communication skills (Sari, Soyer & Yigiter, 2012), athletes satisfaction (Sriboon, 2001), sports performance (Tusak & Kajtna, 2007), intrinsic motivation and gratification in elite athletes are illustrations of such considerations which have been investigated with regard to their connection with sport coaches' behaviour in various studies (Minoo, Nasser, & Misagh, 2014). In addition, researchers have attempted to re-establish the link between a coach's leadership style and athlete engagement (Chelladurai, 1984; Weiss

& Freidrichs, 1986; McMilin, 1990; Cote & Gilbert, 2009).

Preceding research studies and theories seem to suggest an inherent positive relationship between leadership behaviour, and athlete satisfaction (Chelladurai & Riemer, 1997; Horn, 2002). Athletes in Ashanti Region have always emerged as the overall winners in the interregional competitions organised by the National PE Coordinator than any other region. Could this be as a result of coaches' leadership behaviour? Or could this performance come as a result of satisfaction provided by coaches of these athletes? According to other research findings, for example (chelladurai, 1998; Riemer & Chelladurai, 1998) a coach's main goal is to advance their players' performance and satisfaction. To the researcher's knowledge, few previous research studies have sought to investigate coach specific behaviours to find out how pleased the athlete is with his or her individual or team performance (Moen, Hoigaard & Peters, 2014) especially in the Ashanti Region of Ghana. Researchers also appear to have overlooked possible links between coach leadership behaviour, athlete satisfaction, and performance satisfaction (Moen, Hoigaard & Peters, 2014). Chelladurai and Carron (1978) stipulate that athlete's recital and gratification with sports are not autonomous of each other because both are consequences of coaching behaviour as stated by Horn (2002) in his study. The congruence among the three stages of mentoring behaviour, according to Chelladurai and Carron, affects athletic performance and pleasure. The current study was impelled by the lack of correlational studies on coaching leadership behaviour and athlete happiness in the Ashanti Region of Ghana. As a consequence, the aim of this study was to close that gap in the literature.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to examine the perception Senior High School (SHS) athletes had of coaches' leadership behaviour and how these perceptions influence the athletes' satisfaction in the Ashanti Region of Ghana.

Research Questions

These research questions served as a direction to the study:

1. Which leadership behaviours are used by coaches of SHS in the Ashanti Region of Ghana as perceived by the athletes?
2. What is the perceived level of satisfaction among SHS athletes in the Ashanti Region of Ghana?
3. What is the relationship between perceived coaches' leadership behaviours and SHS athletes' satisfaction in the Ashanti Region of Ghana?

Hypotheses

The study was directed by the following hypotheses:

1. Sex differences do not exist in SHS athletes' perceived leadership behaviour of coaches.
2. SHS athletes' perceived leadership behaviour of coaches will not differ based on the type of sports the athletes engaged in.

Significance of the Study

The research will aid PE teachers/coaches and team administrators of SHS in the Ashanti Region, Ghana, to find out which coach's leadership behaviour is most perceived and satisfying to their athletes and can, therefore, lead to an increase in performance. This research will also assist SHS student

athletes in Ghana's Ashanti Region in identifying the leadership behaviours of their coaches that will bring out the best in them. Last of all, the study will aid as a resource for individuals interested in conducting research into sports leadership and athlete satisfaction. It will contribute to what is already known about coach leadership behaviour and athlete happiness.

Delimitation

The study focused on Senior High School Athletes in Ghana's Ashanti Region. The study looked at two different constructs. As an independent variable, leadership behaviours are studied while athlete satisfaction is studied as a dependent variable.

Limitation

The study has some limitations. First and foremost, the research design used is cross-sectional in nature; it therefore restricts causality.

Secondly, the responses were self-reported therefore student athletes' might have overrated or underrated their responses when answering the items in the questionnaire which could have resulted in invalid answers.

Definition of Terms

Athletes' Satisfaction: A situation where the procedures connected with sports experience result in gratification.

Autocratic or Monocratic behavior: Coaches use of authority without giving room for athletes opinion.

Coaching Behaviour: It is a way of influencing student- athletes to achieve predetermined objectives.

Individual Performance: It is the satisfaction one gets when there is an improvement in his/her task recital.

Leadership: Is the process through which a superior encourages an individual or group of individuals in an organization to attain a certain goal.

Positive feedback: These are helpful comments or positive comments that coaches use to motivate athletes towards learning and performance goals achievements.

Recital: It is the performance of sports.

Team Performance: It is the satisfaction a group gets when there is an improvement in a team's recital.

Organization of the Study

The study had five chapters. Chapter one covered background to the study, statement of the problem, purpose of the study, research questions, hypotheses, assumptions, significance of the study, delimitation, limitation, definition of terms and organisation of the study.

Review of related literature comprising: concept of leadership, theories of leadership, sports specific theories of leadership, theoretical framework, conceptual framework, empirical studies on coach leadership and athletes' gratification and performance, and summary of chapter are found in chapter two.

Chapter three was the research methodology which consisted of the research design, study area, population, sampling procedure, data collection instrument, data collection procedures, and data processing and analysis.

The next chapter was the fourth. It dealt with presentation of results and discussion. Results were discussed and interpretation of the findings based on existing literature or previous studies and findings.

Finally, in chapter five, a summary, findings, and recommendations were made. This section focused on the research's discovery and prospective solutions to previously stated problems based on the study's findings.



CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The intention of this chapter was to review related literature. The chapter sought to examine the literature from diverse philosophical perspectives of leadership behaviour and athletes' satisfaction. Sub-headings discussed are concept of leadership, theories of leadership, sports specific theories of leadership, theoretical framework, conceptual framework, empirical studies on coach leadership and athlete gratification and summary of chapter two

Concept of Leadership

Leadership is still one of the most important parts of any organization. For the earlier five decades, the term "leadership" has been the topic of extensive investigation. The majority of the studies focused on issues with leadership quality, pacesetter ability, leadership effectiveness, and leadership styles or behaviours (Tandoh, 2011). According to Adlam (2003), leadership might be a tough idea to grasp. This has been proven as truth since many ways are used to provide meaning of leadership.

Despite that leadership has been extensively addressed throughout the years, there is still no universally agreed definition. Many scholars have made attempt to define the term -leadership|. Stogdill (1974) correctly made that observation. Below are examples of definitions by various authorities. Leadership, according to Talat, Rehman, and Ahmed (2013), is a wide process that entails delegation of authority, obligation, and power. By directing, encouraging, and persuading their followers, leaders help people attain their personal and organizational goals and objectives. As a result, leadership

behaviour encompasses all facets of interaction with people both inside and outside of a company, handling or addressing problems, assisting and leading employees in achieving and completing their goals, and functioning as a role model for all.

Kumar (2014) defines leadership as "a process by which a person motivates others to attain a goal and steers the organization in a way that makes it more cohesive and coherent." To attain these objectives, leadership qualities, such as beliefs, values, ethics, charisma, knowledge, and capabilities are utilised. Leadership is distinct as the sharing of vision, resources, and value to bring about positive modification. It is the power to inculcate confidence and enthusiasm in others as well as a desire to follow. Wammy and Swammy (2014) describe leadership as a social influence procedure in which a leader pursues the intended cooperation of minions to attain company goals. Memon (2014) describes leadership as the way in which an individual impacts others' beliefs, attitudes, and behaviours by taking obligation for defining the company's route and letting others to see and imagine what lies ahead and how to accomplish it.

According to Leslie et al. (2013), leadership is the capacity to stimulate others to freely follow one's direction or conform to one's views. "Leadership is the ability to persuade and motivate others to work together as a team under his leadership to achieve a specific goal," Sundi (2013: 50) says. Leadership is the method of superiors and subordinates engaging one another to accomplish corporate goals through transition (Lussier & Achua, 2013).

Hill (2008) defines leadership as "the process of inspiring, impacting, and inspiring others", and leading personnel in a firm to achieve the

organizational goals. Armstrong (2003) opines that leadership is essentially the capability to influence others to freely modify their behaviour in order to attain a common objective with the aid of the group. Levine and Crom (1994) define leadership as "listening to people, supporting and encouraging them, and including them in decision-making and problem-solving processes." It is all about putting this approach into practice and honing their decision-making skills." "Persons who establish direction for a working group of individuals, secure commitment from this group of members to this direction, and then support these members to achieve the direction's goal" (Conger, 1992).

According to Gibson (1991) and Asiedu-Akrofi (1978), leadership focuses on motivation to safeguard the achievement of institutional goals and objectives. They argue that great leadership entails mentoring and motivating employees to achieve the institution's objectives (Ackon, 2012). Owens (2001) backed up Gibson (1991) and Asiedu Akrofi's (1978) theories and introduced a new layer to the leader-follower relationship. According to him, successful leadership is a two-way reciprocal procedure that impacts both individual and institutional recital. This means that in organizations where relationships are strained and cooperation is inadequate, overall work production falls short of expectations.

Knezevich (1976) examined leadership through three lenses. First, he predicted leadership as a trait of one's personality known as symbolic leadership, which states that "leaders are born, not manufactured," second, in formal leadership, a person's rank, titles, or position are recognized. In this case, the individual and position become distracted since acknowledgment may fade once he or she has left the rank, title, position, or office.

Third, in an organized group, a function or role is performed and this is referred to as functional leadership. Leadership is seen as being intertwined with interpersonal relationships and group activities, rather than functioning in isolation. As a result, leadership emerges as a collective phenomena. Leadership, according to Stogdil (1974), is a dynamic phenomenon. Leaders are transformational; those who have a greater impact on others than others have on them. Leadership is defined as "when one group member alters the motivation or competencies of others in the group" (p. 21). This description demonstrates that leadership entails the use of power and interpersonal ties to influence people's behaviour and performance to attain an organization's objectives (Ackon, 2012).

Leadership, according to Musaaazi (1985, p.53), is a procedure which the leaders must understand the members of the organization as well as the current conditions. "This form of leadership is primarily dictated by the nature of the followers as well as the nature of the society or circumstance which the leader operatesl. To distinguish between authority and power, some writers discussed the voluntary nature of the response to leadership. This is wherefore Katz and Kahn (1978) defined "the influential increment over and above mechanical compliance with the organization's routine commands" as "the influential increment over and above mechanical compliance with the organization's routine directives" (p.528). People are impacted to perform against their will. They are not doing it because it is demanded of them or because they are afraid of the consequences if they do not.

Also, in their studies, other authors such as Lipham (1974), Davies (1986), Stoner, Freeman, and Gilbert (1996), and Mussazi (1985) describe

leadership separately and contends that an excellent leader tends to involve other people who are recognized as minions or supporters who are available and eager to admit route from the leader. However, this does not imply that the supporters are helpless. Leadership is defined in practice as working with and through others to attain a common goal. According to Gibson, Ivancevich, and Donnelly (2000), a leader's appropriate training results in the desired transformation among his minions and helps in the establishment of friendly relationships, which is beneficial to his administration. According to Cole (1997), leadership is a dynamic procedure at work in a group in which one person convinces the other affiliates of the group to freely devote themselves to the attainment of group tasks or objectives through time and in a given organizational setting. Lipham (1974) defines leadership as the formation of a new structure or approach for completing a specific organizational goal or objective.

Leadership, according to Feldman and Arnold (1983), is a practice in which one person tries to convince others to do what the leader wants. According to Ahuja and Galvin (2003), leadership is the capability of personality's attitude to guide others or their activities toward a set of objectives. Ahuja and Galvin remarked once more that how a manager communicates with his subordinates on a one-on-one basis defines leadership.

Management includes the concept of leadership (Pondy, 1978). It is the ability to persuade others to follow stated goals with zeal. The human element is what brings people together and motivates them to achieve a common objective. Intelligence, social maturity and breath, inner desire and success drive, and a human connections mentality, Pondy argues, are four (4)

major traits of leaders. Despite their popular claim, not all leaders possess all of these attributes whereas average people who do not hold a position of leadership have been discovered to possess some or all of these. Pondy (1978) continues to describe that a leader's efficiency is determined by his capability to make opportunity to celebrate... not to alter people's behaviour, but to give them a sense of what they are doing. This infers that the leader keeps his/her followers up to date on all of his/her acts.

Leadership is linked to incentive, interpersonal behaviour, and the communication procedure (Tack, 1984). Delegation is a crucial component of excellent leadership. It is a fluid procedure. The leader-follower connection is mutual, and successful leadership is a two-way procedure that affects both personal and organizational recital. The definitions compiled by Hoy and Miskel (1982) from various sources are listed below.

The involvement of an organization in the workout of authority and the decision making is described as leadership. Leadership is defined as the act of establishing a new structure or technique for achieving an organization's goal or objectives. A method of impacting the activity of an organized group toward goal setting and attainment is known as leadership. A leadership relationship is described as a dynamic type of conduct influenced by a variety of elements. McGregor (1967) identified four critical variables:

- i. the features of a leader;
- ii. the attitude, needs, and other personal features of the supporter; and
- iii. the attitude, needs, and other personal features of the supporter.
- iv. The organization's character, including its goal, structure, and tasks to be completed.

v. The socioeconomic, political, and economic context

Leadership, according to McGregor, is a complex interplay between numerous components, not a personal quality. According to Cole (1997), leadership is a gift that comes with the extra responsibility of controlling others. He went on to add that the first trait in leadership is a knowledge of God's involvement in one's life based on the idea of ultimate accountability. As we become more conscious that we are dealing with gifts, we must also practice honesty. Ho and Miskel (1982) identified six major characteristics of a leader as capacity, accomplishment, responsibility, engagement, humour, and prestige. Other key characteristics that were also considered are intelligence, initiative, judgment, and physical capacity.

Despite that a variety of leadership descriptions is built on different ideas in the mainstream psychology and human resource management, most sport leadership descriptions have four basic elements (Northouse, 2004). These four elements of leadership are (a) leadership as a procedure, (b) leadership as an influencer, (c) leadership in a group setting, and (d) leadership as a goal achiever. Two of these four leadership characteristics, namely the exercise of influence and the use of a tool to achieve a goal, correlate with two of Stogdill's leadership ideas. Because the Multidimensional Model of Leadership (Chelladurai & Carron, 1978), was constructed using Barrow's (1977) definition, the researcher used it for his thesis. Despite the coaches' administrative responsibilities vary (e.g., budget planning, organization, and allocation, scheduling, reciting, public relations, and leadership), Chelladurai and Saleh (1980) maintained that the roles defined by Barrow are important in an athletic circumstance.

There are numerous definitions for personal and professional coaching in the literature (Brotman et al., 1998; Diedrich, 2001; Frisch, 2001; Garman et al., 2000; Kampa-Kokesch & Anderson, 2001; Kilburg, 1996; Kralj, 2001; Peterson, 1996; Tobias, 1996; Williams & Davis, 2002; Witherspoon & White, 1996a). This is partly due to the many circumstances in which coaching is used. On the ICF/International Coaching Federation website, professional coaching was first defined as "a continual collaboration that aids clients in attaining rewarding results in their personal and professional lives" (ICF, n.d.). Professional coaching is now defined by the ICF as "an ongoing professional engagement that assists individuals in achieving outstanding achievements in their lives, careers, enterprises, or organizations."

In the coaching procedure, customers increase their learning, enhance their effectiveness, and improve the excellence life" (ICF, 2005, Code of Ethics section, para. 2). ICF (2003, coach recommendation section, para. 3) defines coaching as a participatory, purpose with goal-setting procedure that benefits both personal and organizations. The lack of the term "partnership," which Katz and Miller (1996) used to describe a crucial characteristic of the connection that distinguishes mentoring from other treatments, is the most noticeable difference between the two definitions. Regardless of the fact that Kilburg (1996) did not include the term corporation in his description, he explains mentoring as a supportive process molded to "accomplish a mutually identified set of goals" (p.142), showing that the customer and coach study is premised on mutuality rather than purely on trying to seek or offer suggestions.

The emphasis on personal and professional goals is in both past and current ICF definitions, keeping the process' framework fairly wide. The same may be said of descriptions found in books. Belf (1996) describes the coaching procedure as "systematic and ongoing," with a focus on "activity, improved performance, and personal learning and innovation." According to Frisch (2001), it is a one-on-one involvement aimed to encourage professional advancement from within the organization. It differs from other generic advising roles performed by private advisors and human resource experts because it is concentrated at the person level.

In peer-reviewed research, Kilburg's (1996) explanation of managerial coaching is the most commonly cited. Executive coaching is a collaborative connection among a customer with administrative power and obligation in an organization and a consultant who uses a range of different tactics and methods to assist the customer in achieving their objectives (p.142). The term "formal agreement" was used by Kilburg (1996). When coaching is subcontracted or sought outside of the firm, confidentiality is easily preserved, but when the mentoring agreement is signed within the organization among a worker and an inner coach, secrecy is jeopardised. Most authors believe that keeping secrecy is serious to the coaching procedure because of the nature of the connection (Brotman et al., 1998; Frisch, 2001; Kiel et al., 1996; Kralj, 2001; Sauer, 1994; Wasylshyn, 2003).

According to Frisch (2001:241), inner coaching is "a one-on-one developmental intervention supported by the organization and delivered by a colleague of those coached who is trusted to plan and implement a programme achieving individual professional advancement". In this kind of mentoring

environment, perfect anonymity would be challenging at best because most work-related recital matters would not only be communicated, but also appraised by a coworker who might not be unbiased, just, or above chatting with other workers. Other descriptions stipulate that managerial mentoring must be provided by outsiders or non-affiliated individuals (Garman et al., 2000).

Laske's (1999a) description of coaching is unique in that it is restricted to a method-specific model and uses prototype nomenclature. He defines coaching as "the multidirectional capacity to observe executive organization interaction in two related mental regions referred to as the Professional House and the Company House, with the goal of bringing about not just adaptive, but revolutionary change" (p. 152). Hargrove (1995) set himself apart from other coaches by linking to "transformational coaching," which he characterizes as a method that allows customers to widen their horizons. Some explanations refer to coaching as a learning experience in which customers gain information (Peterson & Hicks, 1996), facilitate learning (Diedrich, 2001), and build capacity through the tools that coaching gives, instead of through engaging directly with the coach, as Kralj (2001) recommended.

Tobias (1996) stressed the characterization of the procedure and indicated that it is a continual procedure, as opposed to career development workshops and seminars, which are one-time counseling for worker problems. Coaching, according to Williams and Davis (2002), is usually a long-term commitment. Some descriptions are precise to mentoring teams (Diedrich, 1996), whereas others espouse for a broader definition that includes personal, team, and help justify that are strategy-driven on a group level to inspire

personal and group conversion (Kralj, 2001).

Coaching has been defined as an approach targeted at assisting people in moving onward with their upcoming objectives (Williams & Davis, 2002) by supporting holistic knowledge and learning (Diedrich, 2001). Coaches have been dubbed "alter agents" in the corporate world (Katz & Miller, 1996). Lowman (2005) critiques the term "coaching," claiming that it is overused in the fields of organizational development (OD) and Organizational Consulting Psychology (OCP). Due to a paucity of research, Kleinberg (2001) claims that coaching lacks theoretical understanding and is imprecise and inchoate.

This might be due to the wide range of domains from which the coaching construct's basic notions are derived. According to the ICF, this definition aims to assist consumers in "intensifying their learning" (ICF, 2005, Code of Ethics section, para. 2). All meanings of coaching in the literature share the attribute that coaching is a collaboration or a connection in which both the coach and the customer have an interest in the growth of the customer's aims and ambitions. The framework of the procedure emphasizes the importance of setting clearly distinct goals and a method for determining the success of the goals specified and settled upon. The coach's function as a participant of the procedure, rather than a director, is central to all definitions.

Coaching, like therapy, is an activity approach that encourages self-directed change for personal and professional development. It varies from therapy in that it is aimed at the general public, not just clinicians, who want to enhance their current lives rather than heal from issues that require therapeutic strategies.

Theories of Leadership

The overall goal of this research is to gain a better understanding of leadership theories and how they have transformed over the last century as well as to determine how many of these notions are still applicable to sporting organizations and used as assets and "tools" for dealing with different governance issues.

Today, there are various descriptions of leadership, but this does not appear to be one that is widely accepted. Leadership, according to Burns (1978), is one of the world's lesser-known phenomena. Social scientists and behavioural psychologists, on the other hand, have studied leadership for years and formulated leadership theories in an attempt to better comprehend the occurrence. There are three ways to leadership theories. The first method concentrated on the characteristics of excellent leaders. It was once presumed that great leaders were born, not made, and that strong leaders have unique attributes that enable them to excel in a variety of circumstances. The second strategy is concerned with effective leadership behaviours.

According to behaviourism, by studying the characteristics of prior successful leaders, anyone may become a great leader. Due to the limits of personality and behavioural techniques, leadership researchers have concentrated on situational factors that affect leadership success. Unlike the personality and behavioural approaches, which are categorical in their supremacy, the situational method (the third way) believes that there is no single best kind of leader and that leadership success is determined by the dealings among the leader and the context. Various leadership ideologies are discussed in the following sections.

Trait Theory

The individual difference approach to leadership is built on the idea that leaders are born with distinct physical, intellectual, or psychological attributes that distinguish them from non-leaders. This method-controlled leadership study from the early 1800s through the mid-1940s, and it has recently recovered popularity. Early trait theorists argued that certain people are born with leadership qualities. Scott (2014) supports the debate that leaders are made and instigates institutions to devote adequate resources into leader development programmes.

Furthermore, a few of the early leadership research was centred on the "great man" concept, which concentrated on the distinguishing characteristics of extremely recognizable leaders in history who were often male and related with the aristocratic, political, or military leadership at the time. Many experts have initially highlighted that there are a number of consistent components that lead to leadership potential, whether innate or learned (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991; Northouse, 2010; Yukl, 2009; Zaccaro, Kemp, & Bader, 2004;). These attributes include motivation, self-assurance, cognitive capability, conscientiousness, determination, intellect, and integrity. According to Northouse (2010), one advantage of the trait method is that it has known ideal leadership attributes that may be used in self-evaluation to assist managers in improving their own organizational efficiency. While trait theory recognizes many of the characteristics required for effective leadership, it is not without problems. Northouse, for example, lists five specific criticisms to trait theory that should be considered:

1. Over the last century, studies on trait-based leadership have yielded an almost infinite list of leadership attributes.
2. Trait theory ignores situational effects, which means that individuals with features that work in one setting may not work in another.
3. When it comes to what are deemed critical leadership attributes, there are a lot of subjectivities in self-help and management publications. Without any solid and credible data as a foundation, authors frequently use their subjective experiences to establish key features.
4. Trait-based research has generally concentrated on the discovery of traits, rather than explicitly linking these features to outcomes such as productivity or employee happiness.
5. Because it is hard to teach or train individuals to develop new psychological features, the trait method is difficult to utilize in leadership training and development.

Behavioural Theories

Due to conflicting definitions, researchers have to depend on constructs that lack dependability and authenticity to assess attributes. After World World II, the flaws in the characteristic approach became obvious; therefore, academics diverted their interest to leader behaviour. The behaviour of effective leaders was therefore studied by researchers. Unlike characteristic theory, this method emphasize that "leaders are formed, not born" (Cox & Rock, 1997). Instead of focusing on "what" a leader is, researchers began to focus on "how" a leader leads.

This leadership approach was really upbeat. Behaviourists thought that by studying the behaviours of previous successful leaders, anybody might

learn to become a prospective leader. In reality, strong leadership behaviours have been recognized in a number of ways. To begin, leaders might be classified as authoritarian or democratic. Second, there are two types of leaders: directive and permissive. Third, some leaders prioritize tasks while others prioritize people. Attempts to identify more precise leadership dimensions were made by the University of Michigan and Ohio State University, resulting in two key products or concepts containing leadership behaviours (Stogdill, 1963).

Ohio State University Leadership Studies

In the 1940s and 1950s, a majority of earlier research was led at Ohio State University. Ohio State University academics established the Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) to assess leadership behaviour. They discovered two primary leadership behaviours or styles as a result of using it: thoughtfulness and introducing structure.

1. **Consideration Behaviour:** "Leadership behaviour that is evident of friendship, mutual trust, respect, and warmth in the relationship between the leader and his or her staff" (Halpin, 1959). Leaders with a high deliberation score have a strong bond with their subordinates and communicate effectively with them.
2. **Initiating Structure Behaviour:** A leader's actions in defining his or her relationship with members of the work group as well as aiming to establish well-defined organizational patterns, communication channels, and practices, are referred to as initiating structure (Halpin, 1959). Leaders who excel at establishing structure are responsible for leading group activities, communicating, scheduling, and

experimenting with new ideas. These two types of behaviour are assumed to be autonomous, but they can also work together. As a result, a leader can show changing degrees of both initial structure and thinking on an equal time, and be successful in both.

The University of Michigan Studies

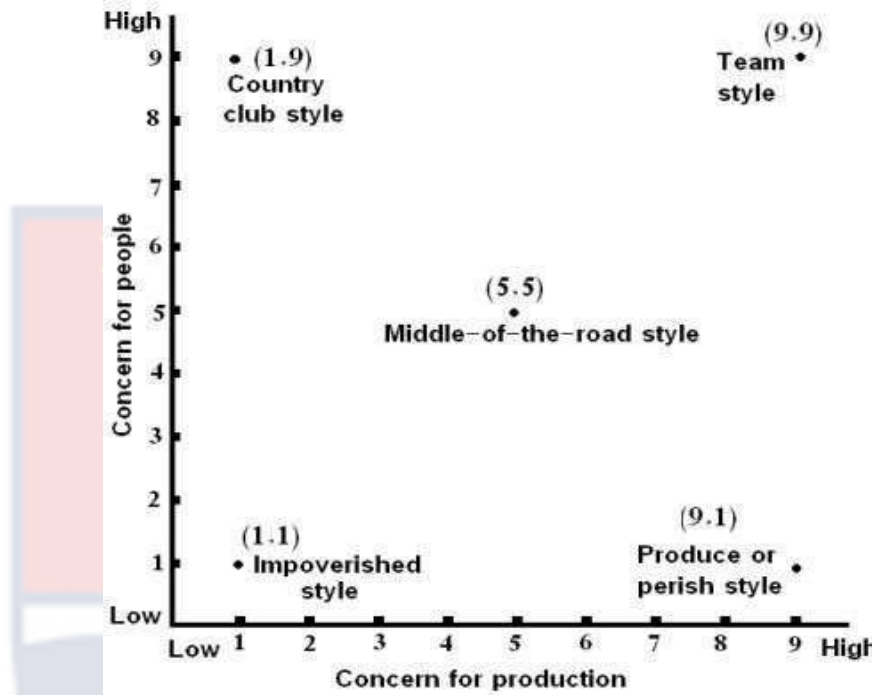
The University of Michigan and Ohio State University both started their studies at the same period. These studies were performed with the objective of determining how leader behaviour affects performance effectiveness. According to the Michigan research, a leader might be either employee-or manufacturing (Stogdill, 1974).

1. **Employee-Centred Behaviour:** A worker leader is concerned with guaranteeing employee satisfaction as well as the needs and variety of their employees. By forming a coherent work group, the employee-centred leader also fosters worker participation.
2. **Production Centred Behaviour:** A production-focused leader is concerned with efficiency and prioritizes technical aspects of the work. The leader who is focused on production develops job standards and outlines work procedures. The comfort of employees is the major focus of leaders with a thoughtful and employee-centred approach. The achievement of goals is the prominent concern of leaders who implement structure and production-centred strategies.

The Managerial Grid Theory

Blake and Mouton (1964) devised a grid that included the outcomes of behavioural studies. Both the Ohio State and University of Michigan research highlighted the care for people versus concern for output, which is used in the

Managerial Grid.



Source: *Changingminda.org*

Figure 1: Managerial Grid

Grid figure adopted from Wikipedia, 2021.

It distinguishes five primary kinds of leadership built on concerns about output and people. The five leadership types in the administrative grid are poor, nation club, duty concerned with, middle-of-the-road, and team. In the grid's lower left-hand angle, point to the poverty style (1, 1). It is branded by lack of complaint for individuals and businesses. The nation club panache can be found at the upper left-hand angle of the grid, point (1, 9). It is branded by an upper level of complaint for people and a small interest in output. In the grid's lower right-hand corner, point, you can see the task-oriented approach (9, 1). It is characterized by a strong focus on output and a poor regard for individuals. The grid's centre (5,5) is occupied by the middle-of-the-road style. A balance between worker demands and continual improvement goals is underlined. The team panache is situated in the upper right angle of the grid,

at point (9, 9). A upper level of complaint for both people and production distinguishes it. According to this study, managers who work in a 9, 9 style outperform those who work in a 9, 1 or 1, 9 style.

Researchers have increasingly focused on the coach's leadership behaviours. When these numerous behavioural theories were applied to sport, it was revealed that the most preferred behaviours of coaches were competency exercise, social assistant, and awarding behaviour (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1978). The late Douglas McGregor's influential book, "The Human Side of Enterprise," was published in 1960, and the focus turned to "behavioural theories." McGregor was a professor, a researcher, and an advisor whose work was rated as "on the cutting edge" of human resource management. He impacted all behavioural theories, highlighting the significance of meaningful relationships in addition to output and performance. Like characteristic leadership viewpoints, behavioural leadership thinks that leadership is critical to the organization. However, rather than personal features or attributes, the focus is on the leader's behaviour. This strategy was based at the University of Michigan (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988). A leader who is employee-centred or very thoughtful is aware of his or her employees' sentiments and seeks to make things better for them.

A production-focused leader, on the other hand, or a leader with a high initiating structure, stresses task completion (Schermerhorn et al., 2000). McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y Supervisors, as well as Blake and Mouton's leadership, will be inspected as behavioural forms of leadership.

McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y Supervisors

McGregor (1960) developed that a leader's assumptions about human nature impact his or her leadership approaches. McGregor identified two kinds of assumptions made by managers in industry as a consequence of his professional expertise. He created two attitude profiles, or assumptions, regarding people's fundamental character. Theory X and Theory Y were coined to describe these views. Many leaders, according to McGregor, essentially adhere to whether Theory X or Theory Y and act consequently.

Theory X is premised on the inferences that the average human being detests work and will evade it if possible; most people must be conscripted, monitored, guided, and chastised to make them put out sufficient effort toward achieving company goals; and the ordinary person, on the other hand, like to be guided, avoids obligation, has little aspiration, and seeks protection.

As a consequence, a Theory X administration style demands close, stern management, with strictly delineated errands and the fear of retribution or the guarantee of higher reimbursement as stimulus. When a supervisor acts on these beliefs, monocratic controls are used, this can result to apprehension and anger among those they administer. The 'carrot and stick' tactic, according to McGregor, has its place, but it would not work when people's demands are mainly social and egoistic. Lastly, the premise that a supervisor's goal is to persuade people to be submissive, to obey orders in return for a reward or a reprieve from penalty has been uncovered as erroneous and needs to be reconsidered.

Theory Y is based on the premise that using physical and mental strength at work is as natural as playing or resting. The normal person does

not despise work naturally. Work may either be a feeling of desire or a cause of punishment, reliant on the circumstances. Outside regulate and the prospect of punishment are not the only method to stimulate people to achieve organizational goals and objectives. Self-direction and self-control will be exercised in the service of goals to which people are dedicated.

The benefits involved in attaining objectives affect people's dedication to work. The most vital of these incentives, such as the gratification of ego and consciousness demands, might be straight consequences of work directed toward organizational goals. Under the right set of conditions, the normal person studies not just to admit but also to seek obligation. Accountability evasion, an absence of desire, and a concentration on security are all common results of experience rather than basic human characteristics. The aptitude to answer management issues with a high degree of cleverness, originality, and creativity is broadly dispersed throughout the population, not narrowly dispersed.

The intelligent talents of the normal person are only substantially used below the field of contemporary industrial life. Generalisations built on Theory Y can result to more collaborative working interactions among supervisors and workers. A Theory Y administration panache intends to produce a working atmosphere in which employees' personal wants and goals may be related to and synchronised with the company's objectives. McGregor conceded in *The Human Side of Enterprise* that Theory Y was not a remedy for all maladies. In its place, by accentuating Theory Y, he sought to encourage supervisors to forgo Theory X's restraining expectations and explore the techniques explain by Theory Y.

Skills Approach to Leadership

The skills method takes into consideration the leader's experience and competencies. A leader can study unique abilities and develop into a brilliant leader. Despite that trait and skill leadership approaches have different emphasis, both focus on the leader as the main target.

For many years, researches have studied leadership skills and capacities. However, there are two models that have a lot of leverage. The first is a 1955 model developed by Katz. Mumford and colleagues offered the second strategy in the year 2000. These models are compatible to one another since they provide unique viewpoints on leadership from the perspective of capabilities. The following is an explanation of the two.

Katz (1955) published the key paper "Skills of an Effective Administrator," which he claimed that basic management or leadership qualities are the types of skills that supervisors display or "do" in accomplishing their responsibilities, rather than fundamental features and attributes. To strengthen the administrative leadership, Katz identified three main types of abilities that need be devised: (a) technical, (b) human, and (c) conceptual. Technical talents, rendering to Katz, are those that need particular knowledge, analytical skill, and the strength to employ a discipline's techniques, processes, procedures, and techniques. Human abilities include the capacity to cooperate constructively with people, be conscious of and sensitive to others' needs, and create a believing atmosphere. The capability to work with ideas, generate vision, detect issues, and produce solutions are all examples of conceptual skills.

Katz also noted that the usefulness of each range of capabilities was approximately equal to a person's administrative job or rank within the company or organisation. For example, persons at the top of an organization's administration (e.g., CEOs) employ more conceptual skills than those at the bottom (e.g., programme managers), whose responsibilities demand more technical knowledge. At all levels of management, human abilities are equally vital, according to Katz's typology.

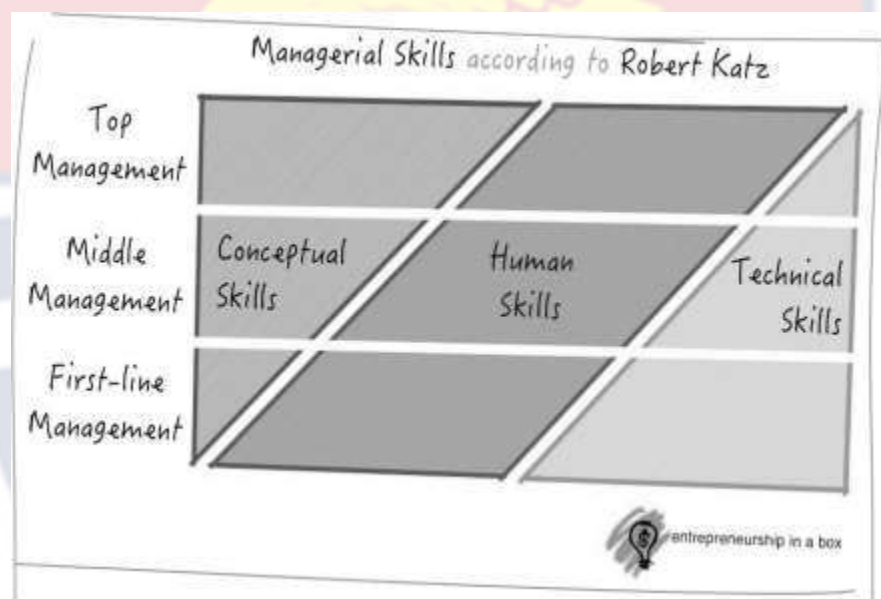
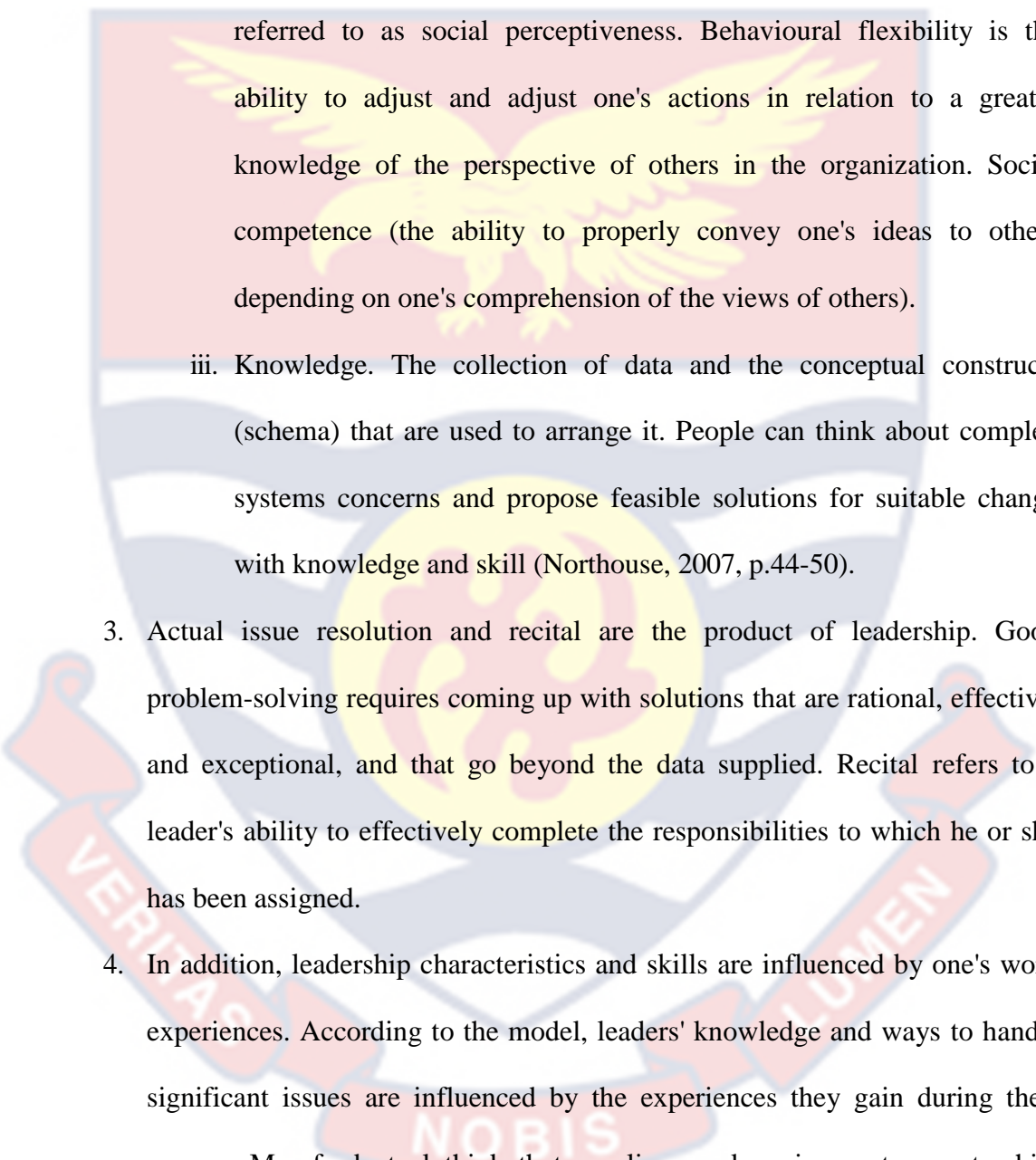


Figure 2: Katz's thoughts on the comparative relevance of the three categories of abilities in an organization's bottom, middle, and top administration

Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, Jacobs and Fleishman (2000) suggested a new model built on the features that a leader should possess. Personal traits, skills, leadership outcomes, career experiences, and environmental variables are the five (5) elements of the model. Because the model analyses the connection among a leader's skills and understanding and their effectiveness, it is also known as a capacity model. The qualities that allow for effective leadership, education and experience can help you strengthen their leadership

skills over time. The following are the explanations for the five features of the model:

1. Individual Attributes include four (4) components:
 - i. Intelligence: Continuous data processing, general reasoning skills, creative and conflicting thinking capacities, and memory skills. It has to do with biology rather than experience).
 - ii. Cognitive skill that has crystallized (intellectual ability) that has been learnt or acquired through time. Experience has given you a plethora of data (Intelligence gained through experience).
 - iii. Motivation (developing leadership talents necessitates three types of motivation: a desire and motivation to take on complicated organizational challenges (readiness to lead); a readiness to show authority; and a dedication to the organization's welfare benefits.)
 - iv. Personality (any individual characteristic that helps individuals to deal with difficult organisational issues mostly related to leadership achievement).
2. Competencies are at the heart of the skills paradigm and comprise problem-solving abilities, social judgment skills, and knowledge.
 - i. Problem-solving abilities (a leader's inventiveness in resolving novel and unique, ill-defined organizational issues. Skills in determining critical topics, acquiring problem information, creating new problem interpretations, and developing participation in the project for possible solutions)

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- The logo of the University of Cape Coast is a watermark in the background. It features a shield with a yellow eagle with wings spread, perched on a globe. Below the globe is a red banner with the Latin motto 'VERITAS LIBERABIT VOS'. The shield is surrounded by a blue border with the words 'UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST' and '1962' visible.
- ii. Social judgment abilities (the ability to comprehend individuals and social processes). The ability to understand other people's viewpoints on a given problem or solution is known as perspective taking. Understanding and knowledge of how others in the company work is referred to as social perceptiveness. Behavioural flexibility is the ability to adjust and adjust one's actions in relation to a greater knowledge of the perspective of others in the organization. Social competence (the ability to properly convey one's ideas to others depending on one's comprehension of the views of others).
- iii. Knowledge. The collection of data and the conceptual constructs (schema) that are used to arrange it. People can think about complex systems concerns and propose feasible solutions for suitable change with knowledge and skill (Northouse, 2007, p.44-50).
3. Actual issue resolution and recital are the product of leadership. Good problem-solving requires coming up with solutions that are rational, effective, and exceptional, and that go beyond the data supplied. Recital refers to a leader's ability to effectively complete the responsibilities to which he or she has been assigned.
4. In addition, leadership characteristics and skills are influenced by one's work experiences. According to the model, leaders' knowledge and ways to handle significant issues are influenced by the experiences they gain during their careers. Mumford et al think that grueling work assignments, mentorship, suitable training, and hands-on experience in solving new and unique challenges may improve leaders (Northouse, 2007).

5. Environmental influences are variables in a leader's circumstance that are not related to the leader's abilities, traits, or experiences (for example, appropriate technology, subordinates' abilities, work difficulty, or communication efficacy). Environmental elements are included in the skills model, although they are often outside the authority of the leader (Northouse, 2007).

The Contingency or Situational School

The contingency theories try to figure out the optimum leadership style built on the leader, the supporters, and the situation. Effective leadership is said to be the consequence of the interaction of personal and situational characteristics. There were various techniques for extracting situational factors. This paper presents some of these techniques that have received more widespread adoption.

While behavioural theories can help managers develop certain behaviours, they do not provide much insight into what makes for excellent leadership in dissimilar situations. Indeed, the majority of scholars today believe that no single leadership style is acceptable for every leader in every circumstance. In its place, contingency-situational theories were built to show that the proper panache is determined by factors such as the situation, the individuals involved, the job, the organization, and other external factors. Below are some of the key hypotheses that contribute to this school of thought.

Fiedler's Contingency Theory

This leadership theory, which shows how environmental variables interact with a leader's personality and behaviour, was first proposed by Fiedler. According to Fiedler (1967), there is no one-size-fits-all approach to

leadership. For a manager, different scenarios will need different leadership styles. The aspects that affect the circumstance determine how an administrative challenge is resolved. In an extremely repetitive (mechanistic) atmosphere where monotonous actions are the norm, for example, a comparatively directed style of leadership may produce the best results. Nevertheless, in a dynamic atmosphere, a more adaptive, interactive method may be required. Fiedler observed three scenarios that could reflect how a managerial project is progressing:

- i. Leader-member relationships: Just how do coaches and athletes get along? Leader-Member Interactions: A leader-member connection is preoccupied with subordinates' sentiments toward the superiors. Respect and trust from followers as well as collaborative collaboration and effort, arise from healthy relationships.
- ii. Task structure: Is the work to be done extremely organized, fairly not organised, or somewhere in between? Task Structure: talks about the degree to which the subordinates work are organised or not organised.
- iii. Position authority: How often authority does the manager have?

Position power refers to a leader's capability to persuade employees to comply with his or her requests.

Managers were assessed to see if they were more concerned with relationships or with tasks. Positive leader-member connections, clear tasks, and either significantly weaker position power are more conducive to task-oriented management. Managers effectively perform when the job is unorganized, but the formal authority is high. When the leader-member relationships were modest to poor and the activities were formless, they

likewise did well.

Managers who value connections perform better in all other situations. As a result, a particular situation may necessitate a manager with a specific style or one who can adapt to a new style for a new setting.

These environmental elements are weighed and labeled as "favourable" or "unfavorable" on one end and "unfavourable" on the other. Relationship perspective surpasses task direction in the clearly delineated extremes of "favourable" and "unfavourable" contexts. Managers might try to reform the atmosphere factors to fit their personality.

Another feature of the contingency model theory is that a leader's situational control is measured by the leader-member relationships, task structure, and position authority. Leader-member relations refer to the level of loyalty, dependability, and collaboration that a leader enjoys from his or her subordinates. It is a reflection of how the boss sees himself and the group of employees. In a better link, the manager has a high job hierarchy and can reward and/or reprimand employees efficiently. In an unfavourable collaboration, the work is frequently unstructured, and the leader's powers are constrained. The (favourable) explanation of what is expected of subordinates governs the work structure.

The amount of power or authority a supervisor believes the organization has given him or her to command, reward, and punish subordinates is known as positioning intensity. Managers' strategic authority is characterized by whether they reduce (beneficially) or increase (unfavourably) employee life choice power (Fiedler, 1967).

The undertaking leader takes pride and satisfaction in work completion for the company or organisation whereas the partnership leader seeks to foster personal relationships as well as provide extra assistance for team advancement in the organization. There can be no such thing as a perfect or terrible style of leadership. Each user has unique leadership preferences. When a group achieves a goal, such as breaking a sales record or outdoing a huge opponent, task-motivated leaders are at their most effective.

Relationship-oriented corporate leaders perform best when there is increased customer happiness and a favourable corporate image is formed. A healthy relationship between leader and follower, according to Dubrin (1997), is the utmost vital component that makes life simpler for the leader, in addition to persuading and exerting control over his or her position. Fiedler's theory appears to offer two primary leadership behaviour panaches: task-oriented and relationship-oriented; nevertheless, evidence suggests that a leader who excels at task performance may or may not also excel at interpersonal conduct. Nevertheless, any amalgamation of the two is possible. Fiedler has noticed that people-oriented corporate leaders create a positive environment in their workplaces.

The efficacy of a group, according to Fiedler (1967), is determined by two reasons: the character of the leader and the extent to which the environment grants the leader authority, regulate, and impact over the condition. In terms of character, Fiedler claims that leaders are either relational or task-oriented. Relationship variables are concerned with the leader's personal relationship with his or her subordinates. Task motivation means the leader's obsession with completing the duty at hand. To categorize

leadership styles, Fiedler designed the Least Preferred Co-Worker (LPC) scale. The LPC scale requires a leader to consider all of the people with whom he or she has ever collaborated and then identify the one person with whom he or she collaborated the least effectively. Leaders are asked to characterize this individual using the following scales on a range of 1 to 8:

Unfriendly 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 Friendly

Uncooperative 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 Cooperative

Hostile 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 Supportive

Guarded 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 Open

A high LPC score implies that the leader is more focussed with human relationships, whereas a low LPC score shows that the leader is more concerned with tasks. The application of Fiedler's concept to sports can lead to the conclusion that a great coach in one state may not be so in another (Murray & Mann, 1993). Examinations of sport-related studies that tested this theory produced insufficient evidence for the concept (Carron, 1980). Furthermore, Cox (1990) concluded from his review of the literature that "it would appear that Fiedler's contingency theory is not relevant to sport environments." Fiedler's theory varies from other situational theories in that it relies on relatively unchanging personality qualities rather than actions (Cox & Rock, 1997).

Other contextual specific theories, on the other hand, place greater emphasis on condition specific behaviours rather than personality inclinations (Murray & Mann, 1993).

House's Path Goal Theory

According to the path-goal hypothesis, "leadership is likely to act as a mediator who assists followers in achieving their goals" (House, 1971). The leader, as the title implies, leads the road for the faithful to achieve their goals.

House asserted in a 1971 work on Path-Goal Theory that a superior's leadership style has an impact on a subordinate's motivation, engagement and task involvement. The success of a leader is measured by whether or not his or her followers achieve their goals. This is accomplished through rewarding employees for meeting goals, identifying bottlenecks and hazards in the path of progress, and providing opportunity for individual satisfaction (Cox & Rock, 1997).

The quantity of advice and support provided is decided by the subordinate's ability and personality (Chelladurai & Carron, 1983). The Path-Goal hypothesis undertakes that leaders are adaptive and can alter their minds when necessary. "Perhaps, due to lack of clarity, path-goal theory has not been substantially investigated, either in or out of sports arenas." However, Chelladurai and Saleh (1978) observed the path-goal theory in the setting of sports and found some evidence. Individuals who supported team sports also expressed a preference for leadership styles that increase efficiency through training approaches. As a result, the demand for an independent style of activity was linked to a leadership behaviour. According to the theory, "a particular athletic type always favored a particular leadership style" (Cox & Rock, 1997).

Hersey – Blanchard Situational Leadership Model

When it comes to leadership behaviour, the Situational Leadership theory of Hersey-Blanchard (1972) is based on "the quantity of advice (task behaviour) and social economic inspiration (relational behaviour) a leader should supply given the situation and the 'degree of maturity' of the followers." This approach focuses on subordinates rather than the leader. Successful leaders, according to Hersey and Blanchard (1969, 1977, and 1982), may and should change their leadership style in response to their supporters' life cycle demands as well as the surroundings. According to Hersey and Blanchard (1982), the maturity of the followers determines the optimal leadership style for a certain circumstance. Maturity is distinct as the ability to set and realize goals, as well as the willingness and aptitude to accept obligation and knowledge or skill (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982). Hersey and Blanchard (1982) distinguished two forms of leadership behaviour: task behaviour (inciting hierarchy) and relationship orientation (consideration).

- i. **Task Behaviour:** The degree to which leaders explain their followers' duties and activities. Telling everyone else what to do, how to do something, how to get there, where to do it, and will also do it is one example of this behaviour. In duty behaviour, the leader communicates in each manner.
- ii. **Relationship Behaviour:** The amount which leaders communicate in two ways, listen, offer encouragement and support, enable engagement, and include followers in decision making. Listening, facilitating, and helpful behaviours are examples of this. In a relationship, by offering socio-emotional assistance, the leader involves in two-way communication.

The degree to which the leader provides advice and direction, as well as starting behaviour; (2) the amount of socio-emotional aid provided by the leader, or cognizance behaviour; and (3) the old age level of the supporters as they do a duty determine the leader's type of behaviour in relation to the follower(s). This method divides leadership behaviour into four quadrants.

- a. **Directing:** It is a task-oriented/low-relationship-oriented behaviour. The leader gives explicit directions and guidance.
- b. **Coaching:** It is a task-oriented/relationship-oriented attitude. Although the leader retains authority and regulate over decision-making, the leader fosters two-way communication and aids in the development of employee confidence and motivation.
- c. **Supporting:** This is linked to a high connection / small task mentality. With this paradigm, the leader and supporters share decision-making, and a directive relationship is no longer required or expected.
- d. **Delegating:** It is a low-task/low-relationship behaviour. This leadership style is ideal for leaders whose followers are capable of carrying out a specified task and are both competent and capable of accepting responsibility.

Effective leaders, according to Hersey and Blanchard, control their leadership panache to match the requirements of the group and the occasion. The effective leadership style depends on the level of the maturity of the subordinates. In sport and physical activity, the notion of old age occurrence. Athletic maturity, in the words of Hersey and Blanchard, can be expressed as the ratio command of skills and understanding in a sport as well as knowledge

and the ability to form high, but achievable objectives. It is reasonable to assume that athletic maturity grows as the athlete develops through the attractive rates of primary school, high school, university, and professional sport" Because the chances for contribution in sport follow a pyramid trend with age, and because the high-class and specific essence of sport helps to ensure that only those athletes with the necessary skills, knowledge, attitudes, and experience progress to each consecutive level in that pyramid (Chelladurai & Carron, 1983). They go on to state that situational leadership theory has been put to the test in sporting environments, with no favourable outcomes (Chelladurai & Carron, 1983).

To evaluate the authenticity of Hersey and Blanchard's (1972) situational theory in a sport environment, Case (1980) looked at the connection behaviours of 40 competent basketball coaches (and their athletes) from junior high, senior high, college, and Amateur Athletic Union (A.A.U) teams. The findings refuted the notion that at the lowest degree of competition, a high task framework and low connection may prevail while at the pinnacle of the sport, a low task structure and high supportive would prevail. Furthermore, through high school midget, junior, and senior divisions, Chelladurai and Carron (1983) investigated the undertaking and interacting behaviour of basketball coaches at the university level. They found no evidence for the maturity–leader attitude hypothesis, indicating that the leadership theory will have limited application in sports since maturation, as described by Hersey and Blanchard, remains substantially unaltered with increasing logical space and sophistication.

The Normative Theory of Leadership

Another method that emerged in the 1970s was normative theory. This model intended to investigate how leaders made decisions. It established a set of guidelines in identifying the nature and extent of collective decision in various situations (Vroom & Yetton, 1973). Vroom's theory suggests five basic approaches to decision-making. The amount of input supplied to subordinates varies between methods:

- i. Autocratic I: With the already available knowledge, the leader alone makes the decision.
- ii. Autocratic II: The leader gathers information from the subordinates before making a judgment on his or her own based on the data obtained.
- iii. Consultative I: The leader meets with each subordinate one-on-one to get data and solicit recommendations. The choice is then made by the leader alone, based on the facts collected.
- iv. Consultative II: In a group meeting, the leader interacts with minions, gathering data and soliciting their recommendations. The leadership then takes a choice on his or her own based on the facts collected.
- v. Group Decision: In a group meeting, the leader gathers data and solicits tips from subordinates. The leader and followers then work together to make a choice -from (Wann, 1997).

Chelladurai and Haggerty (1978) constructed a normative model of decision panaches in sport backgrounds, building on the work of Vroom and others. Somewhat than using Vroom's five choice panaches, Chelladurai and Haggerty's strategy combines three choice strategies: autocratic, participatory,

and declarative decision-making. When the coach makes the choice on his or her own, this is known as the autocratic style. Participatory decision-making occurs when a group of persons makes a choice. Coaches use the delegative decision style when they assign decision-making obligations to others, such as deputy coaches and players. Multiple studies assessing the model's relevance have shown that delegation is unusual in sports outcome (Chelladurai & Arnott, 1985).

Leader–Member Exchange Theory

Each previous historical leadership theories focused on the behaviours of leaders, followers, and ambient or contextual aspects that impact leader behaviour (Northouse, 2019). The leader–member interchange idea, which first arose in the mid-1970s, but still has substantial ramifications nowadays, is another theory (LMX). The initial name for LMX theory was vertical dyad linkage theory (VDL), which highlighted the "dyadic" bond that occurs among leaders and individual supporters (Dansereau, Graen & Haga, 1975; Graen, 1976). The study of VDL and LMX theories revealed that there are two kinds of ties or exchanges among leaders and followers:

- i. Followers or minions become affiliates of a "in-group" with whom they have a high-quality relationship or exchange, depending on their characters, self efficacy, work ethic, and preparedness to take on more or more stimulating job tasks.
- ii. Supporters or minions who only do what is expected of them but do not engage well with or directly link themselves with the leader create a "outgroup" with whom they have a strained relationship.

According to the LMX theory, in-group followers attract more attention, obligation, concern, and assistance out here than followers. As the research on the LMX theory advanced (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Harter & Evanecky, 2002; Liden, Wayne & Stilwell, 1993;), leading member interactions connected with first-class in-group connections led in sentiments of trust, it became obvious and honesty for the leader, as well as more helpful results for the adherents or minions. These effects include increased job gratification and commitment, as well as enhanced recital ratings and work assignments.

Followers or subordinates in outside the group, on the other hand, receive little sympathy and consideration, get left out of activities and important talks, have a reduced bargaining ability with the leader, and frequently fulfill only the bare minimum of their jobs. This can result in lack of organisational commitment as well as a higher rate of turnover among these individuals.

As a result, Graen and Uhl-Bien (1991) opine that actual leaders must strive to make massive connections, including all followers or subordinates, making them feel like an admired and important member of the team.

Charismatic Leadership Theory

The work of Weber (1968), House (1977), and Conger and Kanungo (1987, 1988) set the foundation for recognizing and understanding charismatic leadership. Weber (1968) defines charisma as a personality trait that makes a person appear "special" or "superhuman," or as possessing "exceptional characteristics and capacities." Rendering to Weber, these characteristics were not common among normal people, but were seen to be of "divine origin," and

the individual would be "regarded as a leader" as a result of them. In his groundbreaking study on charismatic leadership, House defined charismatic leaders as self-motivated and powerful people who are frequently motivating and evoke eager submission and emotional commitment from followers. House believed that charismatic leaders helped followers in having higher aspirations and a sense of being capable of contributing to an organization's overall mission.

Later, House and Howell (1992) suggest that charismatic leaders can be categorized into two:

- i. Personalized charisma—proud, unequal, and oppressive.
- ii. Socialized charisma, which is communally focused, egalitarian, and non-exploitative.

Modern complex organizations, according to House and Howell, need socialized strong leaders who are helpful, empathetic, caring, and attentive. These traits distinguish unique charismatic leaders from those who are power-hungry, dictatorial, demanding, forceful, Machiavellian, and narcissistic. This is the unpleasant, hazardous, and ultimately catastrophic side of charismatic leadership for individuals, organizations, and even nations.

Transformational and Transactional Theory

Transformational–transactional leadership theory has amassed a significant corpus of research over the previous twenty-five years. Transactional theories place a premium on supervision, organization, and group efficacy and they believe that leadership should be built on a reward system and consequences for meeting specific objectives. The sort of transaction, whether a reward or a punishment, is determined by the worker's

performance. Transactional leaders pitch to their subordinates' identities, rendering to Bass (1985), as quoted by Chan (2005). Transactional leaders seek to meet their minions' present expectations via negotiating and trading. Both leaders and supporters are focused on achieving the agreed-upon level of recital. The interactions among leaders and supporters are the focus of transformational theories. Transformational leadership is defined as a leader's capacity to persuade supporters to put the organization's needs ahead of their own (Bass, 1985, 1996 as cited by Murphy & Drodge, 2004). Rendering to Bass (1985), transformational leadership is built on unquestionable personal values and pleas to minions' moral obligations and ideals.

Rendering to Bass, four kinds of transformative leadership behaviour include perfect stimulus (charisma), inspiring motivation, individualized concern, and intellectual encouragement.

Sports Specific Theories of Leadership

Over the last 30 years, sports leadership has grown from leadership principles developed in business and the workplace. As sports have grown in popularity and many have grown into billion-dollar corporate empires, there has been a greater awareness of leadership in sports. Coaches in today's sport are in high-pressure jobs and must be skilled in areas, such as public relations, marketing, and other business-related skills. Sports have evolved into well-organized corporate entities (Whalley, 2003).

Many sports teams are organized and organised in comparable ways to businesses, and business ideas have been used to better understand sports contexts. In business, a management and employees carry out the company's tasks in a same way as coaches and sportsmen do. Businesses recognize the

value of operating as a team, employing "team building" methods and goal-setting and target-setting techniques similar to those used by sports teams. Teams and corporations compete to be first in their sectors, and it is the job of their leader or leadership team to assist them in achieving this goal (Whalley, 2003).

Coaches and management consultants have similar responsibilities in terms of planning, preparation, budgeting, scheduling, and recruiting (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1980). As sports become more like businesses, the job of leaders is given increasing emphasis and responsibility. Participants and supporters have long placed a high priority on the process of leadership in sports. Athletes frequently thank their coach after a win and emphasize the significance of their coach's contribution (Riemer, 1998).

Many ideas created to look at corporate settings can be applied to sporting leadership. Though caution should be exercised when applying these theories to sports research, as there are substantial contrasts between sports and business leadership (Chelladurai, 1990).

For the study of leadership in sports situations, three major theoretical frameworks have been proposed (Riemer & Chelladurai, 1995). One approach has been proposed by Smoll and Smith and their collaborators. They created a conceptual leadership model that recognizes individual differences, situational conditions, and cognitive mechanisms that are thought to intervene between evident mentoring behaviours and players' feedbacks (Smith, Smoll & Curtis, 1979, 1978; Smith, Smoll, Curtis & Hunt, 1978; Smoll & Smith, 1989, 1980). The second was devised by Chelladurai and Haggerty (1978), who built a normative model of decision panaches in sport settings built on Vroom and his

colleagues' work.

Chelladurai and Haggerty's model comprises three decision-making methods: monocratic, participatory, and declarative, rather than Vroom's five choice styles. Chelladurai's Multidimensional Model of Leadership (MML) exemplifies the third method, which focuses on the compatibility of three leadership behavioural states: needed, real, and desired.

The Mediational Model of Coach Leadership

The leadership Behaviour Model, reveal by Smoll and Smith (1989), is focused on the leader's scenario behaviours. The primary process of the concept is distinct by lines leading from coach behaviours to athletes' perceptions of coach behaviours to players' answers. According to this perspective, the ultimate repercussions of mentoring behaviours are interceded by the content that players ascribe to them. To put it another way, cognitive and emotional processes filter overt coaching behaviours from children's views about their coach. As a result, the relationship among a) what coaches truly do, b) how their players perceive and recall these behaviours, and c) children's attitudes towards the overall situation was measured and characterized using this model (Smoll & Smith, 1989).

Goals, intents, self/athlete views, and gender are among the coach individual difference variables in the model. Individual differences among players, include age, gender, and coach perceptions as well as motivation, fear, and identity. The nature of the sport, the level of rivalry, success/failure, and team cohesion are all factors to consider. The coach's opinion of a particular athlete influences his or her behaviour. A coach can treat an athlete with low self-esteem or nervousness differently than other players. The

Coaching Behaviour Assessment System (CBAS) was established by Smith, Smoll, and Hunt (1977) to track and code behaviour. The CBAS provides for continuous monitoring and classification of coaches' leadership behaviours throughout practices and games (Smoll & Smith, 1989). Responsive and impulsive behaviours have been seen. The CBAS consists of 12 categories separated into two groups: behaviour and spontaneous behaviour. Coaches' reactions to a player or a team's behaviour are known as reactive behaviours. Coach-initiated spontaneous behaviour does not increase in relation to a player's conduct.

1. Reactive Behaviours.
 - i. Reactions to desired outcomes.
 - ii. A favourable, rewarding response to a good play or effort is known as reinforcement.
 - iii. Failure to respond positively to a successful recital is known as Non-reinforcement.
 - iv. Encouragement provided to a player when he or she makes a mistake is known as a Mistake-contingent.
 - v. Mistake-contingent technical instruction: directing and displaying to the player how to fix an error he or she has committed.
 - vi. Punishment: a bad response, unwritten or non-verbal
 - vii. subsequent error.
 - viii. Punitive technical instruction: technical instruction following
 - a. an error given a punitive or hostile manner.
 - ix. Ignoring mistakes: failure to react to a player error. Reactions to Misconduct

2. Keeping control: responses aimed at restoring or maintaining order within teammates.
3. Spontaneous Behaviours
 - i. Game-Related
 - ii. General technical instruction: impromptu training in the sport's tactics and approaches (not following a mistake).
 - iii. Encouragement that is not prompted by an error is known as general encouragement.
 - iv. Organization is a type of managerial behaviour that involves giving jobs and responsibilities to players.
 - v. Game- Irrelevant
 - vi. General communication: encounters with players that aren't participating in the game (Smoll & Smith, 1989). (Smoll & Smith, 1989).

The CBAS is the utmost extensively researched scheme for watching and recording mentoring behaviour in minor sports. A number of noteworthy links have been discovered through research with the CBAS. Coaches' major actions when dealing with juvenile sport athletes are great encouragement, basic technical guidance, and overall support. Players believe that maintaining control and administering punishment occur far more frequently than they actually do. Another intriguing observation is that coaches of child sports teams devote more time to technical teaching and feedback to moderate athletes than to greater athletes (Cox & Rock, 1997).

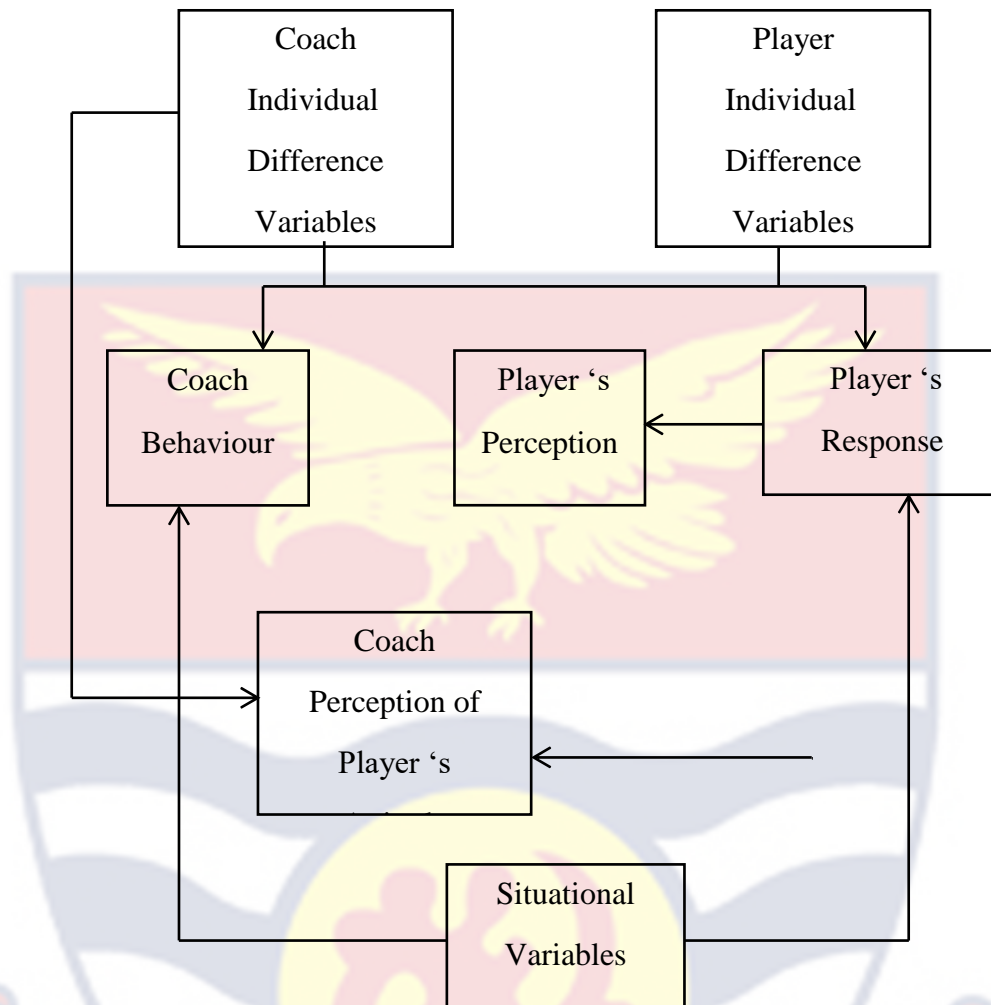


Figure 3: Leadership Behaviour Model

Note: Adapted from "Leadership Behaviours in Sport: A theoretical model and research paradigm", by F. L. Smoll and R.E. Smith, in Journal of Applied Social psychology, 1989.

The Normative Model of Decision-Making Style in Coaching

Chelladurai and Haggerty (1978) constructed a normative model of decision styles in sport settings, building on the work of Vroom and others. Rather than using Vroom's five decision styles, Chelladurai and Haggerty's model includes three decision-making methods: monocratic, participatory and delegative decision-making. When the coach makes his or her own choice, it is known as the autocratic style. When a group of people makes a decision,

it is called participatory decision-making. When coaches give decision-making authority to others, such as deputy coaches and players, they utilise the delegative decision style. Multiple studies assessing the model's validity have concluded that delegation is unusual in sports decision-making (Chelladurai & Arnott, 1985).

The Multidimensional Model of Leadership

Non-sports research and theories provided valuable frameworks for learning can be described (Horn, 2002); nonetheless, particular approaches that addressed the distinctive requirements of sports environments were needed. As a result, Chelladurai (1993, 1990, and 1978) formulated the multidimensional leadership model to offer a theoretical outline for researching sports leadership. According to Chelladurai, effective leadership is continuous and is due to a multifaceted network of communications among the leader, group affiliates, and situational limitations. The model predicts good results when the leaders' genuine leadership, the group affiliates' preferred leadership, and what is obligatory in the condition are all aligned.

In summary, Chelladurai's (1993, 1990, 1978) approach emphasised the relevance of 'fit' or 'alignment,' which is associated with high levels of job gratification and anticipated recital when actual, required, and desired are all aligned. As a result, it appears that when gaps exist, leaders are faced with significant challenges: continue without making major modifications and hope that others would be more receptive; eliminate barriers; or be more adaptive. It is important to mention that such sports executives appear to be "recycled" after earlier failures, lastly succeeding in limited settings but being less successful or capable of adjusting their style to more favourable

circumstances, etc.

One of the challenges in analysing the performance of earlier studies, according to Riemer and Chelladurai (1995), is that they covered different sports with different task qualities of reliance and variability. Other contextual elements, such as the size of the organisation, its popularity, and public pressure to succeed, distinguished these sports. As a result, the influence of other factors may muddy the data relating to task dependence and variability. To get over this challenge, find a sport where the performance positions vary in terms of unpredictability and dependability. A specific sport with varying levels of task variations and reliance within a single team may offer an exceptional ability to relate their consequence on the leadership procedure while manipulating for other contextual variables (e.g., team size, number of coaches) that may influence situational leadership desires.

Individual and group performance as well as member satisfaction, are seen to be the result of the multidimensional model's convergence of three stages of leadership behaviour: required, preferred, and real. The antecedents of these stages of leadership behaviour are the circumstances, the leader, and the members.

Factors/Antecedents Leader Behaviour Consequence

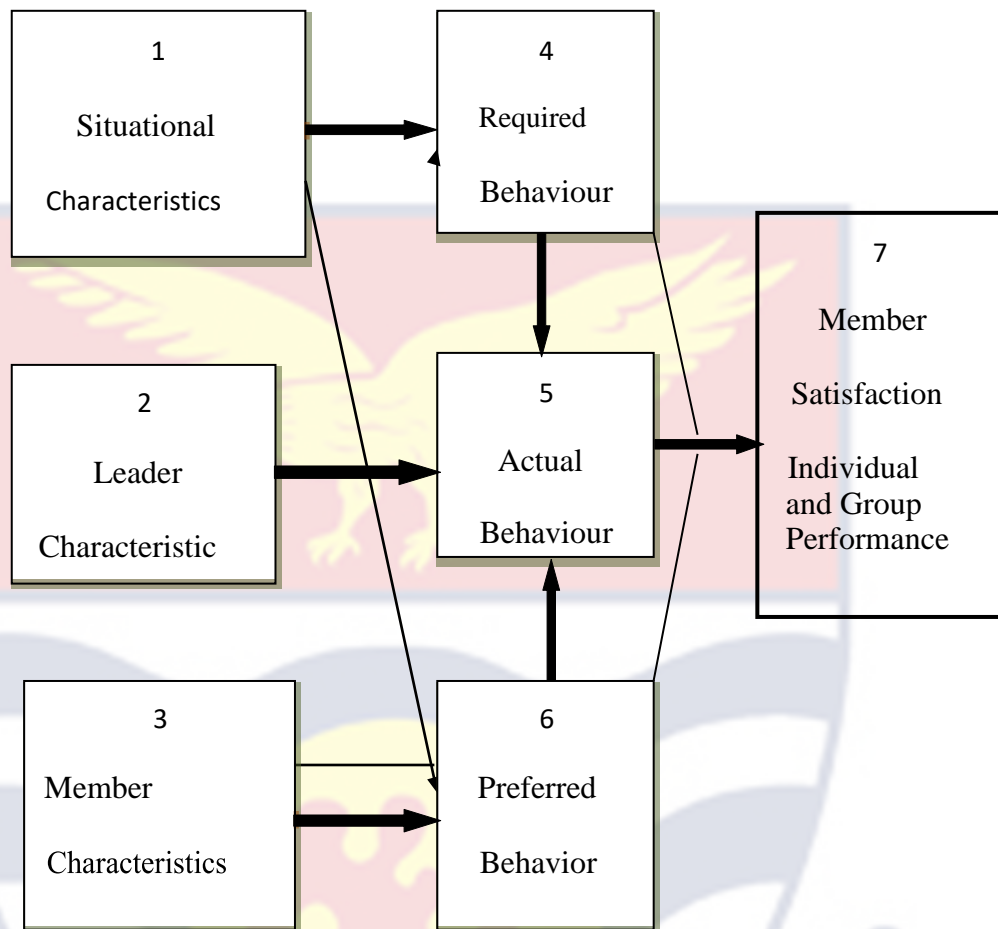


Figure 4: Multidimensional Model of leadership (Chelladurai, 1990)

Leader Behaviour Preferred By Members

Individual attributes play a significant role in group members' decisions about particular behaviour (box 6). Personality elements such as demand for attainment, a requirement for membership, cognitive structure, and task capability impact a affiliate's preferences for mentoring and directing, social assistance, and comment. Situational considerations also influence members' preferences (Chelladurai, 1990). Real Leadership Behaviour Actual leadership behaviour (box 5) refers to the acts taken by the leader. Leader attributes like as personality, skill, and experience, according to Chelladurai,

have a direct impact on these behaviours. Furthermore, situational demands have a big influence on leaders. Actual behaviour can be influenced by group preferences (Chelladurai, 1990).

Actual Leader Behaviour

The leader's actual leadership behaviour (box 5) is the actions he or she takes. Leader attributes such as personality, skill, and experience, according to Chelladurai, have a direct impact on these tendencies. In addition, situational demands have a significant impact on leaders. Group preferences have a direct impact on actual behaviour (Chelladurai, 1990).

Performance and Satisfaction

"A happy affective state resulting from a sophisticated analysis of the structures, processes, and outcomes associated with the sporting experience," Chelladurai and Riemer (1998). Recital and happiness are determined by the degree of consistency throughout the three stages of leadership behaviour. They are not entirely self-sufficient. As a result, the alignment of necessary, preferred, and actual leader behaviour has an impact on both productivity and achievement (box 7) (Chelladurai, 1990).

A multi-item, multi-dimension scale was formulated by Riemer and Chelladurai (1998) to quantify athlete gratification. According to a basic thesis of the MML, similarity among preferred and real idealized influence improves member gratification. The results of previous study on this basic assumption have been contradictory. While some researchers discovered a noteworthy curvilinear connection among leadership differential scores and gratification with 134 leadership (i.e., gratification was uppermost when disparity was zero), others only discovered a noteworthy linear relation (i.e.,

gratification was highest when preconceived notions were larger than priorities) or none at all (Riemer & Toon, 2001).

Conceptual Framework

Coaches' leadership traits were used as independent factors in this study while athletes' satisfaction was used as a dependent variable. On the basis of their connection, a conceptual model was established with the goal of determining which of the coach's leadership behaviours is most perceived by SHS student athletes and most suitable to give them with contentment in the Ashanti Region of Ghana.

Leader behaviour (perceived behaviour) had five (5) sub- dimensions namely: positive feedback, training and instruction, social support, democratic behaviour and autocratic behaviour. The conceptual framework states that if a coach is perceived by athletes to be using any or combination of the sub- dimensions, there is a high probability of the consequences being satisfaction. The satisfaction can also result in improved or enhanced performance in sports.

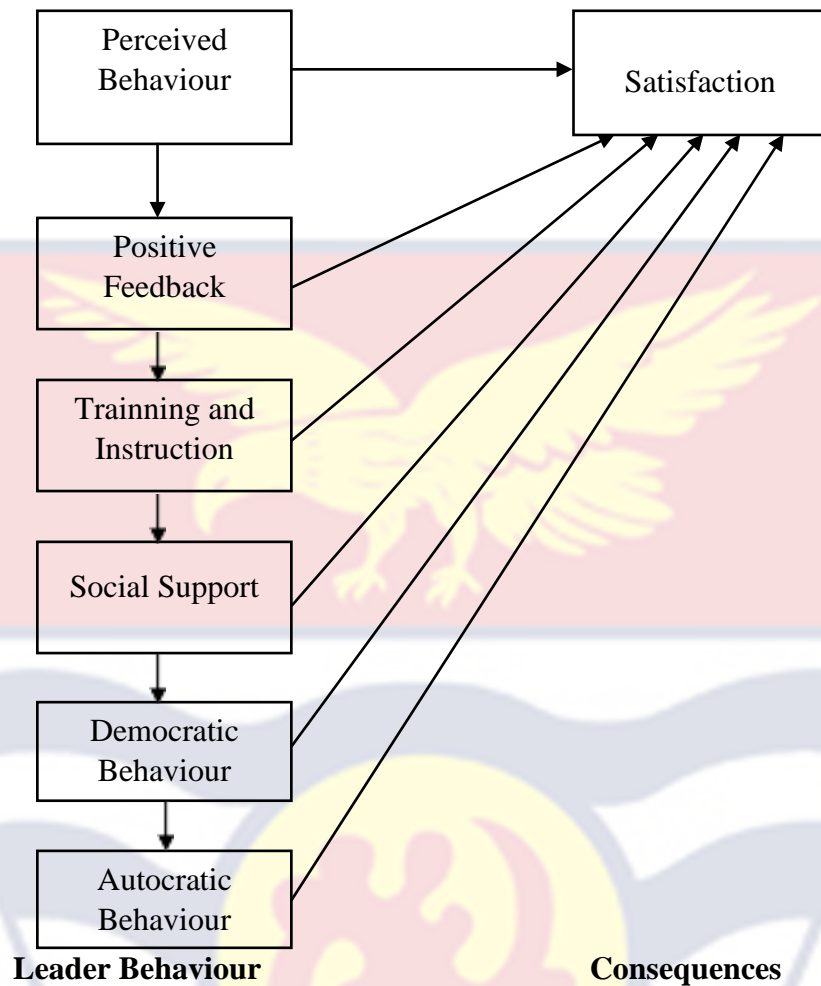


Figure 5: MML in sports displaying relationship between antecedent, behaviour and consequences (Chelladurai, 1980, pg. 27)

According to the MML, a leader's attributes might influence needed, actual, or perceived behaviour. The needed behaviour is behaviour that the situation or task necessitates. For example, because time is restricted during a volleyball game, the coach may need to provide instructions rapidly during a timeout. In addition, actual behaviour refers to what the leader acts in a given situation. The coach, for example, gives clear and effective instructions. This is frequently decided by the coach's expertise (Chelladurai, 1984).

The perceived behaviour of the leader, which was customized for the sake of this study and is how the group perceives their instructors based on

their competence and aims, is the final component of the leader's behaviour. A goal-oriented squad, for example, will regard the coach as giving clear instructions. The higher the level of satisfaction, the more closely the leader's actions correspond to the athletes' expectations and impressions (Chelladurai, 1990).

The MML's consequence, according to Chelladurai and Riemer (1998), is that if the three kinds of behaviours are congruent, pleasure will rise. The impact of the antecedent and leader's behaviour on satisfaction and recital were examined. This study focused on capability usage, technique, improvement methods, individual performance, and teamwork to determine satisfaction. Ability Utilization refers to satisfaction with how individual's talents and abilities were used and employed while strategy refers to satisfaction with strategies selected by the coach. Personal Treatment was explained as athletes' satisfaction on giving important recognition, friendliness and loyalty of a coach.

Performance was defined by Chelladurai based on individual and team. Individual performance refers to contentment with one's individual development in job performance, whereas quality of the team refers to pleasure with the flawless execution of the entire lineup.

Empirical Studies on Coach Leadership and Athlete Satisfaction and Performance

Leadership Scale for Sport (LSS)

Chelladurai and Saleh (1980) developed the Leadership Scale for Sport to aid in the evaluation of the Multidimensional Model of Leadership (LSS). The LSS was created to assess athletes' preferences for specific behaviours as

well as athletes' assessments of their coaches' behaviour and coaches' impressions of their own conduct (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1980). The LSS has five scopes:

1. Training and Instruction: Mentoring behaviour meant to advance athletes' recital by stressing and promoting rigorous and difficult training, educating them on the sport's talents, methods, and strategies, explaining the members' connection, and organizing and directing their activities (Chelladurai, 1990).
2. Democratic Behaviour: Coaching behaviour aim to improve athletes' recital by stressing and encouraging rigorous and demanding training, instructing them in the sport's abilities, methods, and strategies, explaining the affiliates' connection, and organizing and directing their conduct (Chelladurai, 1990).
3. Autocratic Behaviour: Individual decision-making is incorporated into coaching behaviour that stresses personal authority (Chelladurai, 1990).
4. Social Support: Mentoring behaviour is described by anxiety for individual athletes' well-being, a helpful group climate, and sincere interpersonal ties with affiliates (Chelladurai, 1990).
5. Positive Feedback: Mentoring behaviour that recognises and rewards an athlete's accomplishment (Chelladurai, 1990).

Weinberg and Gould (2003) make an interesting remark on National Basketball Association (NBA) coach Doug Collins, who appeared to be most operative in offering direction to young, inexperienced teams with his dictatorial and passionate leadership style. Collins' dictatorial attitude was

viewed as a flaw when he struggled to adjust his strategy as the teams progressed, and he was fired in two comparable situations after making a strong first impression. Clearly, such speculative results add nothing to our understanding of leadership, but given the practical importance of knowing which types of leaders are appropriate for various situations, additional research is clearly needed in this area.

Before going over some of the research done to see if the multidimensional model of leadership is accurate and efficient, it is crucial to remember that the Leadership Scale for Sports (LSS), which was designed by Chelladurai and Saleh, is the most often used metric in this regard (1978, 1980). The Leadership Success Scale (LSS) measures five aspects of leadership, including informational decision-making style and motivating tendencies, and has accepted wide validation and good psychometric backing (Chelladurai, 1993; Chelladurai & Riemer, 1998). A sum of recurrent research discoveries seem to be significant when examining the literature on the multidimensional model. To begin with, it seems that as athletes age and develop, they have a bigger preference for authoritarian and supportive leadership styles (Horn, 2008). These trends could indicate that older athletes are taking their achievements more seriously and are becoming extra goal-oriented. Chelladurai and Carron (1983) hypothesized that the link among age and demand for monocratic style may happen because athletes are 'socialized' to prefer less accountability in a largely autocratic social scheme.

Basketball, football, and volleyball players, for example, favour stronger autocratic leadership than players in coaching sports such as whirling or bowling (Terry, 1984; Terry & Howe, 1984). Finally, Weiss and Fredrichs

(1986) established a connection among poor team recital and the occurrence of Social Backing, implying that underperforming teams need more Social Backing from their leaders to remain motivated. In summary, empirical work has backed up the multidimensional model's projections (Horn, 2008), which state that when the required actual leader and group desires are in sync, group performance and satisfaction would improve. Larger differences between real, preferred, and necessary, on the other hand, are more likely to cause dissatisfaction and have a negative impact on performance.

The LSS was used by researchers of late (Chelladurai & Doherty, 1998) to inspect coaches' decision-making procedures. While both democratic and autocratic judgement call styles have innate strengths and disadvantages, Chelladurai and Doherty (1998) stress that the correctness of monocratic or democratic decision-making techniques was dependent on the problem situation. Furthermore, employing patterns in real terms indicates that there is no common way, while earlier research has shown that mixtures of monocratic and democratic styles occur (Blake & Moulton, 1969), and it is logical to believe that versatile supervisors can utilize the panaches alternately as needed. In professional soccer, where huge groups of participants are engage, more authoritarian tactics will inevitably prevail; democratic styles, as Chelladurai and Doherty (1998) point out, are less operative for multifaceted difficulties and take longer. As a result, team sport participants value training and direction significantly more than individual sport players, according to Chelladurai and Saleh (1978). Closed-sport athletes preferred significantly more training and instruction than open-sport athletes. According to House, interdependent closed-sport athletes sought the most advanced training and

guidance (1971). Independent athletes favoured more democratic and fewer monocratic behaviour than interdependent athletes, according to Terry and Howe (1984).

Team sport athletes preferred more training and instruction, Monocratic Behaviour, and Helpful Comment than personal sport athletes, but less Democratic Behaviour and Social Backing, according to Terry (1984). These findings confirm House's (1971) path-goal theory, which states that when errands are complex and interrelated, higher structure and monitoring are desired.

One of the complications in relating the results of earlier studies, according to Riemer and Chelladurai (1995), is that they covered different sports with different task qualities of reliance and predictability. Other contextual elements, such as the size of the organization, its popularity, and the public's intense pressure, distinguished these sports. As a result, the relationship between work satisfaction and task reliance and variability may be complicated by other factors. To get around this, it is best to play a sport where the playing roles vary in terms of flexibility and dependability. A specialised sport with varied amounts of duty variation and team dependency can offer an outstanding chance to research their consequences on the coaching procedure while controlling for other situational variables (e.g., team size, number of coaches) that may influence leadership trait desires.

Individual Differences in Terms of Sex and Preference c

Erle (1981) explored how sex, experience, and motivation influenced the leadership preferences of university and intramural players. He discovered that males favoured training and direction over ladies. Athletes with a high

task motivation liked more training and coaching, whereas those with a high attachment and extrinsic drive preferred more Social support. Furthermore, the demand for Positive Feedback rises with experience in competitive sports.

Using a paradigm that was thought to symbolize the subjects' maturity level, Chelladurai and Carron (1983) observed the preferences of high school midget, high school junior, high school senior, and university basketball players. The trend analysis yielded two significant results. First, when students progressed through high school, their liking for training and instruction fell, then climbed at the university level. Second, from middle school through university, the preference for Social Support has consistently increased.

Garland and Barry (1988) investigated the impact of personality qualities and apparent leader behavioural patterns on collegiate football recital. As a performance measure, Garland and Barry divided athletes into regulars, replacements, and survivors. They discovered that when personality traits and leadership behaviours are combined, they can considerably predict performance. Participants who thought their coach provided more training and instruction, had a democratic decision-making style, was more socially supportive, and provided more Helpful Comments had higher performance rates, whereas participants who thought their coach had an autocratic decision-making style had lower performance rates.

Situational Variables

Culture (a situational variable) was studied in relation to sport leadership (Chelladurai, Imamura, Yamaguchi, Oinuma & Miyauchi, 1988). In this research, the differences between Japanese and Canadian university-level

male athletes were explored in terms of full range leadership preferences and perceptions, happiness with leadership and personal outcomes, and the links among leadership behaviours and gratifications. The findings revealed that: a) Japanese athletes preferred more monocratic interaction and human backing whereas Canadian athletes preferred meaningfully more information and coaching; and b) Monocratic behaviour was seen as more prevalent among Japanese athletes., whereas Canadian athletes apparent higher levels of demoratic behaviour, positive feedback, and demoralizing behaviour patterns.

Ipinmoroti (2002) conducted another study on the effects of situational variables on leadership behaviour patterns. The goal of his study was to see if the sport type may predict coach leadership behaviour. Team sport coaches and individual sport coaches were among the participants in his study. There were no significant variations in coach leadership behaviours between team and individual sport coaches, according to the discoveries of the study he did.

Consequences of Leadership

The consequences of leadership have been discussed by certain academics. Chelladurai (1984) investigate the connection among the gap among preferred and apparent leadership and athlete enjoyment in a range of sports using task variation and/or task dependency. Disparities in leadership among athletes in several sports were linked to three degrees of gratification: team recital, leadership, and total participation, according to the findings. In addition, inconsistencies in training and direction, as well as helpful comment, were the most noteworthy elements of leadership behaviour affecting player happiness across all three sport groups (basketball, track and field, and wrestling).

Horne and Carron (1985) studied the connection among coach-athlete appropriateness and efficacy as well as the link among coach-athlete flexibility and athlete happiness, among university volleyball, basketball, track and pitch, and swimming athletes and their coaches. They discovered that the differences in athletes' insights of positive feedback and autocratic conduct were the most effective criteria in separating suitable and unsuitable dyads. Athlete satisfaction with leadership was also predicted by differences in training and direction, social backing, and helpful comment, according to the results.

In Schlieman's (1987) research of university track and pitch players, apparent democratic behaviour and backing systems were absolutely linked to overall gratification with leadership. Disparity ratings in training and teaching, social backing, and helpful comment were were meaningfully linked to gratification with the three leadership behaviours. Furthermore, perceived democratic interaction and human support were modestly higher indicators of general leadership satisfaction than equivalent discrepancy scores, according to Schliemann.

Weiss and Friedrichs (1986) looked at how coach conduct, qualities, and institutional variables affected team success and athlete happiness among university basketball players. They discovered that neither institutional nor coach attribute variables had a significant relationship with team effectiveness or pleasure. Leader behaviour, on the other hand, was observed to be strongly linked to these team results. The most important indicator of team happiness was found to be positive feedback. In an analysis using individual higher happiness, the size of the school, coach attributes, and leader behaviours were

all found to be predictive of athlete contentment. Players were happier when their coaches employed more frequent praising, social support, and democratic behaviour.

The differences in preferred leadership, apparent leadership, and gratification with leadership among offensive and defensive personnel on football teams as well as the connection between preferred and apparent leadership, their similarity, and gratification with leadership (Riemer & Chelladurai, 1995).

According to the data, defensive players preferred and perceived more democratic behaviour, autocratic behaviour patterns, and societal protection than aggressive players. In the factor of social support, the alignment of chosen and perceived leadership was also crucial in improving member happiness. Positive feedback as well as perceived leadership in training and teaching, were strongly predictive of leader satisfaction than wanted leadership or the alignment of preferred and apparent leadership in these domains.

Riemer and Toon (2001) studied how anticipated and actual leadership methods positive statements among tennis players playing in National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) Division I and II Tennis Championships. According to the data, congruence of preferred and perceived leadership conduct had no effect on athlete's happiness. Earlier research on the Multidimensional Model of Leadership's central thesis has produced varied results. While some research found an important curvilinear connection among leadership discrepancy scores and leadership gratification, others found an important linear or no relationship.

In their research, several authors looked at some of the backgrounds of the Multidimensional Model of Leadership, and the LSS has been increasingly prominent in recent years in mentoring leadership studies (Dwyer & Fischer, 1990; Garland & Barry, 1988; Ipinmoroti, 2002; Riemer & Chelladurai, 1995; Riemer & Toon, 2001; Schliemann, 1987; Weiss & Friedrichs, 1986). For personal variances Erle (1981) looked into the effects of sex, experience, and incentive on the leadership choices of university and intramural players. He discovered that males favoured training and direction over ladies. Athletes with high task incentive desired more training and direction whereas athletes with high membership and extrinsic drive want more social backing. Furthermore, the demand for Positive Feedback rises with experience in competing sports.

Athletes Satisfaction and Coach Leadership Behaviour in Sport

Although there are several studies on job happiness in the academic literature, there are less studies focused on athlete gratification. A positive affective state arising from a sophisticated appraisal of the structures, processes, and results involved with the athletic engagement is athlete happiness and performance (Chelladurai & Riemer, 1997).

Within the psychological, physical, and environmental domains, the difference among what the athlete wants and the awareness of what is obtained determines the amount of an athlete's pleasure. Furthermore, based on the following unique aspects of athletics, Chelladurai and Riemer (1997) proposed that athlete happiness and performance may verify to be the pinnacle of organisational success of an athletics department. To begin with, athletic performance measures are insufficient and/or tainted by reasons such as

luck, an opponent's exceptional recital, a referee's mistake, and so on. Second, because every contest has a winner and a loser, efforts undertaken in the quest of greatness cannot be appraised only on the basis of wins and losses

Third, win-loss records only represent recital periods (i.e., real competitions), not the complete sporting experience. "It is vital that an athletic programme's and coaches' assessments be based on athlete happiness in addition to performance metrics, such as win-loss records," the authors wrote (Chelladurai & Riemer, 1997).

Athlete Satisfaction

Chelladurai and Riemer (1997) describe athlete gratification as a encouraging emotional mood that arises when an athlete examines the structures, procedures, and consequences involved with the sports activity. To put it another way, an athlete's level of gratification reflects how well the athletic attempt satisfies the athlete's own personal criteria. Athlete happiness is important for three reasons (Chelladurai & Riemer, 1998). To begin with, an athlete's love of his or her sport should be intrinsically related to that sport's success. For example, a happy athlete will put forth greater exertion and endurance during a rivalry. The second purpose for athlete happiness is that it can be considered as a precursor or result in the conceptual outlines of other concepts, such as performance. The fourth purpose is that in sporting events, athletic satisfaction is a top focus, which is relevant to the study's goal.

At the college level, the humanistic perspective implies that the athletic experience should be joyful and beneficial to athletes' growth, with development being a main outcome. Athlete satisfaction, on the other hand, has both theoretical and practical ramifications. Role ambiguity is one

factor that could have a large influence on athlete gratification. The demand for role clarity was investigated by Bray, Beauchamp, Eys, and Carron (2004) as a potential mediator variable among role vagueness and athlete gratification. Bray et al. used the Athlete Satisfaction Questionnaire, the Role Ambiguity Scale, and a tool that measured the athletes' demand for role clearness to investigate this link. Their findings showed that higher ambiguity was linked to decreased athlete satisfaction, which is similar with Eys et al's (2003) findings.

They also discover that the link among role ambiguity and a variety of measures of athlete happiness was only noticeable in athletes who needed more role clarity. It is worth mentioning that the authors chose to use individual subscales of the Athlete Satisfaction Questionnaire rather than team subscales (Bray, Beauchamp, Eys & Carron, 2004). They did so since athlete happiness in connection to the major role sender was a concern for them (i.e., the coach), using meta-analytic results from the business literature by Jackson and Schuler (1985), job gratification and pleasure with administration were the variables of happiness with the most similarities to role ambiguity, according to the discoveries. According to the discoveries of the Bray, et al. study, the ambiguity-satisfaction link may be more complex. Two variables that have not been explored but may be vital for athlete gratification are role acceptability and gratification. For instance, an athlete may comprehend and accept his or her role, but not be gratified with it; the literature is divided on whether or not that player will be gratified with his or her sports experience.

Athlete Satisfaction Model

A high level of satisfaction is required for sport participation and enjoyment. If they were not gratified with their present level of achievement and satisfaction, athletes would look for it elsewhere (Maday, 2000). In sports, contentment has been studied in depth in relation to a range of factors, the most important of which is 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). A number of sport psychology researchers have employed athlete gratification as an antecedent or outcome variable. Contentment is included as a variable alongside performance in the multidimensional leadership paradigm (Chelladurai, 1980, 1990).

The multidimensional model of leadership (Chelladurai, 1980, 1990) has mostly focused on the relationship between pressures generated and athlete happiness. Diverse leadership studies built on the multidimensional model of leadership have used satisfaction as a result (Chelladurai, 1984; Chelladurai et al., 1988; Dwyer & Fischer, 1990; Eichas, 1992; Horne & Carron, 1985; Riemer & Chelladurai, 1995; Riemer & Toon, 2001; Schliesman, 1987; Sriboon, 2001). Leadership roles were indicated to be precursors of member satisfaction in the multidimensional model (Chelladurai, 1980, 1990). According to the model, the gap between athletes' perceived and preferred styles of leadership has an influence on the level of gratification.

Chelladurai and Riemer developed the paradigm "A Classification of Facets of Athlete Satisfaction" in 1997. The model's aim was to look into the

requirements, advantages, and handling choices for intramural athletics. Based on Chelladurai and Riemer's (1997) taxonomy of dimensions of athlete gratification, Riemer and Chelladurai (1990) formulated the Athlete Satisfaction Questionnaire, a multiple-item, multiple-dimension scale to quantify athlete enjoyment (ASQ). The ASQ was later refined into a final scale with 15 facets, or subscales, and 56 elements in total. The form of the scale aids investigators in incorporating the most relevant aspects of enjoyment in a given situation (Riemer & Toon, 2001). The suggested satisfaction measures were training and instruction gratification, interpersonal treatment gratification, team effectiveness gratification, and personal recital gratification.

The first two metrics are concerned with satisfaction with the coaching behaviour process, whereas the second two are concerned with satisfaction without regard for leadership procedures (Riemer & Chelladurai, 1998). Training and direction gratification meant to the coach's gratification with his or her training and teaching. Individual treatment satisfaction denotes to how satisfied you are with behaviours that straightly affect you but indirectly affect team development. Positive Feedback and Social Backing are included. Team effectiveness gratification meant to an athlete's contentment with the performance of his other team.

Absolute performance, target achievement, and implied performance increases are all included in task performance. Finally, athlete pleasure with his or her own task performance is referred to as individual performance satisfaction. Absolute performance, performance gains, and target attainment are all examples of task performance (Riemer & Chelladurai, 1998).

Role of Satisfaction in Sport

The gratification function is regarded as an emotive component of role participation, and it is the only known in the literature (Eys, Beauchamp, & Bray, 2006). As stated in the earlier section, role pleasure has been employed to imply role acceptance. Nevertheless, Eys and colleagues (2003) pointed out that the role fulfillment concept used in the industrial/organizational literature may easily be applied to sport. Despite the lack of research on role satisfaction, the existing literature implies that it is significant. Rail (1987) conducted research with volunteer sport executives to identify factors that contribute to people feeling fulfilled in their jobs.

Four perspectives of role gratification surfaced from semi-structured interviews with people: (a) how much their strengths were used, (b) how significant they assumed their role was, (c) how much praise and guidance they received for their role, and (d) the relative independence they were given when it came to carrying out the role and responsibility of their role. Eys and colleagues defined how these perspectives might apply in a participatory sport environment (in press). Athletes, for example, are more likely to be content with their jobs if they think their tasks are significant, that their skills are put to good use, and that they obtain comment and acknowledgment for their work. Bray (1998) concentrated on sport teams, studying collegiate basketball players' perspectives of role satisfaction (as well as a variety of other role characteristics) (as well as a variety of other role dimensions). He discovered that role satisfaction was favourably correlated to duty solidity, role effectiveness, and role reputation, and adversely linked to role ambiguity, using a gauge modified from employee satisfaction ratings in organizational

psychology. Another study found that Beauchamp and colleagues (in press) used identical data to construct a measure of role gratification. In this study, role gratification was investigated in connection to role ambiguity in rugby and field hockey players (Beauchamp et. al., in press). Job uncertainty in the middle of the season was linked to latter season role satisfaction, according to their findings.

Even, after manipulating for earlier gratification and the athletes' tendency for adverse feelings, the link keep on. According to a review of the literature on team cohesiveness, athlete happiness, role uncertainty, role acceptance and role fulfillment, numerous diverse characteristics and connections require more inspection. First, while role ambiguity has gotten more attention than the other characteristics of the role, the idea of an athlete knowing his or her job (low ambiguity), but not accepting or gratified with it has not been looked into. These two factors (role acceptance and role gratification) have the potential to have significant implications for team cohesiveness and player satisfaction, with theoretical and practical inferences for sport psychology.

In addition, 23 explanations of the conceptions of role acceptance and role satisfaction are required. To determine if role acceptance and role satisfaction are two distinct parts of role participation, they must be measured as different variables. By looking deeper into the diverse role concepts, this research will contribute to the body of knowledge.. Focusing on the significance of interpersonal connections and group dynamics in the athletic experience, as well as investigating the relationships between role constructs, coaches and practitioners can benefit from a greater understanding of role

constructs and linkages.

Role and Responsibilities of Coach/Leader in Sport

In British association football, the title of manager' differs from that of coach,' and is more equivalent to that of a Head Coach or athletic executive in the United States. Handling people, whether in sports or business, is a demanding duty that necessitates a sensitive grasp of the numerous duties that must be fulfilled.

A coach's traditional tasks include developing and implementing a well-thought-out, well-coordinated, and well-integrated athlete groundwork programme (Baker, Horton, Robertson-Wilson & Wall, 2003; Lyle, 2002; Pyke, 1992; Sabock, 1985; Woodman, 1993). A coach is a manager, buddy, planner, and motivator in addition to being an expert in a given subject.

Manager: Managers are seen as crucial to the success of an individual and/or an organization. Because research demonstrates that manager/coach behaviour has a direct influence on an athlete's performance, it is vital to hire the right management (Crust, 2006). A team or athlete's manager is in charge of making decisions for the team or athlete, and he or she is a crucial element of the team's operation. Managers are also in charge of personnel issues, policy formulation, developing skills, fitness training, and media affairs (Crust, 2006).

Friend: Coaches also strive to develop relationships with their athletes, even adopting them on occasion. They could offer encouragement and be a confidant to their athletes.

Planner: Coaches create techniques to help people reach their goals. Strength and conditioning and fitness coaches, for example, evaluate natural ability, arrange and create the substance of techniques and specially trained exercises (Crust, 2006), and plan and develop high intensity interval exercise performance to meet constant outcomes (Baechle, 2008).

Motivator: Coaches also aid as persuaders to assist athletes in reaching their full potential. Coaches use desired behaviours, such as trying to present options within the frame of reference of the sport's specific laws, legitimising duties and limitations, and admitting their athletes' moods (Mageau, 2003). These coaches instill in their athletes their exuberance for the sport. Persuaders are intended to empower and maintain a positive attitude in the face of hardship (Goleman, 1998). This mindset spreads, according to research, because these behaviour patterns increase an athlete's intrinsic motivation as well as identity types of external rewards incentive (Mageau, 2003).

The real sports supervisor must acknowledge the commercial nature value of his or her position (Perry, 2000). Although some theorists have attempted to differentiate among a supervisor and a leader by stressing the manager's organizational role and the leader's vision and direction (Weinberg & Gould, 2003), the role of a sports boss (see figure 6) obviously combines components of both. According to Beech (2002), the general opinion is that administration infers leadership, but that leaders do not have to be supervisors. Blair (1996) states that a supervisor's job is to increase the productivity of the organization by organizing, planning, staffing, directing, and regulating; leadership is merely one component of the guiding function. Because

coaching administration is fundamentally a profession that is likely to combine both leadership and mentoring errands, his paper sought to evaluate research findings from both the leadership and mentoring fields. The broader role of a coach/supervisor is outlined below.

Core responsibilities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • First team choice • Approaches of play • Gathering, upkeep of play squad
Prime tasks	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Club mentoring policy • Player discipline, fitness, preparation and well-being • Player development
Contributory tasks	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Appointment of assistant staff • Attendance at board meetings • Media dealings • Salary/contact of players • Club scouting policy • Club youth policy • Formulating match programme notes • General public connection/dealings

Figure 6: The Roles of a Coach/Manager (Perry, 2000)

According to Kilburg (1997), a coach's traits for a successful coaching outcome include respect, consideration, predictability, courteousness, empathy, friendliness, tact, non-defensiveness, knowledge, and skillfulness. The coach may need to be gentle and loving, or even playful, when urging a customer to grow, explore, or be engaged. Finally, the coach is accountable for ensuring that the customer participates fully in the mentoring procedure. By giving knowledge, skills, and technical assistance, the coach is also responsible for the customer's professional and personal development.

Coaches must be able to maintain the customer's care so that they can focus on the task at hand. Coaches must be knowledgeable, suitable, and actual in their application of mentoring skills, according to Kilburg (1997), because both coach and customer are always reflecting on and examining recital concerns.

According to Katz and Miller (1996), coaches must be cautious, sympathetic, and truthful, and practicality is another crucial trait, according to Diedrich (1996). Relatability, ease with senior management, empathy, customer orientation, uprightness, intellectual horsepower, interpersonal and political acumen, attentive and active listening abilities, scenario flexibility, and self-awareness are all important qualities (Kiel et al., 1996), good bond building, communication, organisation, problem-solving, and evaluation skills (Moodono, 2002), openness, coziness around top administration, compassion, customer attention, honesty, intelligent horsepower, interpersonal and political savvy, attentive and vigorous heeding skills, situation ability to adapt, and self (Brotman et al., 1998).

According to Wasylyshyn's (2003) level of studies, the capability to form a strong mentoring coalition, integrity, and the use of a distinct mentoring technique were named the top three coach qualities declared meaningful by officials partaking in a survey to determine customer responses to mentoring. Graham, Wedman, and Garvin-Kester (1994) discovered that setting clear recital goals, offering regular and meaningful comment, and forming a warm coach-client connection are all critical coaching abilities.

Coaching tasks comprise offering comment (Kampa, Kosesch & Anderson, 2001), forming a relationship, inspiring dedication, assisting in the

development of new abilities, enhancing tenacity toward goals, and incentivizing the customer to make the most use of available resources (Peterson, 1996). According to Witherspoon and White (1996a), the role of the executive coach is to help executives learn, grow, and change. This comprises skill development and performance coaching while remaining mindful of the official's objectives (Witherspoon & White, 1996a).

Consistency Between Perceived Leadership and Preferred Leadership in Sport

According to his multidimensional model of leadership, athlete satisfaction with their coaches' leadership behaviour is highest when the preferred leadership behaviour and perceived leadership behaviour are consistent (Chelladurai, 1984). In order to explore what constitutes excellent leadership behaviour in a certain context, it would be necessary to assess the strength of this link.

Chelladurai (1984) looked at the connection among athletes' contentment and their desired and perceived leadership styles. Players' happiness with leadership was better when their judgments of autocratic behaviour were lower. Furthermore, the players' gratification with leadership augmented as the coaches' perceived focus on training and directions augmented. When the athletes' perception of monocratic behaviour from their coaches was identical to their choice, they were at their happiest; nevertheless, when the notion was that the players felt too much higher or too little, their happiness plummeted. Surprisingly, the athletes articulated happiness even when the coach's Helpful Comment beavers surpassed their expectations. According to Chelladurai, upcoming research should look into leadership

traits and gratification measurements in relation to certain quantifiable measurements of huge performance.

According to Barrow (1977: 232), leadership is "the predictive of persuading people and groups to achieve predetermined objectives." This notion is significant because it stresses a leader's vision (i.e., goals and objectives) while simultaneously acknowledging the importance of interaction among the leader and group affiliates. The act of leadership entails persuasion and conversion of others into 'supportors' (Tannenbaum, Wechsler & Massarik, 1961). Coercion, persuasion, and manipulation can all be used to accomplish this. Leadership necessitates an understanding or respect for the power relationship among the influencer and the supporter. According to the connection, every act among the two parties is a 'political act,' with the potential for coercion (Miller, 1985).

According to researchers (Bloom, Schinke, & Salmela, 1998; Martens, 1990), athlete-coach interpersonal interactions are complicated, and this complication is likely to outspread to athlete-manager relationships. Supervisors that are incapable to adequately communicate with their players may unintentionally worsen difficulties due to their own absence of understanding. It may be essential to bring in professional sports psychology experts to the team to promote both sides' reflection to strengthen the athlete-coach relationship. Beyond the superficial and retroactive lay-perspective that tends to judge success in terms of success, it is vital to comprehend leadership. Some sports, particularly those with limited resources, may define success by their ability to maintain their existing position (i.e. evading demotion to a lower division).

As reported by Weinberg and Gould (2003), leaders often have two roles: (i) ensuring that the demands of the organisation (club) are fulfilled by the team setting achieving its goals, and (ii) ensuring that the requirements of group affiliates are met. Those in charge of hiring leaders / managers must ensure that the club's ideals and goals are compatible with the prospective leader's as well as that the leader's and group affiliates' (players') characteristics are not incompatible. To be successful in today's business world, businesses must have outstanding leadership. Without it, organisations cannot function properly or fulfill their goals and ambitions. The leader's duty and capacity to ensure that his or her employees meet company objectives and standards determines effective leadership. In this study, the role of leadership as a contributor to contemporary organizational performance will be critically investigated. Rather than being born, effective leaders are developed. If a person has the passion and ambition to succeed, they have the potential to be successful leaders. A never-ending cycle of education, training, and knowledge helps leaders develop.

To urge people to work harder, a leader must be, know, and do a few things. These are not natural abilities; they must be earned through hard work and study. Powerful leaders are those who are frequently working and researching to advance their leadership panaches and abilities (Weinberg & Gould, 2003).

Summary

In this study, numerous writers defined leadership from various perspectives. During individual and organisational interaction, one of the most active consequences is leadership. This implies that management's ability to

carry out a collaborative project is dependent on leadership. An effective leader, as stated in Lee and Chuang (2009), not only motivates subordinates to increase their proficiency, but also meets their needs while achieving organisational objectives. Fry (2003) goes on to define leadership as the application of a leading strategy to motivate employees and maximize their potential for growth and development. For a variety of reasons, there is a relationship between idealized influence, contentment, and performance. To accomplish a goal, a leader must use authority, power, personal qualities, vision, and social skills. A leader directs, guides, and supervises his subordinates' efforts to modify an organization's behaviour.

Leadership theories were also discussed in this chapter. As general theories of leadership, trait theory, behavioural theories, the skill approach to leadership, and the contingency or situational theory were considered. According to the attribute idea, people are born with certain qualities and attributes that help them lead better. Trait theories usually identify leaders as having specific personality or behavioural features in common. The behavioural hypothesis, on the other hand, is built on the idea that outstanding leaders are made, not born. This behaviourist leadership model emphasizes leaders' actions rather than their mental features or emotional feelings. People can learn to lead by being taught and observed, according to this viewpoint (Wagner, 2008). Furthermore, the skill approach to leadership considers the leader's knowledge and abilities. A leader may develop learning skills and develop into a fantastic leader. Despite their differences in focus, the qualities approach and the skills method both concentrate on the leader as the primary goal (Katz, 1955). The topic of general leadership theories came to a close

with a consideration of contingency or situational theory. The concept focuses on environmental elements that may aid in determining which leadership style is most suited for a certain situation. In line with this theory, there is no such thing as a one-size-fits-all leadership style that is effective in all situations. The leadership styles, followers, and circumstances all play a role in the success of a leader (Fiedler, 1967).

Sport-specific leadership theories such as the mediational model of coaching leadership, the normative model of coaching decision styles, and the multidimensional model of leadership were also reviewed. The mediational model of coaching leadership evaluates and defines the connection among what coaches do, how their actions are seen and remembered by their players, and how youngsters feel about the situation (Smoll & Smith, 1989). Chelladurai and Haggerty (1978) constructed a normative model of decision styles in sport backgrounds, building on the work of Vroom and others. In this study, the second sport-specific leadership model is mentioned. They did not employ five decision styles like Vroom, Chelladurai, and Haggerty did. Instead, they used three decision-making methods: monocratic, participatory, and delegative. The monocratic style is when the coach makes the decision on his or her own. When a group of people makes a decision, it is called participatory decision-making. When coaches delegate decision-making obligations to others, such as deputy coaches and players, they are using the delegative decision style.

The MML, which was adopted and employed in this study, is the most important sport-specific leadership model. Chelladurai (1978, 1990, and 1993) developed the MML to provide a conceptual framework for researching

organizational efficiency in the sports industry. According to Chelladurai, successful leadership is dynamic and requires a complex network of interactions among the leader, group affiliates, and situational limitations. When the leaders' real leadership, the group's impression of leadership, and what is required in the scenario are all aligned, positive outcomes are predicted by the model.

Finally, there was a discussion of research on coach leadership and athlete gratification. The LSS was designed to evaluate coach-specific behaviours, such as athletes' preferences for behaviour patterns, athletes' perceptions of their coaches' behaviour, and coaches' perceptions of their own behaviour and attitude. The LSS has five dimensions: training and instructions, democratic behaviour, monocratic attitudes, social backing, and helpful comment (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1980). According to Chelladurai and Riemer (1998) athlete satisfaction is crucial for three reasons. To begin with, an athlete's enjoyment of his or her sport should be intrinsically connected to that sport's recital. For instance, a happy athlete will put forth greater determination and perseverance during a rivalry.

The second reason for athlete pleasure is that it can be realised as a forerunner or consequence in the conceptual frameworks of other concepts, such as performance. The third reason is that in sports programmes, athletic happiness is a top priority, which is relevant to the study's goal.

Chelladurai and Riemer (1998) developed the Athletes Satisfaction Questionnaire (ASQ) to measure athlete satisfaction and performance. In the proposed paradigm, satisfaction was measured using training and directions gratification, personal treatment gratification, team recital gratification, and

personal recital gratification.

Apart from the literature gap that this study intends to fill, it will also provide correlational studies on coaching leadership behaviour and athletes satisfaction in the Ashanti Region of Ghana.



CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODS

The purpose of the study was to examine coaches' leadership behaviour as perceived by SHS athletes and how these perceptions influence the athletes' satisfaction in the Ashanti Region of Ghana. This chapter focused on the research design, study area, population, sampling procedure, data collection instruments, data collection procedures and data processing and analysis.

Research Design

The positivist philosophy guided this research. Positivist philosophy relies on hypothetico- deductive method to verify a priori hypotheses that often stated quantitatively, where functional relationships can be derived between causal and explanatory factors (independent variables) and outcome (depend variables) (Park, Konge & Artino, 2020; Ponterotto, 2005). A descriptive cross-sectional survey design was used in this research. The descriptive cross-sectional survey design was selected for this current study because it has the benefit of generating a huge number of reactions from a diverse group of people in one study, as well as delivering an expressive image of events and attempting to make clear people's viewpoints and doings through using data collected (Kuranchie, 2021). The researcher needed to have clear viewpoints on leadership behaviour of coaches from divergent group of people hence had to rely on descriptive cross sectional survey design. Additionally, the design is specifically suitable for this study because the researcher is fascinated in describing some aspect of a population by selecting unbiased sample of respondents. The data generated from interviews,

questionnaires and observations are organised and presented in a systematic manner so that good conclusions can be made (Kuranchie, 2021). Finally, this design is concerned with existing situations or interactions, such as determining practices, aptitudes, and opinions, ongoing processes, or emerging trends (Best & Khan, 1998). The flaw in this approach is that it is unable to assess the amount to which one aspect influences changes in another.

Study Area

Only SHS students in Ghana's Ashanti Region were included in the study. This research focused on student athletes in years 1 to 3. The Ashanti Region is the third largest of Ghana's sixteen administrative regions in terms of size, located in southern Ghana. It is Ghana's second most populous area, accounting for 17.64 percent of the nation's overall population, according to the 2021 population and housing census. In the heart of Ghana's central belt, is the Ashanti Region. The area is bordered by the Bono, Bono East, and Ahafo Regions in the North, the Eastern Region in the East, the Central Region in the South, and the Western Region in the South west. Each of the 24 districts, 18 Municipalities, and one Metropolitan has its own chief executive. The Komfo Anokye Sword site, Manhyia palace museum, Kumasi fort, Military museum, Armed Forces Museum, Prempeh II Jubilee museum, Yaa Asantewaa Museum, and Lake Bosomtwe are only a few of the historic monuments in the region. There are 162 SHS in the Region (Office of the Regional Sports, 2019 Sports report).

The SHS used in this study are Dompase SHS, T.I. Ahmadiyya SHS Fomena, Osei Tutu SHS, Yaa Asantewaa Girls' SHS, Jachie Pramso SHS,

Adventist SHS, Anglican SHS, Asanteman SHS, Dwamena Akenten SHS, Toase SHS, Ghana Armed Forces SHS, KNUST SHS, Kumasi Academy, Kumasi Girls' SHS, Kumasi High School, Kumasi Senior High Technical School, Opoku Ware School, Osei Kyeretwie SHS, Pentecost SHS, Prempeh College, T.I. Ahmadiyya SHS Kumasi, Aduman SHS, Akumadan SHS, Effiduase SHS, Dadease Agriculture SHS, Adu Gyamfi SHS, Ejisu Secondary Technical School, Namong SHS, Agona SDA SHS, Konadu Yiadom SHS, Obuasi Secondary Technical School, Okomfo Anokye Secondary, Bonwire SHTS, Tapa SHS, Mankranso SHS, Bekwai SDA SHS, St. Hubert Seminary SHS, New Edubiase SHS, Amaniampong SHS, Islamic SHS Kumasi, Mpasatia SHTS, Kofi Adjei SHS, Sekyedumase SHTS, Sakafia Islamic Senior High, St. Michael's Senior High Ahenkro, Tweneboa Kodua Senior High, Barekese Senior High, Al-Azariya Islamic Snr. High, Kumasi and Kumasi Wesley Girls' High School. The decision to use student athletes is built on the fact that during intramural and intermural sports and games, students interact and socialize with the coaches/PE professors.

Population

The population for the reasearch comprised all Senior High School Athletes (males and females) in Ashanti Region of Ghana. There are 162 SHS in Ashanti Region (Regional PE Coordinator, 2019 Sports report. Ashanti Regional Sports) whose students participated in the interschool sports competitions. The choice of student athletes is influenced by the reason that, these athletes are trained by PE teachers/coaches and may be satisfied with their leadership behaviour and performance or not. There are 16,200 athletes (8,100 males and 8,100 females) who participate in the interschool sports

competition each year in both games and athletics (Office of the Regional PE Coordinator 2019 sports report). The games and sports disciplines include: soccer, volleyball, handball, basketball, table tennis, field hockey and all events in track and field that are done by both males and females. About 50% of the student athletes were males, while 50% were females. Both males and females had equal representation because athletes are selected to participate in sports on equal bases.

Sampling Procedure

A sample size of 1,002 respondents (501 males and 501 females) was selected from the Ashanti Regional inter-school sports competition held in 2019/2020 academic year. The 1,002 student athletes were selected from 50 out of 162 SHS in Ashanti Region that participate in inter-school sports and games competitions. Fifty (50) out of 162 SHS was selected because the study is a survey and, therefore, need to measure a wide range of data from the population as suggested by Kuranchie (2021). Equal subjects (males and females) were selected on the basis that, the same number of males and females are selected to partake in all the sports events.

The sample size decision was influenced by Cohen's (1992) thesis that "the most important factor is that the sample drawn from the population must be suggestive such that the researcher can draw assumptions or inferences from the sample statistics to the population understudied." It will be difficult to offer reliable responses to the study questions if the sample size is too small. If the sample size is excessively huge, time and resources may be wasted regularly for no reason. As a result, the power of a sample is determined by its ability to obtain the necessary data from a small number of

respondents in order to describe the features of the entire population.

Table 1: Characteristics of the Sample Schools from the Five Zones

Zones	No. of schools	No. of males' schools	No. of females' schools	Sample size		High performers	Low performers
				Males	Females		
1	32	30	31	100	99	50%	50%
2	31	28	31	94	99	50%	50%
3	33	30	32	100	102	50%	50%
4	34	32	33	107	105	50%	50%
5	32	30	30	100	96	50%	50%
Total	162	150	157	501	501		
Grand Total				1002			

Table 2: Characteristics of Males and Females in the Five Zones

Zone	No. of males' schools		Total no. of males' school	No. of females' schools		Total no. of females' school
	single	mixed		single	mixed	
1	1	29	30	2	29	31
2	0	28	28	4	28	32
3	1	29	30	3	29	31
4	1	31	32	2	31	33
5	2	28	30	2	28	30
Total			150			157

One hundred and fifty seven (157) females' schools had 501 respondents, therefore using simple proportion, 31 females' schools in zone one was $\frac{31 \times 501}{157} = 98.9$. This means 99 respondents from zone one were from females' schools. Same was used to calculate for the rest of the females' schools and the males schools as well. Simple proportion was used in order to

obtain proportional representation of athletes from each zone.

One hundred and sixty two SHS in Ashanti Region were put into five subgroups (strata) called zones with stratified sampling technique. Ten (10) schools were selected from each zone using fish bowl approach of the simple random sampling.

According to Fraenkel and Wallen (2009), stratified sampling increases the possibility of representativeness and nearly ensures that key features of persons in the population are represented in the same proportions in the sample, it was employed to choose the athletes. The population was heterogeneous, therefore, stratified sampling was used to ensure that all subgroups were represented in the sample. The sample from each stratum can be proportionate or disproportionate to the size of the samples (Sarantakos, 2005). For instance in this study, there was the need for equal representation of zones, males and females, high and low performers (in terms of those who qualify or not to athletics super zonal or from group stages of various games), and schools. After stratifying the athletes into strata to ensure equal representation of the above categories, each athlete in the schools from the zones was given the opportunity to be chosen for the study by selecting a label "yes" or "no" using the fish bowl method of simple random sampling. Those who said yes were randomly selected for the study. To ensure that all affiliates of the various strata had the same chance of being chosen, simple random sampling was used (Creswell, 2014).

Data Collection Instruments

Chelladurai and Saleh's Leadership Scale for Sports (LSS) and Chelladurai and Riemer's athletes' satisfaction questionnaire were used in the

study. The demographic questions made up the first section of the questionnaire (Age, sex, school, zone, class, and discipline). The second component of the questionnaire was based on Chelladurai and Saleh's (1980) adapted version of LSS, while the third section was based on adapted version of Chelladurai and Riemer's Athletes' Satisfaction Questionnaire (1998).

An adapted version of the Leadership Scale for Sport (LSS) was used to determine the leadership practices of coaches (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1980). The LSS is founded on the Multidimensional Leadership Model (MML). When attempting to comprehend the conclusions of studies in the sports field, the MML is frequently used (Chelladurai, 1984). The LSS, established by Chelladurai and Saleh (1980), is widely regarded as one of the most comprehensive methods to sports leadership research. The LSS evaluates athletes' impressions of their coach, preferred leadership behaviour, and coaches' perceptions about themselves and has three components (Whalley, 2003). Only the athletes' perceived leadership behaviour was adapted from the three facets on the LSS for the purpose of this study.

The original LSS is divided into five (5) subscales that assess a coach's decision-making style (Democratic and Autocratic), motivating tendencies (Social Backing and Helpful Comment), and instructional behaviour (Training and Direction). Two of the five dimensions of leadership behaviour are training and direction (13 items). This aims to increase an athlete's recital by accentuating and facilitating hard and demanding training, teaching them about the sport's talents, methods, and strategies, defining team affiliates' relationships, and structuring and controlling the team's operations (Vaughan, 2017), democratic conduct (9 items). This gave athletes more voice in team

goals, practice methods, and game strategies and plans, as well as autocratic conduct (Driscoll, 2000) and autocratic behaviour (5 items). This includes coaching behaviour that stresses personal power and independence in decision-making (Moen, Hoigaard, & Peters, 2014), as well as social support behaviour (8 items) which describes coaching behaviour that prioritizes the well-being of specific athletes, a positive group climate, and interpersonal relationships with teammates (Moen, Hoigaard & Peters, 2014), and positive comment (5 items) - refers to the coaching behaviours that use acknowledgment and rewards to promote positive performance (Vaughan, 2017).

On a five-point Likert scale, the questionnaire comprised 40 items: 1 (strongly disagree), 2 (disagree), 3 (undecided), 4 (agree), and 5 (strongly agree) (strongly agree). Twenty-nine (29) of the forty (40) items were adapted or modified to suit the subjects in this study. Alpha values as measures of internal consistency were reported as markers of the LSS's reliability from athletes' perceived leadership in a study of Canadian athletes (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1980). Training and Instruction received a 0.93, Democratic Behaviour 0.87, Monocratic Behaviour 0.59, Social Backing 0.86, and Helpful Comment of 0.92. The above values are much higher than the 0.70 suggested by Nunnally and Bernstein (1994) to be good to collect data with the exception of autocratic behaviour. Over the past 40 years the LSS has been slightly adapted by sports leadership researchers, though the major themes remain constant. Both the theory and tool are believed to be reliable and have strong validity (Duda, 1998). The LSS and its variety of different approaches, the Revised Leadership Scale for Sport (RLSS), have been used in a number of studies,

though there are several inconsistencies that have been recognized and documented by researchers who use the tools (Whalley, 2003). Few words were modified to suit the subjects apart from the 29 out of 40 items chosen for this study. For example, season was changed to interschool and colleges season.

Athlete gratification was measured using a modified version of Riemer and Chelladurai's Athletes Satisfaction Questionnaire (ASQ). The Athlete Satisfaction Questionnaire (ASQ) is a 56-item survey that includes 15 gratification categories for athletes. Some of the subscales include individual recital (3 items), team recital (3 items), capability utilization (5 items), tactic (6 items), personal treatment (5 items), training and Direction (3 items), team duty involvement (3 items), team social contribution (3 items), ethics (3 items), team amalgamation (4 items), personal dedication (4 items), budget (3 items), medical personnel (4 items), academic backing services (3 items), and outside agent (4 items). The ASQ is a 7-point Likert scale that was modified for this study to a 5-point Likert scale. ASQ covers important aspects of sports involvement, recital (individual and team), leadership, team, organization, and athlete (Riemer & Chelladurai, 1998). Internal validity and reliability are assumed to exist. For the facets to be measured, the internal consistency coefficients Cronbach's alpha are 0.92 for ability utilization, 0.94 for strategy, 0.92 for personal treatment, 0.85 for individual performance, and 0.95 for team performance.

The above values are much higher than the 0.70 suggested by Nunnally and Bernstein (1994) to be good to collect data. The 5- point Likert scale differs slightly from the original ASQ. The original ASQ was based on a

7- point Likert scale but in order to reduce confusion for athletes it was adapted to a 5- Likert scale to match the RLSS (Whalley, 2003). The following is how the ASQ is graded: 'Not at all satisfied' is number 1. 2'satisfied to a degree' 3'satisfied in a reasonable way' 4 'extremely satisfied,' 5 'very satisfied'. To conceptualise coach leadership behaviour, twenty-one (21) items of the fifty six (56) items and also five (5) of the fifteen (15) subscales were adapted for this study. In all, 50- item questionnaire was formulated.

The 50-item questionnaire was identified as follows: Training and instruction were scored by items 4,9,18,22 and 28, items 2,8,13,23 and 26 all scored autocratic behaviour of the coach from the LSS, items 5,11,16,21,25 and 27 scored social support behaviour of the coach from the LSS and items 1,6,10,12,15,17 and 20 all scored democratic behaviour of the coach from the LSS and positive feedback behaviour was scored by items 3,7,14,19,24 and 29. The third section measured athletes' satisfaction and performance which was split into five separate sub sections. These were ability utilization which was measured in items 30,37,41,45 and 48, Strategy was measured in items 34,39,42,46 and 49, items 33,38,43,47, and 50 measured personal treatment, items 31,35 and 40 measured individual performance and Team performance was measured by items 32,36 and 44.

For easy interpretation of the instrument used for the study, a Mean score greater than three (3) was perceived largely by student- athletes whilst a Mean score less than three (3) was perceived as not utilized. The two extreme options for the ASQ were collapsed for meaningful interpretation. For example, not at all satisfied and slightly satisfied merged as not satisfied and very satisfied and extremely satisfied as satisfied. The higher the mean value

on a dimension, the more it was perceived. For instance, 1 to 2.4 was not satisfied, 2.5 to 3.4 was moderately satisfied and greater than 3.5 was satisfied.

Validity and reliability of instrument

The instrument's face and content authentication were determined by the researcher's supervisors and other specialists at the University of Cape Coast's Department of Health, Physical Education, and Recreation in Cape Coast. They assessed, measured quantity, and coverage and found it is suitability for measuring coaches' leadership behaviour on athletes' satisfaction. The researcher administered the instrument at five selected SHS in Techiman and Nkoranza, both in the Bono East Region, to determine its content validity and reliability. The test-retest procedure and Cronbach's alpha were used to determine the study instrument's reliability. The test retest reliability co-efficient of the sub-scales were 0.813 and 0.895 for LSS and ASQ respectively. The figures confirm the content validity and reliability of the instrument.

Pilot Study

The researcher pre-tested the questionnaire at selected five SHS in Techiman and Nkoranza in Ghana's Bono East Region to establish its psychometric qualities. Students in grades one through three (3) were required to answer to the instrument. The instrument drew a total of 100 responses (50 females and 50 males). The instrument's test-retest reliability was ascertained. The first and second administrations of the instrument were separated by two weeks to assess the instrument's stability over time. Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was used to determine the correlation

between the two sets of scores for the total items and subscales on the instrument. The internal consistency of the responses was also assessed using a Cronbach's alpha.

Table 3: Reliability Statistics for Leadership Behaviour and Athletes Satisfaction

Variables	Pilot study (n=100)		Main data (n=1002)	
	No. of items	Cronbach's Alpha	No. of items	Cronbach's Alpha
Leadership behaviours	29	.813	29	.759
Satisfaction	21	.895	21	.843

Results from Table 3 indicates that 29 items from 5 subscales of leadership scale of sports (LSS) were pilot studied to test their efficacy and to determine whether the items are clear to respondents. The Cronbach alpha was 0.813 which shows that the items were suitable to student athletes and had content validity and reliability. Cronbach alpha for satisfaction was 0.895. The figure is from 5 subscales of athlete satisfaction questionnaire (ASQ). This demonstrates that the items are appropriate to be used by student athletes. The above values are much higher than the 0.70 suggested by Nunnally and Bernstein (1994) to be good to collect data.

A pilot research was required to confirm that respondents understood the items, instructions, and answer scales. It also assisted in the removal of material that could offend or harm respondents. The feedback received from respondents was used to improve and revise the final instruments (Kuranchie, 2021).

Data Collection Procedures

Ethical standards were applied in the conduct of the study before distributing the questionnaire. The researcher requested endorsement from the University of Cape Coast's Institutional Review Board (IRB). Before any data was collected, permission was obtained by UCC's IRB (Refer to Appendix E). The study's main data collection tool was a questionnaire. This information was gathered from student athletes in SHS Ashanti Region Ghana. A letter of introduction from the Head of Department, Health, Physical Education and Recreation (HPER) and IRB, UCC was addressed to the Regional P.E. Coordinator and forwarded to the heads of the sampled schools to give easy access to the student athletes.

The researcher was in charge of administering the questionnaire. Two research assistants were hired to assist with the distribution of the questionnaires. Four (4) days were used to train the assistants. The researcher explained thoroughly all fifty (50) items of the questionnaire to the assistants. They asked questions which were answered carefully and correctly to avoid any misunderstanding. These assistants were taken through how to administer the questionnaire to an extent that even in the absence of the researcher, they could administer it on their own. The assistants helped to avoid the situation where students would discuss the questionnaire and produce the same responses. In addition, the assistants helped in quickly collecting the questionnaires after they have been completed. In effect, all the questionnaires were retrieved the same day after the student athletes had completed them. It took students 25 to 30 minutes to respond to the questionnaire. The questionnaires were administered within three months from 15th November,

2019 to 15th February, 2020.

Data Processing and Analysis

Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 25 was used to evaluate the information. To evaluate the information, the researcher employed descriptive statistics (means and standard deviations), multivariate multiple linear regression, and multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA).

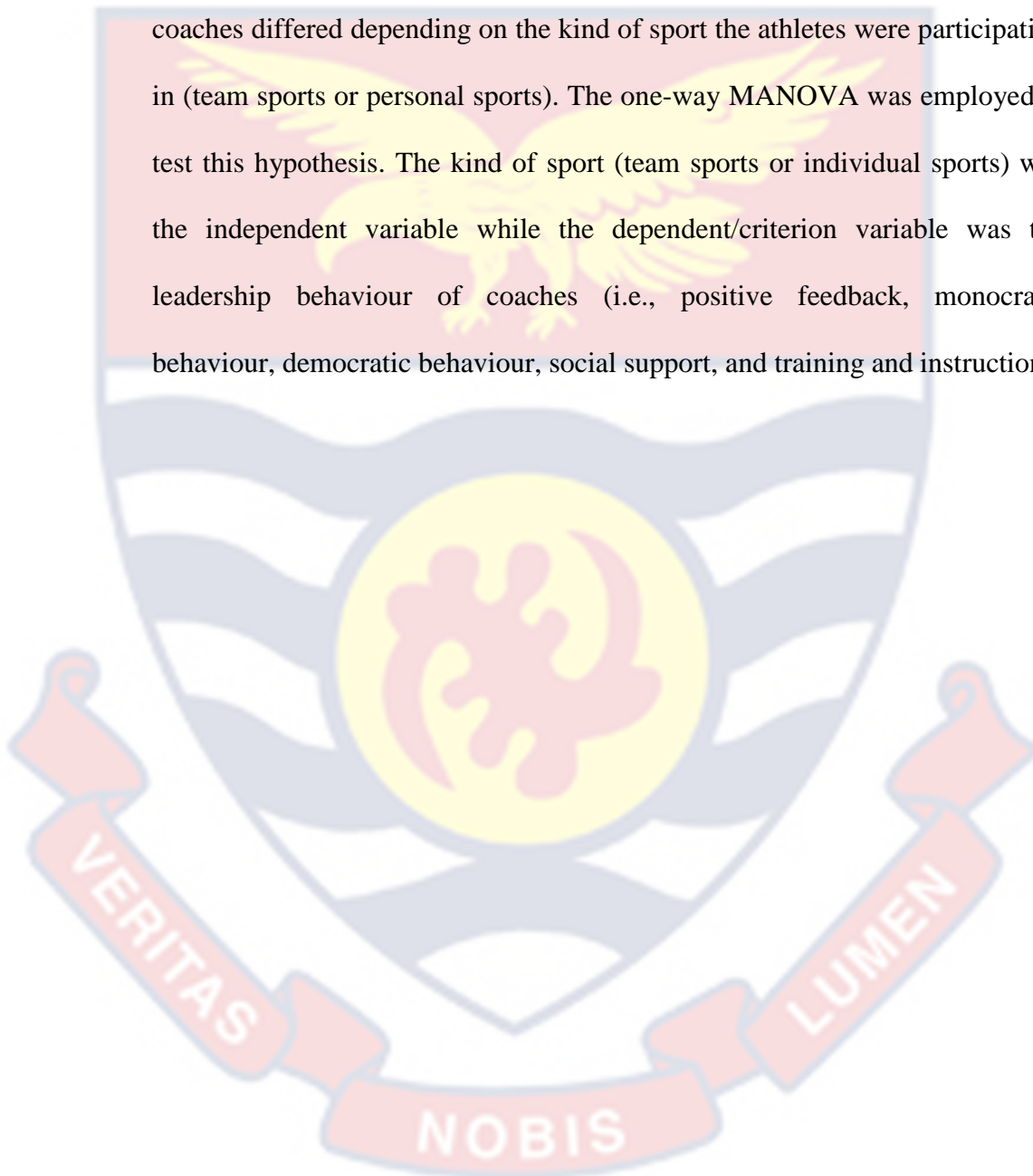
For research question one, which aimed at examining the perceived leadership behaviours used by coaches of SHS athletes in the Ashanti Region of Ghana, descriptive statistics (means and standard deviations) was used in the examination. Similarly, descriptive statistics (means and standard deviations) were used to analyze the question two on the level of gratification of SHS athletes in the Ashanti Region of Ghana.

The research question three sought to examine whether perceived coaches' leadership behaviour will have a constructive influence on SHS athletes' gratification in the Ashanti Region of Ghana. The multivariate multiple linear regression was carried out to examine this question. The predictor variable was coaches' leadership behaviour (with 5 sub-dimensions, namely positive feedback, democratic behaviour, training and instruction, autocratic conduct, and social support) whereas the criterion variable was athletes' satisfaction (with 5 sub-scales which include ability utilisation, strategy, personal treatment, individual performance, and team performance).

The study's first hypothesis was to see if male and female athletes' perceptions of coaches' leadership behaviour differed. A one-way MANOVA was used to test this hypothesis. The independent variable was the sex of the

SHS athletes, while the dependent/criterion variable was the coaches' leadership behaviour (i.e., positive comment, monocratic behaviour, democratic behaviour, social backing, and training and direction).

The second hypothesis was to see if the leadership behaviour of SHS coaches differed depending on the kind of sport the athletes were participating in (team sports or personal sports). The one-way MANOVA was employed to test this hypothesis. The kind of sport (team sports or individual sports) was the independent variable while the dependent/criterion variable was the leadership behaviour of coaches (i.e., positive feedback, monocratic behaviour, democratic behaviour, social support, and training and instruction).



CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The purpose of the study was to investigate coaches' leadership behaviour as perceived by SHS athletes and how these perceptions influence athletes' satisfaction in the Ashanti Region of Ghana. The present chapter deals with the presentation, interpretation and discussion of the results built on the research questions and hypotheses. This segment is done in three sections; the first section presents descriptive statistics of the demographic features of the respondents, followed by the consequences in response to the research questions and hypotheses as well as the discussions of the results in relation to literature.

Background Characteristics of the Respondents

Out of 162 schools that participated in inter-school competitions in Ashanti Region, 50 schools representing 30.86% were sampled for the study. Information on sex, age distribution, and the type of event/discipline the athletes engaged in (team or individual sports) were collected from the student athletes. The participants' background information was not used in the primary analysis. The drive for the inclusion of the background information of respondents was to provide some general information about respondents. The data on respondents are displayed using frequencies and percentages in Table 4.

Table 4: Background Characteristics of Respondents

Variable	Sub-scale	Frequency	Percentage
Gender distribution	Male	501	50.00
	Female	501	50.00
Age distribution	Below 16years	82	8.20
	Between 16-18years	729	72.70
	Above 18years	191	19.10
Type of event/discipline	Team sports	676	67.5
	Individual sports	326	32.5

Source: Field data, 2020 (n=1002)

Table 4 shows that, out of 1,002 student athletes, 501 representing 50% were boys while 501 representing 50% were girls, suggesting an equal representation of gender. Again, the majority of the student athletes, seven hundred and twenty-nine (729) representing 72.70% were within the age group of 16-18years, 192 of them representing 19% were above 18years while 82 representing 8.2% of them were below 16years. The data also showed that 676 student athletes representing 67.5% participate in team sports (e.g., football, volleyball, hockey, and handball) while 326 athletes representing 32.5% participate in individual sports (e.g., track events in athletics, table tennis and pole vault).

Research Question One: Which leadership Behaviours are Used by Coaches of SHS in the Ashanti Region of Ghana as Perceived by the Athletes?

The focus of this research question was to identify the perceived coaches' leadership behaviours by student athletes. On a five-point Likert scale, the student athletes reported on the perceived leadership behaviours of their PE teacher/coaches. The data were evaluated using means and standard deviation. The mean was used to identify the most perceived coaches'

leadership behaviour by student athletes. Mean scores greater than 3.0 for a particular leadership behaviour showed that the leadership behaviour in question was perceived by the student athletes as largely used whereas mean scores less than 3.0 demonstrated that the leadership behaviour of coaches was perceived by the students as not utilized. The degree to which coaches' leadership behaviour was perceived by the SHS athletes' ranges from values between 3.0 to 5.0. The outcomes are presented in Table 5.

Table 5: Leadership Behaviours of Coaches Perceived by SHS Athletes

Variable	Mean	SD	Rank
Positive feedback (PF)	4.53	.53	1
Training and instructions (TI)	4.50	.51	2
Social support behaviour (SS)	4.17	.75	3
Democratic behaviour (DB)	3.63	.84	4
Autocratic behaviour (AB)	2.77	.84	5
Average Means/SD	4.01	.45	--

Source: Field data, 2020

The results in Table 5 showed that SHS athletes held the perception that the coaches demonstrated a variety of leadership behaviours, such as positive feedback (M= 4.53, SD= .53), training and instruction (M= 4.50, SD=.51), social support behaviours (M= 4.17, SD= .75), and democratic behaviours (M= 3.63, SD= .84), except for autocratic behaviours (M= 2.77, SD= .85). However, some of the perceived leadership behaviours of coaches were more dominant than others. For example, it was found that positive comment was the most perceived coaches' leadership behaviours by SHS athletes. This outcome was followed by training and instruction and social support behaviour respectively. However, democratic leadership behaviour

was the least perceived leadership characteristics by the coaches.

Research Question Two: What is the Perceived Level of Satisfaction among SHS Athletes in the Ashanti Region of Ghana?

The study also examined the satisfaction level of SHS athletes in the Ashanti Region of Ghana. The participants responded to a number of items regarding their satisfaction on the following dimensions: utilization ability, approach, personal conduct, individual performance, and team performance. The responses were given using a five-point scale ranging from not at all satisfied (with a value of 1) to extremely satisfied (with a value of 5); a high score indicates a high level of satisfaction and a low score representing otherwise. For the meaningful interpretation, the two extreme options on the scale were collapsed. That is, not at all satisfied and slightly satisfied were merged as –not satisfied and very satisfied and extremely satisfied were collapsed and named –satisfied. The moderately satisfied option was maintained. Accordingly, mean scores ranging from 1 to 2.4 depicted that the participants were not satisfied, mean scores from 2.5 to 3.4 showed moderate satisfaction of the respondents and values greater than 3.5 represented respondents who were satisfied. Table 6 shows the data in greater detail.

Table 6: Satisfaction Level of SHS Athletes

Dimensions	Mean	SD	Rank	Remark
Personal treatment from coaches	4.49	.60	1 st	Satisfied
Strategy of coaches	4.32	.70	2 nd	Satisfied
Ability utilization	4.29	.71	3 rd	Satisfied
Individual performance	4.22	.78	4 th	Satisfied
Team performance	4.02	1.04	5 th	Satisfied
Overall Satisfaction	4.28	.63	--	

Source: Field data, 2020

The outcomes, as presented in Table 6 indicate that the SHS athletes were generally satisfied with the personal treatment from coaches ($M=4.49$, $SD=.60$), strategy from their coaches ($M=4.32$, $SD=.70$), their ability utilization ($M=4.29$, $SD=.71$), their individual performance ($M=4.22$, $SD=.78$) and team performance ($M=4.02$, $SD=1.04$). Although the athletes were satisfied with the various aspects of their roles, there were varying degrees of satisfaction. For instance, the SHS athletes showed a great level of satisfaction with personal treatment from coaches than any other dimension. The next two dimensions which the athletes were satisfied with include the strategy of coaches and ability utilization. The least satisfaction was with the individual performance and team performance.

Research Question Three: What is the Relationship between Perceived Coaches' Leadership Behaviours and SHS Athletes Satisfaction in the Ashanti Region of Ghana?

This research question sought to examine whether perceived coaches' leadership behaviour will have a positive influence on SHS athletes' satisfaction in the Ashanti Region of Ghana. The multivariate multiple linear regression was carried out to examine this research question. Coaches' responsible leadership was the predictor variable, which had five sub-dimensions: positive feedback, democratic behaviour, training and instructions, autocratic behaviour, and social support. Athletes' satisfaction with five sub-scales, including ability usage, strategy, personal treatment, individual performance, and team performance, was the criterion variable. The analysis was preceded by a number of assumptions which include multivariate normality, autocorrelation, multivariate outliers, linearity, multicollinearity and singularity.

The residual plots showed random dispersion of data points for the combination of the variables mostly found in the centre of the cells. This provided some evidence of the non-violation of the multivariate normality and autocorrelation assumptions (see Appendix B). The residual plots, however, showed some evidence of multivariate outliers becoming a starting point for further investigation. The Mahalanobis distance examination was directed to investigate the extent and proportion of outliers present in the dataset. Table 7 presents the results of the Mahalanobis distance analysis.

Table 7: Residuals Statistics

	Min.	Max.	Mean	SD	N
Predicted Value	419.41	638.17	501.50	28.80	1002
Std. Predicted Value	-2.85	4.75	.00	1.00	1002
Standard Error of Predicted Value	9.97	59.01	20.64	8.54	1002
Adjusted Predicted Value	411.27	643.05	501.56	29.04	1002
Residual	-544.70	523.28	.00	287.96	1002
Std. Residual	-1.89	1.81	.00	.99	1002
Stud. Residual	-1.90	1.82	.00	1.00	1002
Deleted Residual	-550.42	528.85	-.06	289.70	1002
Stud. Deleted Residual	-1.899	1.82	.00	1.00	1002
Mahal. Distance	.196	40.83	4.99	5.64	1002
Cook's Distance	.000	.01	.001	.002	1002
Centered Leverage Value	.000	.04	.005	.006	1002

The critical value for Mahal. Distance for 5 DV is 20.52

Source: Field Data, 2020

The results from the Mahalanobis distance examination revealed a minimum value of .196 and a maximum value of 40.83. Pallant (2010) presented a critical value table for judging the extent of outliers and indicated that, for analysis with 5 criterion variables, a critical value of 20.52 should be

used for the interpretation. Based on this criterion, the maximum value of 40.83 from the analysis was compared with the critical value of 20.52. Since the maximum value from the analysis was greater than the critical value, there was evidence of outliers. Further investigation showed that there were nine cases of outliers which represented 0.9% of the entire dataset. The outlier representation was very few and thus, they were retained. This was done in line with the suggestion of Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) that multivariate analysis is able to tolerate some level of outliers.

To test for linearity, a scatter plot matrix was used. Figure 8 presents the results (see appendix B). The results for the linearity assumption, as displayed in Figure 8, showed that there was the presence of a straight-line association among the criterion variables of the study. As a result, there was no violation of the linearity assumption. Table 8 shows the findings under the final assumption (multicollinearity and singularity).

Testing for the multicollinearity and singularity assumptions required a correlation matrix to assess whether these assumptions were violated or not. From the results on the correlation matrix in Table 8, it can be observed that the relationship among the sub-dimensions of the criterion variable ranged from .322 to .668. A closer look at the coefficients suggests that the majority of the coefficients showed a moderate relationship among the combination of any two of the variables. Besides, all the relationships showed a significant p-value. In effect, the linearity assumption was not violated.

The main analysis was carried out when all of the assumptions supporting the usage of multivariate multiple regression analysis were satisfied. Due to the number of sub-dimensions of criterion variable for this

Table 8: Correlation Matrix of the Variables in the Study

ID	Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1.	Positive feedback	1									
2.	Democratic behaviour	.349**	1								
3.	Training and Instruction	.502**	.186**	1							
4.	Autocratic behaviour	-.125**	.030	-.036	1						
5.	Social Support	.501**	.419**	.354**	-.130**	1					
6.	Ability Utilization	.363**	.133**	.347**	-.051	.408**	1				
7.	Strategy	.369**	.179**	.376**	-.051	.474**	.668**	1			
8.	Personal Treatment	.368**	.189**	.284**	-.141**	.461**	.486**	.529**	1		
9.	Individual Performance	.325**	.154**	.322**	-.057	.323**	.546**	.484**	.363**	1	
10.	Team performance	.195**	.101**	.188**	-.051	.242**	.407**	.487**	.322**	.471**	1

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Source: Field data, 2020

particular analysis, a more rigid alpha level was established with the purpose of reducing Type 1 error to the barest minimum. To do this, the alpha level of was reduced by dividing it by the number of sub-dimensions of the criterion variable which was 5. This produced a new alpha level of .010 which was used to determine whether a result was significant or not. All p-values which were equal to or less than .010 were considered as significant whereas p-values that were greater than .010 were considered as not significant. Table 9 shows the details of the findings.

The outcomes presented in Table 9 revealed that perceived social support ($b=.288, t=8.88, p<.001$), training and instruction ($b=.248, t=5.491, p<.001$), positive feedback leadership behaviours ($b=.201, t=4.213, p<.001$) positively and significantly influenced athletes' satisfaction, specifically on ability utilisation. However, perceived democratic and autocratic leadership behaviours did not significantly influence athletes' satisfaction on ability utilisation. Again, perceived social support ($b=.351, t=11.312, p<.001$), training and instruction ($b=.280, t=6.497, p<.001$) as well as positive feedback leadership behaviours ($b=.128, t=2.801, p=.005$) significantly and positively predicted athletes' satisfaction with coaches' strategy.

Table 9: Parameter Estimates for the Association Between Coaches' Leadership Behaviour and Athletes' Satisfaction

Dependent Variable	Parameter	B	Std. Error	t	Sig.
Ability Utilization	Intercept	1.241	.217	5.723	.000
	Positive feedback	.201	.048	4.213	.000*
	Democratic	-.061	.027	-2.279	.023
	Training and instruction	.248	.045	5.491	.000*
	Autocratic	.016	.024	.681	.496
Strategy	Social support	.288	.032	8.885	.000*
	Intercept	1.118	.207	5.400	.000
	Positive feedback	.128	.046	2.804	.005*
	Democratic	-.038	.026	-1.475	.141
	Training and instruction	.280	.043	6.497	.000*
Personal treatment	Autocratic	.015	.023	.670	.503
	Social support	.351	.031	11.312	.000*
	Intercept	1.832	.167	10.978	.000
	Positive feedback	.216	.037	5.872	.000*
	Democratic	-.029	.021	-1.404	.161
Individual Performance	Training and instruction	.103	.035	2.970	.003*
	Autocratic	-.048	.018	-2.596	.010*
	Social support	.349	.025	13.985	.000*
	Intercept	1.250	.247	5.054	.000
	Helpful comment	.196	.054	3.604	.000*
Team performance	Democratic	.008	.031	.267	.789
	Training and instruction	.284	.051	5.528	.000*
	Autocratic	-.010	.027	-.356	.722
	Social support	.192	.037	5.193	.000*
	Intercept	1.327	.342	3.873	.000*
Team performance	Positive feedback	.100	.075	1.322	.187
	Democratic	-.041	.043	-.969	.333
	Training and instruction	.252	.071	3.531	.000*
	Autocratic	-.032	.038	-.840	.401
	Social support	.325	.051	6.338	.000*

Source: Field data, 2020

*significant at $p \leq .010$

The results further discovered that whereas perceived autocratic leadership behaviour of coaches negatively influenced athletes' satisfaction with personal treatment ($b=-.048$, $t=-2.596$, $p=.010$), constructs such as perceived social support ($b=.349$, $t=13.985$, $p<.001$), training and instruction ($b=.103$, $t=2.970$, $p=.003$), and positive feedback leadership behaviours ($b=.215$, $t=5.872$, $p<.001$) positively predicted athletes' satisfaction with personal treatment.

Moreover, perceived training and instruction ($b=.284$, $t=5.528$, $p<.001$), social support ($b=.192$, $t=5.193$, $p<.001$), and positive feedback leadership behaviours ($b=.196$, $t=3.604$, $p<.001$) were found as positive and significant predictors of the athletes' satisfaction of their individual performance. Only two of the sub-dimensions; perceived training and instruction ($b=.252$, $t=3.531$, $p<.001$) and perceived social support ($b=.325$, $t=6.338$, $p<.001$) positively influenced athletes' satisfaction with team performance.

Preliminary Analysis for Hypotheses One and Two

The dependent variables for hypotheses one and two were the same (i.e., perceived positive feedback, perceived monocratic behaviour, perceived democratic behaviour, perceived social backing, and perceived training and directions). Therefore, assumptions such as multivariate normality, multivariate outliers, and linearity were the same for the two hypotheses. For normality, the Q-Q plots were used to test the assumption. The results provided some level of evidence that the data for the analysis did not violate the normality assumption. That is, the data points formed a straight stepped line and the data points were as well closer to the line of fit. The linearity

assumption was also tested using a scatter plot matrix as shown in Figure 9 (see appendix C). The data shown in Figure 9 revealed that the linearity assumption is not violated. This is because the variables in the scatter plots showed a straight-line link between any combination of two variables. Thus, the data points for the variables showed a linear pathway.

The multivariate outliers were also checked using Mahalanobis distance analysis to find out whether outliers were present in the information. Table 10 presents the details of the outlier examination.

Table 10: Residuals Statistics for Hypotheses 1 and 2

	Min.	Max.	Mean	SD	N
Predicted Value	231.44	745.12	501.08	92.71	1002
Std. Predicted Value	-2.91	2.63	.00	1.00	1002
Standard Error of Predicted Value	9.29	64.12	20.15	6.81	1002
Adjusted Predicted Value	233.52	743.36	501.05	92.86	1002
Residual	-650.35	688.71	.00	273.98	1002
Std. Residual	-2.37	2.51	.00	.99	1002
Stud. Residual	-2.37	2.52	.00	1.00	1002
Deleted Residual	-653.73	695.94	.03	276	1002
Stud. Deleted Residual	-2.38	2.53	.000	1.001	1002
Mahal. Distance	.14	53.506	4.99	4.815	1002
Cook's Distance	.00	.039	.001	.002	1002
Centered Leverage Value	.00	.054	.005	.005	1002

The critical value for Mahal. Distance for 5 DV is 20.52

Source: Field data, 2020

The residual statistics, shown in Table 10, showed an evidence of outliers in the dataset after comparing the maximum score of 55.506 to the critical value of 20.52 (Pallant, 2010). About 12 cases of outliers which

represented 1.2 % were found in the entire dataset, and because they were relatively few, they were not deleted (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013).

After satisfying the assumptions underlying the use of MANOVA, the two hypotheses were tested. Ideally, a two-way 2x2 MANOVA should have been carried but instead, a separate one-way MANOVA was conducted for the two hypotheses due to three reasons: (1) the fallouts of the two-way 2x2 MANOVA showed no interaction consequence (see Appendix D for the results), (2) the multivariate and univariate results were the same for the main effects for the 2x2 MANOVA and the two separate one-way MANVOA after applying the Bonferroni adjustment to the alpha level, (3) The presentation of results on the one-way MANOVA for each of the hypotheses provides a lot of clarity.

Bonferroni adjustment was further applied (just as was done in hypothesis 1) by using the new alpha level of .010, with the aim of avoiding type 1 error. All p-values which were less than or equal to .010 were considered as significant whereas p-values that were greater than .010 were considered as not significant.

Hypothesis One: Sex Differences do not exist in SHS Athletes Perceived Leadership Behaviour of Coaches

Hypothesis one sought to test whether the perceived coaches' leadership behaviours differed for male and female athletes. This hypothesis was tested using one-way MANOVA. The sex of the SHS athletes was the independent variable, and the dependent/criterion variable was the coaches' leadership behaviour (i.e., social support, autocratic behaviour, democratic behaviour, social support, and training and instruction). Table 11 shows the results of the multivariate test for the MANOVA.

Table 11: Multivariate Tests and Box Test

Effect	Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Intercept	.992	25096.16	5	995	.000
Gender	.066	14.11	5	995	.000*

Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices

Box's M	101.089
F	6.703
df1	15
df2	4018232.7
	1
Sig.	.000

Source: Field data, 2020

*significant at $p < .05$

As presented in Table 11, the results displayed that the box test of equality of covariance matrices was violated, $F(15, 4018232.71) = 6.703$, $p < .001$. As a result, the Pillai's Trace estimates were presented. The multivariate outcomes, also in Table 11, revealed a noteworthy difference in perceived coaches' leadership behaviours for male and female SHS athletes., $F(5, 995) = 14.11$, $p < .001$. Table 12 shows the findings of the univariate analysis.

Table 12: Tests of Between-Subjects Effects Based on Sex

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	F	Sig.
Intercept	Positive feedback	20560.16	1	73001.58	.000
	Democratic behaviour	13194.24	1	19393.21	.000
	Training and instruction	20228.71	1	80801.03	.000
	Autocratic behaviour	7674.77	1	10903.24	.000
	Social support	17404.02	1	31384.06	.000
	Gender	Positive feedback	4.41	1	15.671
Democratic behaviour		6.59	1	9.688	.002*
Training and instruction		13.33	1	53.24	.000*
Autocratic behaviour		5.81	1	8.25	.004*
Social support		10.02	1	18.07	.000*
Error		Positive feedback	281.36	999	
	Democratic behaviour	679.67	999		
	Training and instruction	250.10	999		
	Autocratic behaviour	703.20	999		
	Social support	553.99	999		
	Total	Positive feedback	20846.56	1001	
Democratic behaviour		13881.10	1001		
Training and instruction		20493.20	1001		
Autocratic behaviour		8384.20	1001		
Social support		17968.89	1001		

Source: Field data, 2020

* significant at $p \leq .010$

As shown in Table 12, the results from the analysis revealed that perceived coaches' behaviours were influenced by the sex of SHS athletes: positive feedback ($F(1, 999)=15.671, p<.001$), democratic behaviour ($F(1,$

999)=9.688, $p=.002$), training and instruction ($F(1, 999)=53.24$, $p<.001$), autocratic behaviour ($F(1, 999)=8.25$, $p=.004$), and social support style of leadership ($F(1, 999)=18.07$, $p<.001$).

A follow-up post-hoc analysis using Bonferroni approach was carried out by comparing the mean scores of male and female SHS athletes on the perceived coaches' leadership behaviours. Table 13 shows the details of the post hoc examination.

Table 13: Descriptive Statistics (Follow-up)

	Gender	Mean	SD	N
Positive feedback	Male	4.47	.55	501
	Female	4.60	.52	501
	Total	4.53	.53	1002
Democratic behaviour	Male	3.55	.84	501
	Female	3.71	.81	501
	Total	3.63	.83	1002
Training and instruction	Male	4.38	.57	501
	Female	4.61	.42	501
	Total	4.50	.513	1002
Autocratic behaviour	Male	2.69	.90	501
	Female	2.85	.77	501
	Total	2.77	.84	1002
Social support	Male	4.07	.73	501
	Female	4.27	.76	501
	Total	4.2	.75	1002

Source: Field data, 2020

The follow-up results showed that female SHS athletes perceived more positive feedback behaviours of coaches with a high mean value ($M=4.60$, $SD=.52$) than their male counterparts ($M=4.47$, $SD=.55$). Similarly, the female athletes perceived that the coaches exhibited to them more of

democratic behaviours ($M=3.71$, $SD=.81$) as compared to the male athletes ($M=3.55$, $SD=.84$). The results were similar for the perceived training and instruction as well as perceived social support dimension, where the athletes perceived that coaches showed more of such leadership behaviours to female athletes. Although the athletes perceived that the coaches showed less of autocratic leadership behaviours to both male ($M=2.70$, $SD=.90$) and female ($M=2.85$, $SD=.77$) athletes, such behaviours were perceived to be exhibited very little to male athletes.

Hypothesis Two: SHS Athletes' Perceived Leadership Behaviour of Coaches will not Differ Based on the Type of Sports the Athletes Engaged in

The aim of this hypothesis was to see if SHS athletes' perceptions of coaches' leadership behaviour differed according to the sport (i.e., team sports or individual sports). To test this hypothesis, a one-way MANOVA was utilised. The kind of sport (team or individual) was the independent variable, and perceived coach leadership behaviour was the dependent/criterion variable (i.e., positive feedback, autocratic behaviour, democratic behaviour, social support, and training and instruction). The results of the multivariate test for the MANOVA are shown in Table 14.

Table 14: Multivariate Tests and Box Test Results

Effect	Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Intercept	.991	20796.52	5	995	.000
		3			
Type of sports	.065	13.904	5	995	.000

Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices

Box's M	68.523
F	4.539
df1	15
df2	1746755.062
Sig.	.000

Source: Field data, 2020

*significant at $p < .05$

The analysis outcomes in Table 14, displayed that the box test of parity of covariance matrices assumption was violated, $F(15, 1746755.062) = 4.539, p < .001$. Based on this violation, the Pillai's Trace estimates were presented for the main results of the MANOVA. The multivariate results in Table 14 further revealed that the perceived coaches' leadership behaviour by SHS athletes significantly differed across the type of sports (team or individual), $F(5, 995) = 13.904, p < .001$.

The outcomes for the univariate analysis are presented in Table 15.

Table 15: Tests of Between-Subjects Effects Based on the Type of Sports

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	F	Sig.
Intercept	Positive feedback	18030.02	1	63054.12	.000
	Democratic behaviour	11153.76	1	17097.69	.000
	Training and Instruction	17823.80	1	67676.62	.000
	Autocratic behaviour	6602.75	1	9382.80	.000
	Social support	15242.51	1	27011.90	.000
Type of sports	Positive feedback	.11	1	.39	.530
	Democratic behaviour	34.56	1	52.98	.000*
	Training and Instruction	.33	1	1.24	.266
	Autocratic behaviour	6.00	1	8.52	.004*
	Social support	.29	1	.52	.471
Error	Positive feedback	285.66	999		
	Democratic behaviour	651.70	999		
	Training and Instruction	263.10	999		
	Autocratic behaviour	703.00	999		
	Social support	563.72	999		
Total	Positive feedback	20846.56	1001		
	Democratic behaviour	13881.10	1001		
	Training and Instruction	20493.20	1001		
	Autocratic behaviour	8384.20	1001		
	Social support	17968.89	1001		

Source: Field data, 2020

*significant at $p \leq .010$

The outcomes showed differences in perceived democratic ($F(1, 999)=59.98, p<.001$) and perceived autocratic ($F(1, 999)=8.52, p=.004$) leadership behaviours on the basis of type of sports. That is, the SHS athletes reported different levels of perceived democratic leadership to those involved in team sports and to those involved in individual sports. As perceived by athletes participating in team and individual sports, there were no noteworthy differences in coaches' positive feedback, training and instruction, or social support leadership behaviours.

Further analysis was conducted to understand the actual differences in perceived coaches' leadership behaviours with regard to athletes across type of sport, especially for the dimensions which showed significant difference. The details of the post hoc are shown in Table 16.

Table 16: Descriptive Statistics (follow-up)

Variables	Type of Sport	Mean	SD
Positive feedback	Individual sports	4.52	.57
	Team sports	4.54	.52
	Total	4.53	.53
Democratic behaviour	Individual sports	3.76	.76
	Team sports	3.36	.90
	Total	3.63	.83
Training and Instruction	Individual sports	4.52	.47
	Team sports	4.48	.53
	Total	4.50	.51
Autocratic behaviour	Individual sports	2.66	.76
	Team sports	2.82	.87
	Total	2.77	.84
Social Support	Individual sports	4.15	.80
	Team sports	4.18	.72
	Total	4.17	.75

Source: Field data, 2020

The follow-up consequences, shown in Table 16, revealed that athletes from individual sport perceived their coaches to have exhibited more democratic leadership behaviours with a higher mean value ($M=3.76$, $SD=.76$) compared to athletes involved in team sports ($M=3.36$, $SD=.90$). Further, coaches were perceived to have displayed more autocratic leadership behaviours to athletes involved in team sports ($M=2.82$, $SD=.87$) compared to athletes involved in individual sports ($M=2.66$, $SD=.76$).

Discussion of Findings

Coaches' leadership behaviour and athletes' satisfaction are considered very crucial factors in the sports setting. A coach's effective leadership behaviour can affect an athlete's behaviour as a result of the coach's efforts, and it can also get others to behave as the coach wishes.

Perceived coaches' leadership behaviours by SHS athletes in the Ashanti Region of Ghana

The research question one identified perceived coaches' leadership behaviours by SHS athletes. The study revealed that positive feedback, training and instruction and social support were the top three perceived leadership behaviours by athletes. This trend of results sounds positive since SHS athletes are emerging and young athletes who need much support. Thus, providing constructive conditions and giving them the social support they need would help them thrive well. Several more studies corroborate the finding that coaches who employed more positive feedback, social support, training and education as well as democratic behaviour, created more productive players (Sherman et. al., 2000; Ramzaninezhad & Keshtan, 2009; Weiss & Friedrichs, 1986). In the contingency model, Fiedler (1967) proposed that there is no ideal method to lead, but that effectiveness is situational, and that leader behaviours that are successful in one scenario may not be effective in another. That is, successful leadership is contingent on the circumstances.

It must be mentioned that no coach exhibits a single leadership behaviour, only that one dominates at a time. This is because leadership is influenced by the sport culture in which it is produced and executed, rather than only the interplay between individuals in a context (Côté, 1998; Jones,

Armour & Potrac, 2003; 2004). For instance, positive comment strengthen athletes by acknowledging and rewarding good performance (Pilus & Saadan, 2009). This makes athletes' feel valued, satisfied and build a stronger personality in themselves. No wonder positive feedback was revealed in the study to be the topmost perceived leadership behaviour of SHS athletes in Ashanti Region. According to Ragogna (2017), athletes sought positive comment from their coaches after a good performance, but they also wanted anything to help them improve their performance in the future. This assertion of Ragogna means that when dealing with athletes, positive feedback such as expression of appreciation, complimenting good recital, congratulating an athlete after good play, encouraging athlete after a mistake, recognising an individual contribution and giving credit when it is due are important characteristics not only to motivate them but to enhance their performance in the future competitions and create satisfaction.

For young student athletes, participating in local level, district, regional competitions is highly valued as a delegate and considered a milestone in one's athletic career that many aspire to achieve. Furthermore, positive feedback generated by the unique interpersonal relationship among the coach and the athlete can develop positive emotions, attitudes, and behaviours that are mutually interconnected. This type of perceived bonding between athletes and coaches has been shown to significantly improve coaching process, athlete satisfaction and performance (Jowett & Cockerill, 2003; Jowett & Ntoumanis, 2004; Poczwadowski, Barott & Jowett, 2006).

Also, coaches' training and instruction which was the second most perceived leadership behaviour offers a gateway that has been cited to make a

key difference in technical coaching towards unlocking athletes' capabilities, capacities, and potential in their career through high levels of direct task-related behaviours (Jowett & Shanmugam, 2016). The findings show that if coaches want their players to be more satisfied, they should focus on improving their recital through proper, systematic training of skills and techniques as well as regular measures and evaluations of these abilities to determine improvement (Kim & Cruz, 2016). Generally, athletes who perceive their coaches to highlight frequent training and instruction and show unfailing democratic behaviour exhibit enhanced feelings of independence and more perceived competence which consequently lead to high intrinsic motivation. Considering this, calculated attempt ought to be made always by coaches to develop specific characteristics and requirements that nurture interactions in an actual way that would evolve athletes' confidence, trust, and respect (Hagan, Ansah, Pollmann & Schack, 2017).

Ghana has an annual national sport competition different from most European nations and other Western countries that require considerable preparation, both physically and psychologically, for which student athletes significantly rely on their coaches through supportive behaviours and other social support. For SHS athletes, social support is such a potential behaviour that helps them to deal with personal problems and results in positive outcomes of prosocial coach communication (Cranmer, 2014). Furthermore, past research has found that perceived social support is linked to performance gratification, with athletes in successful teams experiencing higher social support than those in failing teams (Chelladurai, Imamura; Yamaguchi, et al., 1988; Bono & Judge, 2004). Therefore coaches of SHS athletes in Ashanti

region need to ensure that they are socially supported if satisfaction and high performance will be achieved.

The majority of SHS students are adolescents (aged 12 to 19) who are still evolving and hence lack the psychological and social abilities to deal with stressful situations (Crone & Dahl, 2012). Adolescence is a period of life during which people are subjected to rapid developmental changes that have an impact on their psychological and social well-being (America Psychiatric Association [APA], 2013; WHO, 2017). Therefore, adolescents could be more substantially influenced by emotional responses such as hurt, confusion, fear, anger, and embarrassment from coaches. It is, therefore, prudent to be mindful of the role social support play as it remains very sensitive in performance satisfaction of athletes.

This study contradicted other studies that found athletes had a higher preference for autocratic and social support leadership behaviour than other leadership behaviours such as positive feedback, training and instruction as well as democratic leadership behaviour (e.g., Chelladurai, Imamura, Yamaguchi, Oinuman & Miyauchi, 1988; Witte, 2011; Cruz & Kim, 2016). Variations in the geographical locations where the student- athletes originate or coaches wanting to perform specific task without worrying about divergent views from student athletes could account for these findings.

Satisfaction level of SHS athletes

The research question two examined the satisfaction level of SHS athletes in Ashanti Region of Ghana. The consequences showed that athletes were generally satisfied with the personal treatment and strategy from coaches and their ability utilisation.

Although the athletes were satisfied with the various aspects of their roles, there were varying degrees of satisfaction. For instance, the SHS athletes showed a great level of satisfaction with personal treatment from coaches than any other dimension. The next two dimensions which the athletes were satisfied with include the strategy of coaches and ability utilization. The least satisfaction was with the individual performance and team performance.

It appears that athletes in SHS normally have not chosen their career paths so if their coaches' show them loyalty, appreciation and recognition (personal treatment), they will be intrinsically motivated which would ignite their satisfaction (Riemer & Chelladurai, 1998).

Personal treatment, strategy, and ability utilization are linked to a variety of social network characteristics, including communication with significant persons such as family (Goff & Fick, 1997), friends, coaches, and peers as well as satisfaction and performance (Karanauskiene, Kardelis & Kardeleine, 2007).

Personal treatment which comprised recognition, friendliness, appreciation, loyalty from coaches and the extent to which coaches are behind athletes (Riemer & Chelladurai, 1998) were the dimensions that satisfied athletes most. There is growing evidence in the literature that emphasises the importance of creating positive interpersonal environments between coaches and athletes (Jowett & Poczwardowski, 2007; Jowett, 2017), which may reflect on a more respectful relationship, gratification, psychological well-being, and performance improvement for both sides (Jowett & Poczwardowski, 2007; Jowett, 2017). The intimacy of British coaches and

athletes, according to Jowett and Nezlek (2011), leads to satisfaction, particularly in terms of formation, training and instruction, and personal treatment. Recognising and appreciating (personal treatment) the environment in which athletes flourish, for example, might help to avoid bad performance effects due to discontent (Schwab & Cummings, 2001).

It is worth noting that athletes studied were satisfied with their coaches' strategy as the second topmost dimension. Coaches' usually exhibits behaviours strategic with planning that physically, tactically and mentally prepare athletes in a logical approach in sports as it allows a competitive edge over opponents including offering athletes' a sense of conviction on performance related tasks (Weinberg & Gould, 2018). It is, therefore, not surprising that SHS athletes in the Ashanti Region opted for strategy as the second topmost dimension that satisfies them. The tactics used by the coaches, their choice of strategies used during games, the adjustment they make during competition and how they combine available resources are all factors which enhance athletes' satisfaction and performance.

Ability utilisation is when athletes perceive their coaches to be exploring their talents, capabilities and capacities leading to satisfaction with their sports (Chelladurai & Riemer, 1998). The behaviour of sport leaders has proved a determinant role in athletes' satisfaction (Kao & Tsai, 2018). Young developing athletes need a coach who will help explore their talents, match their roles with their potentials and offer them playing time during competitions (Chelladurai & Riemer, 1990). For example, players at the SHS level come to school with multiple talents- playing football, handball, hockey, table tennis, badminton through to track and field events. They need coaches

who can explore them to unearth all hidden talents in order to bring out the best in them.

Mostly, the talents unearthed by the coaches at that SHS level create satisfaction for the student athletes. For young developing athletes, especially in the Ghanaian setting, they need a coach who will help explore their talents, match their roles with their potentials and offer them playing time during competitions in order to enhance their satisfaction and performance (Chelladurai & Riemer, 1998).

Previous studies (Terry, 1984; Terry & Howe, 1984) contradicted the findings of this thesis that personal treatment, strategy and ability utilization created satisfaction among student athletes than individual and team performance gratification.

Coaches' leadership behaviour and SHS athletes' satisfaction in Ashanti Region

This study also examined whether coaches' leadership behaviour has a positive influence on SHS athletes' satisfaction in the Ashanti Region of Ghana. The general impression from the results show that the perceived adoption of any or the combination of encouraging comment, training and instruction, and social support leadership behaviours by coaches increase the probability of SHS athletes being satisfied with their ability utilization, the strategy of their coaches, personal treatment from coaches and satisfaction with individual performance. The training and instruction, and social support, however, explained the largest variability in athletes' satisfaction with team performance. Previous research (e.g., Kim and Cruz, 2016; Cakioghi, 2003; Shields, et al., 1997; Weshe and Weiss, 1991) revealed that a coach must be

able to focus more attention on training and instruction, as well as social support, to improve the team's task, including social cohesiveness.

These relationships characteristics would help players enhance their performance while also allowing coaches to understand more about their athletes' strengths and shortcomings both within and outside of the training environment. As young developing athletes coaches need to provide them with training contexts and emotional support that improve their satisfaction (Rocchi & Pelletier, 2018; Cranmer & Sollitto, 2015). Coaches' perceived autocratic leadership behaviours resulted in very low levels of satisfaction of the athletes with personal treatment. This gives the notion that the adoption of the autocratic leadership style by coaches interferes with how coaches interact and handle the athletes (Chelladurai, 1993).

Positive feedback is vital because it affects all four sub-components of athlete satisfaction: ability usage, strategy, personal treatment, and individual performance. Positive feedback accounted for a considerable portion of the variation in athlete satisfaction. Turman (2006, 2008) argued that athletes are more satisfied with their overall sports experience when coaches depend on reward and expert power or employ linguistic immediacy. Coaches should be concerned with how to make the sporting experience joyful and satisfying, according to Smith, Kendall, and Hulin (1969). Mouratidis et al. (2008) have demonstrated the predictive significance of positive feedback on athletes' skill, satisfaction, and motivation, allowing for increased vitality and well-being. The sort of feedback offered by coaches in performance scenarios has a considerable impact on athletes' intrinsic motivation from the perspective of inner drive. Positive feedback given to athletes in reaction to their

performance, in particular, is likely to boost intrinsic motivation, allowing for better control of future performance outcomes (Ryan, Connell & Deci, 1985). Coaches must focus on positive feedback, skill and technique training, and athlete happiness to improve athlete contentment (Dwyer & Fischer, 1990). It is not unexpected that young athletes are ecstatic about the type of feedback they receive from their coaches since at their age, being praised and supported throughout performance-related tasks is critical to their happiness and performance.

Training and instruction were found to predict players' happiness in all five sub-components: ability usage, strategy, personal treatment, individual and team performance. Athletes are satisfied with the total training and instruction procedures when they believe their coaches are matching their responsibilities to their potentials, utilising their abilities and strategies during games, making adjustments throughout contests, and being loyal to them (Rierner & Chelladurai, 1998). Coaches' teaching and supportive leader behaviour, for example, are linked to players' entire vitality and personal development, implying that training and instruction may have an impact on players' perceived degrees of mastery of their duties (Jooste & Kubayi, 2018).

Cruz and Kim (2016) investigated the leadership choices of young athletes in sport and discovered that these athletes favoured training and instruction, followed by positive feedback, democratic behaviour, and social support from their coaches. As a result, increased task-related satisfaction was associated with training and teaching (Wachsmuth, 2014). At the SHS level, growing athletes necessitates a significant amount of training and instruction since they rely on their coaches to create goals, clarify training priorities,

prescribe approaches, and clarify methods to them.

All five sub-components of athlete satisfaction showed evidence of social support. Other investigations have come up with similar results (e.g., Serpa, Pataco and Santos, 1991; Gordon, 1998). For example, Bum and Shin (2015) discovered that social support, as well as training and coaching, reduced athletes' anxiety. "As athletes gain experience and/or ability, they seem to consider their coaches to more socially supportive and more dictatorial," according to Chelladurai (1993). Athletes that saw their coaches as highly democratic and socially supportive reported high satisfaction with leadership, according to Schlieman (1987). A linear combination of received social support predicted 69 percent of athletes' pleasure with coaches and 46 percent of athletes' contentment with sports experiences (Cranmer & Sollitto, 2015). It appears that receiving social support will aid in the improvement of performance variables (Katagami & Tsuchiya, 2016). A number of athletes, including youth athletes, have recognized the importance of social support (Van-Yperen, 1998). Since youth athletes in their developmental stages require coaches who will encourage close relatives and other significant persons (e.g., technical staff, family members) to disclose their personal concerns and remain sensitive to their demands, the findings favour social support.

The combination of positive feedback, training and instruction, and social support leadership behaviours by coaches in the prediction of ability utilisation, strategy, personal treatment, and individual performance could be attributed to the school's cultural environment (i.e., how Ghanaian students have been raised), where coaches are very sensitive to their athletes' needs

(e.g., giving athletes pocket money), and care deeply about the athletes' personal problems (Witte, 2011). Coaches who are perceived to have evoked valuable criticism, vivid clear instructions, concrete proposals about their exercise training, laid down configuration for their training, give overt and mission, including socioeconomic instructions towards whatever they are doing, offer additional assistance in the face of overwhelming odds to generate satisfaction.

Conversely, other studies (Sherman & Fuller, 2000; Lam, 2007) found that there is greater satisfaction from coaches' leadership behaviour in team sports when coaches are perceived to be using democratic, social backing and positive comment.

Differences in Perceived Coaches' Leadership Behaviour Across Sex of SHS Athletes

Male and female players had different perceptions of their coaches' leadership behaviours. In research on differences between the sexes in youth sports, a number of confounding variables, such as culture, athlete profile, levels of competition, and type of sport, have led to mixed results (Koh & Wang, 2014). Coaches' roles were seen by their athletes at SHS in Ashanti Region to be more of positive feedback, democratic, training, and instruction as well as social support for female athletes than for male athletes. Female athletes, on the other hand, were said to perceive their coaches as being more autocratic than their male counterparts, owing to higher mean values. These findings exist because according to the MML, sex influences the behaviour of sport leaders. Mature and masculine athletes are more serious about their games and believe sport to be demanding, because they see

coaches who are well-organised and have persuasive decision-making qualities, which are frequently demonstrated by autocratic coaches (Weinberg & Gould, 2015).

This finding is consistent with the findings of other investigations (e.g., Schmuck, 1999; Windsor, 2005). For example, Sherman, Fuller, and Speed (2000) discovered that leadership styles were perceived similarly by both sexes. Furthermore, Brunner (1999) asserted that males and females exist in separate worlds, that society is sex-based, and that men and women act differently as society dictates. Female athletes had a more positive perception of their coaches' democratic coaching behavioural patterns and positive feedback than male athletes. This explains why the majority of female athletes want greater inclusion and interaction with their coaches (Heil, 2018). Cruz and Kim (2016) also found that sex has a significant impact on leadership in females compared to males. Also, compared to male players who perceived social support, situational considerations, and training and instruction from their coaches, female players perceived a higher degree of democratic behaviour, social support, positive feedback, situational consideration, and training and instruction (Lam, 2007). Male and female athletes view coaching techniques differently (Asiah & Roshi, 2009; Windsor, 2005). According to the findings of this and earlier studies, there is a significant difference in how females and males perceive leadership behaviour.

It is worth noting that the above mentioned variances could be attributable to contextual factors. In the Ghanaian environment, it is not unexpected that ladies think their coaches give them favourable feedback, democratic training and instruction, and social support for authoritarian

leadership behaviours. Males who are socialised to be violent (Fernandes & Cardoso, 2003), domineering (Hoffman and Hurst, 1990), and power hungry are influenced by issues of power distance in Ghanaian society (Hofstede, 2001). Ngulube (2018), for example, claims that women are marginalised when it comes to important decisions. As a result, culturally ingrained disparities have an impact on women's innate gender roles and power relationships, which stem from male-dominated social and cultural systems. Most men are influenced by such cultural inclinations to be autocratic and regard autocracy as a part of leadership behaviour. This viewpoint helps to explain why males choose autocratic leadership styles over females. This conclusion implies that males and females cannot be fairly represented, and that coaches/PE teachers must assess and determine the type of coaching behaviour that is appropriate for a particular gender. This method would aid coaches in maximizing performance and ensuring athlete pleasure.

Studies from (Erle, 1981; Chelladurai and Carron, 1983) suggested that males perceived training and instruction and social support behaviour over females. This contradicts the current study.

Differences in Leadership Behaviour of Coaches of SHS Athletes Based on the Type of Sports (i.e., Individual or Team Sport)

The significance of sport type is important in clarifying the relationship between coaching specific behaviours (Baker, 2003). SHS athletes' perceptions on coaches' leadership behaviour varied depending on the sport (individual or team sports). The discoveries revealed that athletes in individual sports thought coaches exhibited more democratic leadership behaviours than athletes in team sports. Athletes in team sports were assessed

to have demonstrated more authoritarian leadership characteristics than athletes in individual sports, according to other comparison studies. Previous studies (Chelladurai, 1978; Weiss & Friedrichs, 1986) yielded comparable results. For example, Terry and Howe (1984) discovered that athletes with a history in individual sports reported more democratic and less autocratic behaviour than team sport athletes. Team sport athletes, according to Terry (1984), perceived more training and instruction, authoritarian behaviour, and helpful comment, but less democratic behaviour and social backing than solo sport athletes. These outcomes indicate that coaches of individual sports solicited their athletes' opinions and took collective decisions with them, permitted athletes to set their own goals, obtained their consent on important matters before proceeding, gave credit where credit was due, heartfelt gratitude when their athletes performed well, and complimented athletes in front of others on good performance (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1978).

Similar study from Ragogna (2017) indicated that individual sport athletes perceived their coaches to be more democratic over team sport athletes. Individual sport athletes who saw their coaches as very democratic and socially supportive indicated high levels of contentment with leadership (Schiesman, 1987). Coaches in team sport were found to be more dictatorial and less democratic than those in solo sports (Enoksen, Fahlstrom, Johansen, Hageskog, Christensen & Hoigaard, 2014). In contrast the study of Terry (1984) stated team sports athletes preferred training and instruction and social support to democratic as discovered in this current study.

Practical Implications of Findings

This study's findings have significant ramifications for coaches, PE teachers, and sports administrators who work with high school players. Coaches should focus on the highlighted leadership behaviours, particularly positive feedback, training and instruction, and social support because they have a noteworthy influence on the training and development of youth athletes in the SHS in the Ashanti Region. Coaches/PE teachers are encouraged to show appreciation to their athletes, congratulate and compliment them after good performance, recognise individual contributions, give credit when due, clarify training priorities and goals, undoubtedly clarify to athlete the varied methods and tactics of their sports, help athletes with personal problems, encourage close connection with athletes, be sensitive to the needs and well-being of their athletes (Chelladurai & Riemer, 1993). When athletes perceive their coaches with such competences, it will mean athletes are positively influenced by these cognitive behavioural tendencies. However, if the above listed perceived coaches' leadership behaviours are seen to be negative, athletes overall development are likely to be hampered; thus, affecting their sport career or school related sporting activities. For example, coaches' who are perceived not to be interactive with athletes, give proper and effective training and instructions as well as fail to offer social support systems undermine athletes' progress and performance related outcomes (Chelladurai, 1998).

To boost student athletes' satisfaction via- ability utilization, strategy and personal treatment, there is the need to consciously consider the degree to which the capabilities of athletes are used, the stage to which their talents are

hired, the degree to which their roles match their potentials, the coaches choice of play during rivalry, the tactics used during games, how the coaches make adjustments during competitions, how coaches combine available resources, the recognition they give to athletes, the friendliness and loyalty they show to athletes, and the extent to which they support their athletes have some implications on athletes satisfaction. In situation where personal treatment, strategy and ability utilization are undermined, athletes' satisfaction dwindles (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1980).

Further, the differences found across sex in how athletes perceive their coaches' leadership behaviours suggest that coaches; therefore, need to assume roles that are sex specific when handling their athletes. Hence, generalising their leadership roles across sex could be counter-productive. For example, one sex characteristics may suffer from relational progress if coaches generalise their interactive roles when dealing with their athletes. Similarly, perceived coaches' leadership behaviour by SHS athletes differed across the type of sport (individual or team sport). The implication is that coaches' leadership behavioural tendencies should mirror the type of sport they handle. For example, task characteristics from motor control and learning perspective indicate that there are unique peculiarities (e.g. cyclical, acyclical, close- open, interactive) associated with individual and teams. Therefore, coaches handling athletes should bear in mind that although athletes could be playing together in teams, they come as individual persons and must be treated as such.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The purpose of the study was to examine coaches' leadership behaviour as perceived by SHS athletes and how these perceptions influence athletes' satisfaction in the Ashanti Region of Ghana. This chapter presents the summary, conclusions and recommendations of the study. There are also suggestions for further investigation.

The following sub-headings were used to review the literature: concept of leadership, theories of leadership, sports specific theories of leadership, theoretical framework, conceptual framework, empirical studies on coach leadership, and player gratification and performance. The study was led by three research questions and two hypotheses. The descriptive cross-sectional survey design was used to conduct the study. The population entailed 162 Senior High School Athletes in Ashanti Region who participated in organised inter-school sports competitions. They were about 16,200 athletes. The number of athletes was obtained from the office of the Ashanti Regional PE Coordinator (Sports Report, 2019/2020).

A sample size of 1,002 respondents (i.e., 501 boys and 501 girls) were selected from Ashanti Regional inter-school sports competition 2019/2020. The 1,002 student athletes were selected from 50 out of 162 SHS in Ashanti Region that participated in inter-school games competition. Stratified sampling and simple random sampling were used to select the athletes for the study and the 50 schools used. The study included first to third year student athletes. The study relied on adapted versions of Chelladurai and Saleh's

(1980) leadership scale for sports and Chelladurai and Riemer's (1998) athletes satisfaction questionnaire. The first section of the questionnaire was made up of demographic information (i.e., age, sex, school, zone, class, and discipline). The athletes' satisfaction questionnaire by Chelladurai and Riemer (1998) and an altered version of LSS by Chelladurai and Saleh (1980) were used in the second and third portions of the questionnaire.

Means, standard deviation and ranking were utilised to identify the perceived coaches leadership behaviour of SHS athletes and level of satisfaction of the athletes for research question one and two respectively. Also, multivariate multiple linear regression was used to examine research hypothesis one to test whether perceived coaches' leadership behaviour influence SHS athletes' satisfaction in the Ashanti Region of Ghana. Hypotheses two and three were analysed using multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) to determine whether there were noteworthy differences in perceived coaches leadership behaviour of SHS athletes based on sex (male or female) and kind of sport (i.e., individual and team sports).

Key Findings

The findings of this study are as follows:

- i. Majority of the student athletes in SHS in Ashanti Region perceived their coaches to be using positive feedback, training and instruction and social support behaviours.
- ii. Student athletes were generally satisfied with the personal treatment, strategy from coaches and their ability utilisation. Least satisfaction index was the individual and team performance.

- iii. The deduction from the findings indicated that when SHS athletes perceive their coaches to use any or a combination of positive feedback, training and instruction, and social support leadership behaviour, it increases the probability of the athletes satisfaction with ability utilisation, strategy from their coaches, personal treatment from coaches and satisfaction with individual recital. However, the difference in athletes' gratification with team recital was explained by training and teaching as well as social support. Therefore, the hypothesis which stated that coaches' leadership behaviour had a positive influence on SHS athletes' gratification in the Ashanti Region of Ghana was supported.
- iv. Coaches' were perceived to have exhibited more positive feedback, democratic, training, and instruction as well as social support behaviours by female athletes as compared to the male counterparts at SHS in Ashanti Region. Coaches showed autocratic leadership behaviour to female more than male athletes. Therefore, the hypothesis which stated that leadership behaviour of coaches will significantly differ based on the sex of SHS athletes was supported.
- v. Coaches were perceived to have exhibited more democratic leadership behaviours to athletes involved in individual sports as compared to athletes involved in team sport. On the other hand, coaches were perceived to have exhibited more autocratic leadership behaviours to athletes involved in team sport compared to athletes involved in individual sport. As a result, the hypothesis that the supervisor support of coaches of SHS players will alter depending on the type of

activity the athletes are participating in (team sports or individual sports) was confirmed.

Conclusion

According to the research finding, it could be seen that SHS athletes' in Ashanti Region of Ghana desired coaches who showed positive feedback, training and instruction and social support leadership behaviours. This leadership pattern implied that a majority of the athletes perceived their coaches to express appreciation to them, congratulate them after a good play, instructs every athlete individually in the skills of the sport, methods, and strategies of the sport, emphasise the mastery of greater skills during training, help athletes with personal problem, and endure profound to the needs of the athletes.

Athletes were generally satisfied with personal treatment, strategy from coaches and their ability utilisation. An implication that SHS athletes in Ashanti Region were satisfied with coaches who explored their talents, gave them time to play in competitions, made adjustments during competitions, were loyal to them and showed friendship towards them.

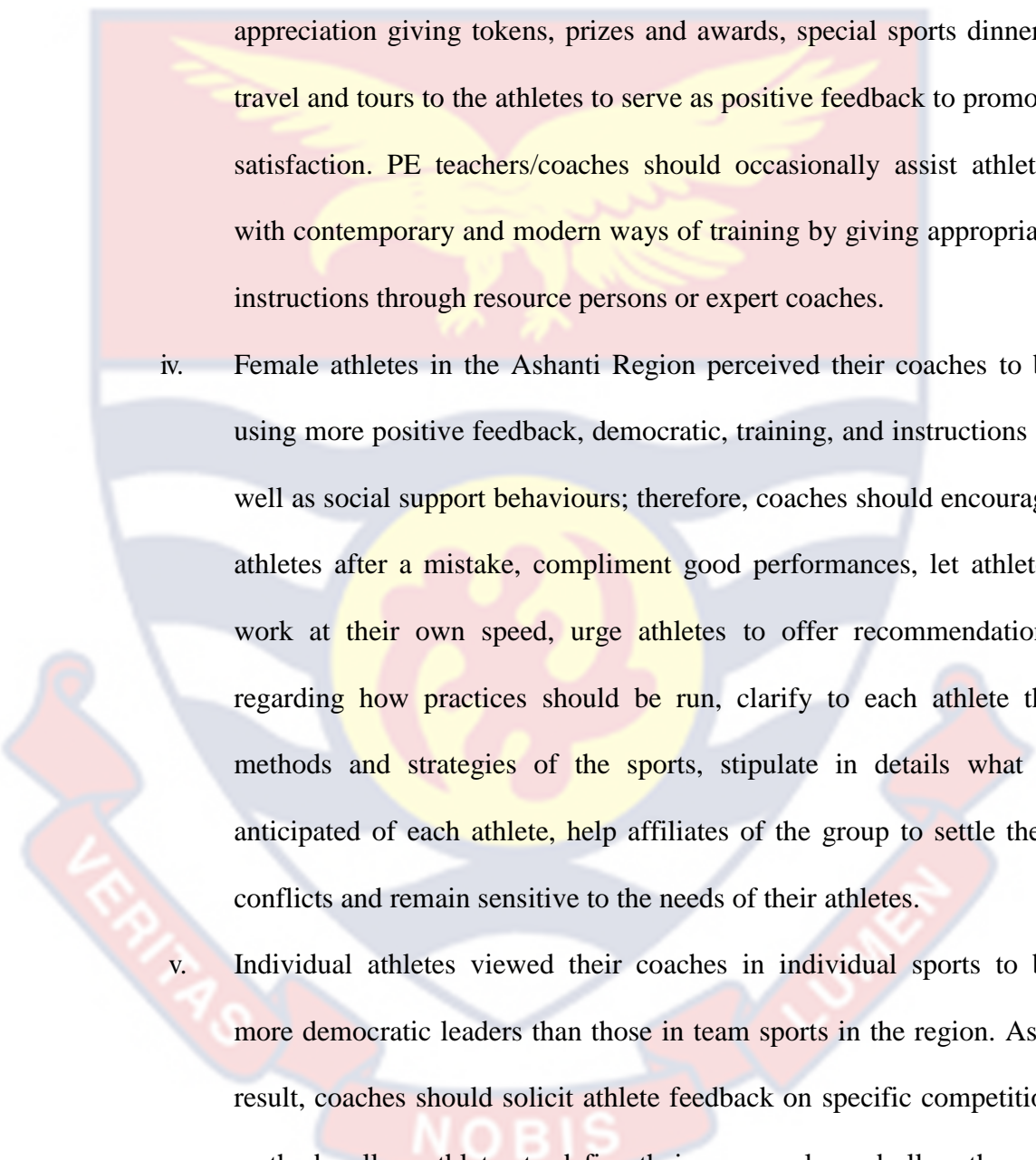
The coaches' use of any or a variety of positive feedback, training and instruction, and social support leadership boosted the athletes' satisfaction with their ability usage, strategy, and personal treatment from their coaches. A suggestion that athletes perceived their coaches to give credit when due to athletes, compliment athletes for their performance in front of others, clarify to every athlete what they should and should not do, give precise instructions to each athlete as to what they should do in every situation, help athletes with their personal difficulties and express affection they feel for their athletes.

Female athletes at SHS in Ashanti Region viewed their coaches to provide positive feedback, democratic training and instruction as well as social support, in comparison to male athletes. The implication of this discoveries is that coaches need to assume roles that are sex specific when handling their athletes. Hence, generalising their leadership roles across sex could be counter-productive.

The athletes' perception that their coaches exhibited more democratic leadership behaviour to athletes involved in individual sports and exhibition of autocratic leadership behaviour to those in team sports is an evidence that coaches do not want to spend too much time listening to the opinions of various athletes which can affect the time for practice and play and also, coaches' leadership behavioural tendencies should mirror the type of sport they handle.

Recommendations

- i. It is suggested that coaches provide to young and emerging athletes much verbal praise as a form of reward, support them when they are confronted with personal problems, their efforts to be coordinated with constructive conditions and special attention given to them in correcting their mistakes during sport competitions.
- ii. Coaches in the Ashanti Region ought to appreciate and show friendliness to their athletes, make adjustment for athletes during games, combine the available resources for athletes properly, employ athletes' talents appropriately and help them to match their roles with their potentials.

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- iii. Coaches in SHS in Ashanti Region should establish social support systems or networks for their athletes, especially during difficult times. This include arrangements for psychologist to meet athletes to psyche them. Coaches could recommend for scholarships as part of appreciation giving tokens, prizes and awards, special sports dinners, travel and tours to the athletes to serve as positive feedback to promote satisfaction. PE teachers/coaches should occasionally assist athletes with contemporary and modern ways of training by giving appropriate instructions through resource persons or expert coaches.
- iv. Female athletes in the Ashanti Region perceived their coaches to be using more positive feedback, democratic, training, and instructions as well as social support behaviours; therefore, coaches should encourage athletes after a mistake, compliment good performances, let athletes work at their own speed, urge athletes to offer recommendations regarding how practices should be run, clarify to each athlete the methods and strategies of the sports, stipulate in details what is anticipated of each athlete, help affiliates of the group to settle their conflicts and remain sensitive to the needs of their athletes.
- v. Individual athletes viewed their coaches in individual sports to be more democratic leaders than those in team sports in the region. As a result, coaches should solicit athlete feedback on specific competition methods, allow athletes to define their own goals, and allow them to attempt things their own way, even if they make mistakes.

Suggestions for Further Research

The study restricts causality because the research design used was cross-sectional in nature. Therefore, causal research could be used to identify the extent and nature of cause-and-effect relationships between coaches leadership behaviour and athletes satisfaction. For generalisation purposes, further research could expand the scope to other regions and could also consider university student athletes.



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APPENDIX A**UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST****COLLEGE OF EDUCATION STUDIES****DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND****RECREATION (HPER)****QUESTIONNAIRE FOR ATHLETES IN SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS,****ASHANTI REGION- GHANA**

Dear Student Athlete,

Richard Samuel Kwadwo Abieraba is a PhD student in the Department of Health, Physical Education, and Recreation at UCC. I am writing to invite you to take part in an academic study titled, "Influence of Coaches' Leadership Behaviour on Athletes Satisfaction and Performance in Senior High Schools in the Ashanti Region." The purpose of this study is to look into players' preferred leadership behaviour from their coaches as well as the impact that leadership behaviour has on athletes' satisfaction and performance.

You must complete a 50-item questionnaire for this study. This could take anywhere from 25 to 30 minutes of your time. Your response will be analysed as a group after you were chosen from a poll of participants.

You have entire discretion over whether or not to participate in this study, and you are free to stop answering questions if you feel it is necessary. Apart from your time, you can rest assured that this study will have no negative impact on you, your school or your family because all information submitted will be kept private.

There is no need to provide any information that can be used to identify you. Please, fill in the space below if you understand your responsibilities and agree to participate in this study.

Signature.....

Date.....

For any information, contact my Supervisors Dr Daniel Apaak (02666176876) or Dr John Elvis Hagan Jnr. (0500058449)

You may also contact me (Richard) on 0244884975 or abiola674@gmail.com

Thank you for your participation.

SECTION A

Age: Gender: School:

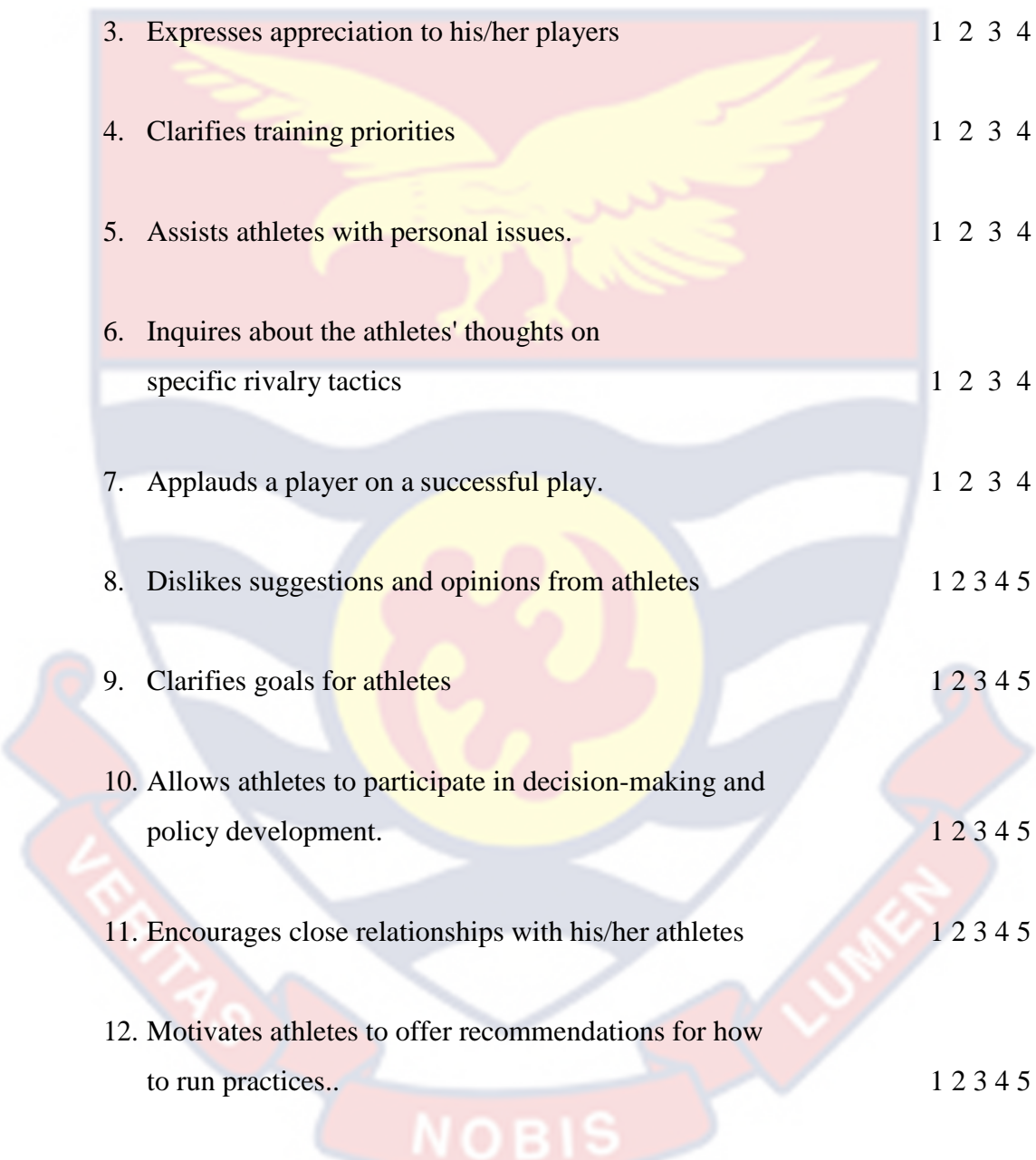
Zone: Class:..... Discipline:

SECTION B

Instructions: Each of the following sentences describes a different type of coaching behaviour. For each statement there are five alternative answers, 5 means Strongly agree, 4 means Agree, 3 means Undecided, 2 means Disagree and 1 means Strongly disagree.

Please, tick the appropriate space to indicate your preferred coach behaviour. Even, if you are not sure what to say, answer all of the questions. Please, keep in mind that the response is based on how you prefer your current coach to lead. There are no correct or incorrect replies. Your candid and spontaneous reaction is critical to the evaluation's effectiveness. Circle your correct answer.

My coach

- 
1. Asks for the opinions of the athletes on important coaching matters. 1 2 3 4 5
 2. Disregards athletes' fears and dissatisfactions. 1 2 3 4 5
 3. Expresses appreciation to his/her players 1 2 3 4 5
 4. Clarifies training priorities 1 2 3 4 5
 5. Assists athletes with personal issues. 1 2 3 4 5
 6. Inquires about the athletes' thoughts on specific rivalry tactics 1 2 3 4 5
 7. Applauds a player on a successful play. 1 2 3 4 5
 8. Dislikes suggestions and opinions from athletes 1 2 3 4 5
 9. Clarifies goals for athletes 1 2 3 4 5
 10. Allows athletes to participate in decision-making and policy development. 1 2 3 4 5
 11. Encourages close relationships with his/her athletes 1 2 3 4 5
 12. Motivates athletes to offer recommendations for how to run practices.. 1 2 3 4 5
 13. Presents ideas with vigour. 1 2 3 4 5
 14. Compliments good performances 1 2 3 4 5
 15. Utilizes suggestions of team members at daily team meetings 1 2 3 4 5

16. Is concerned about the happiness of team affiliates 1 2 3 4 5
17. Seeks athletes' confirmation before proceeding with major decisions. 1 2 3 4 5
18. Prescribes the method to be followed 1 2 3 4 5
19. Encourages an athlete after a mistake 1 2 3 4 5
20. Sees the merits of athlete ideas when it differs from the coach's own. 1 2 3 4 5
21. Encourages athletes to confide in him/her 1 2 3 4 5
22. Explains techniques to each athlete 1 2 3 4 5
23. He/she fails to justify his/her actions. 1 2 3 4 5
24. Recognizes individual contributions 1 2 3 4 5
25. Concerned about his or her athletes' personal well-being 1 2 3 4 5
26. Keeps distance from the athletes. 1 2 3 4 5
27. Remains sensitive to the needs of his/her athletes 1 2 3 4 5
28. Stresses the mastery of greater skills 1 2 3 4 5
29. Gives credit when it is due 1 2 3 4 5

SECTION C

Items here are scored on a five point scale. 1 is ‘Not at all satisfied’ 2 ‘slightly satisfied’ 3 ‘moderately satisfied’ 4 ‘very satisfied’ and 5 ‘Extremely satisfied’ to identify the satisfaction among the student athletes.

I am satisfied with

- | | |
|---|-----------|
| 30. The extent to which my strengths are (were) used. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 31. The extent to which I have reached my recital goals throughout the interschool and colleges season. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 32. The team’s win/ loss record this interschool and colleges season | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 33. My coach's acknowledgement (recognition). | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 34. The coach’s choice of plays during competitions. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 35. The improvement in my skills level so far. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 36. The team’s overall performance in interschool and colleges games this season. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 37. The extent to which my abilities are utilized. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 38. The friendliness of the coach towards me. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 39. Throughout sports, the techniques utilized | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 40. The improvement in my recital over the previous Interschool and colleges games. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 41. The amount to which my role corresponds to my abilities. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 42. Throughout games, the coach's strategy selection. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 43. When I perform well, my coach expresses his gratitude. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 44. The extent to which the team has met its goals for the interschool and colleges so far. | 1 2 3 4 5 |

45. The amount of time I play during competitions. 1 2 3 4 5
46. How the coach makes/ made modification during rivalries. 1 2 3 4 5
47. My coach's devotion to me. 1 2 3 4 5
48. The extent to which my team's role corresponds to
my ideal role 1 2 3 4 5
49. The manner in which coach combines/ combined the
available resources. 1 2 3 4 5
50. The extent to which the coach is behind me. 1 2 3 4 5

KEYS OF INSTRUMENTS

COACH'S LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOUR

1. Positive feedback- 3,7,14,19,24 and 29
2. Democratic behaviour- 1,6,10,12, 15, 17 and 20
3. Training and instruction- 4,9,18,22,and 28
4. Autocratic behaviour- 2,8,13,23 and 26
5. Social support- 5,11,16,21,25 and 27

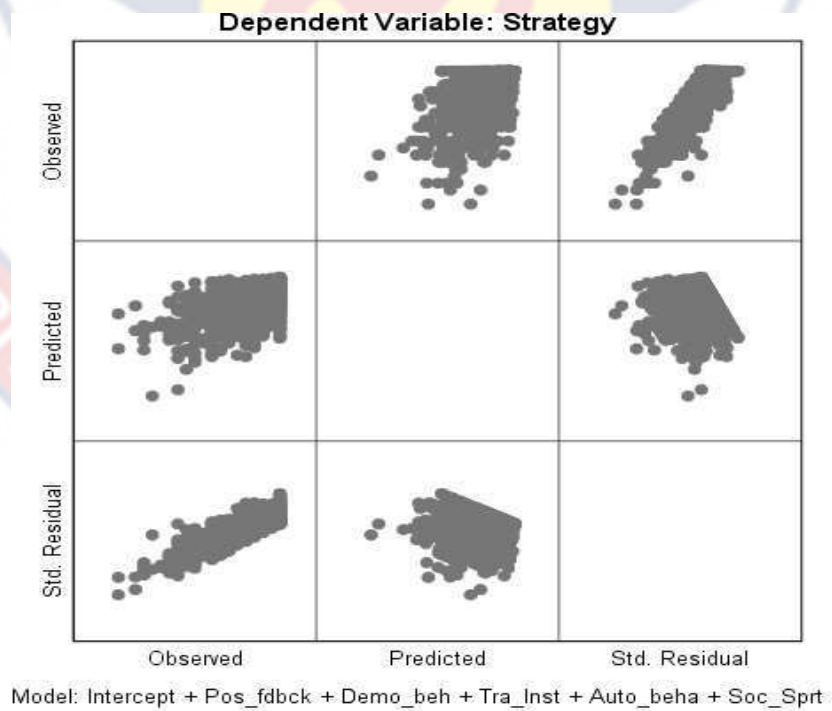
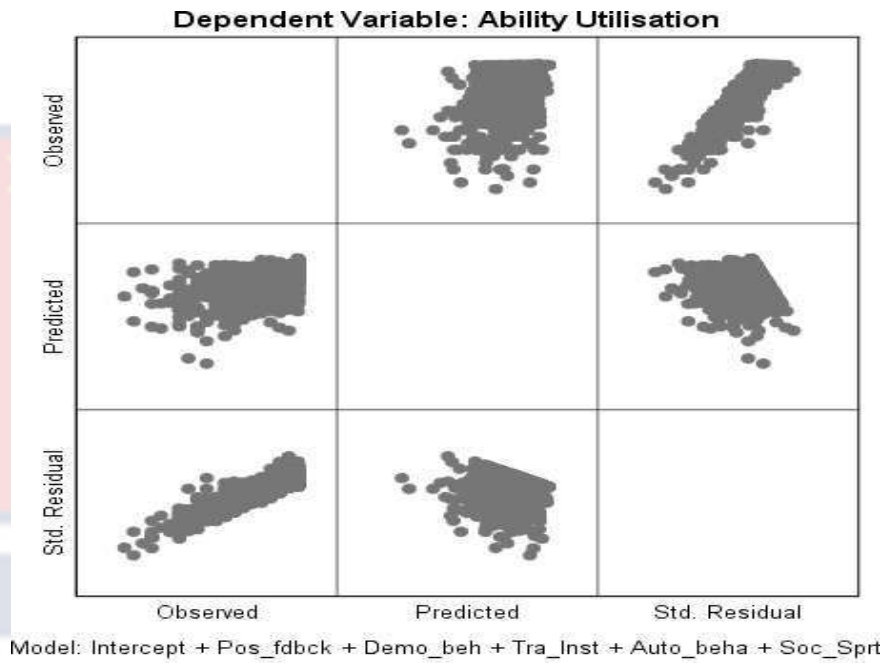
ATHLETE'S SATISFACTION AND PERFORMANCE

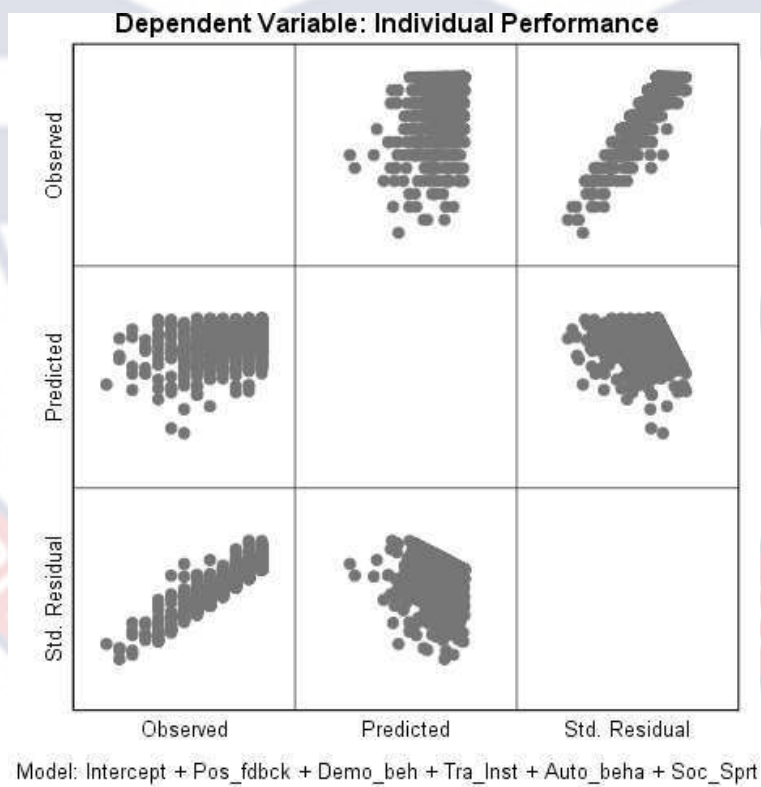
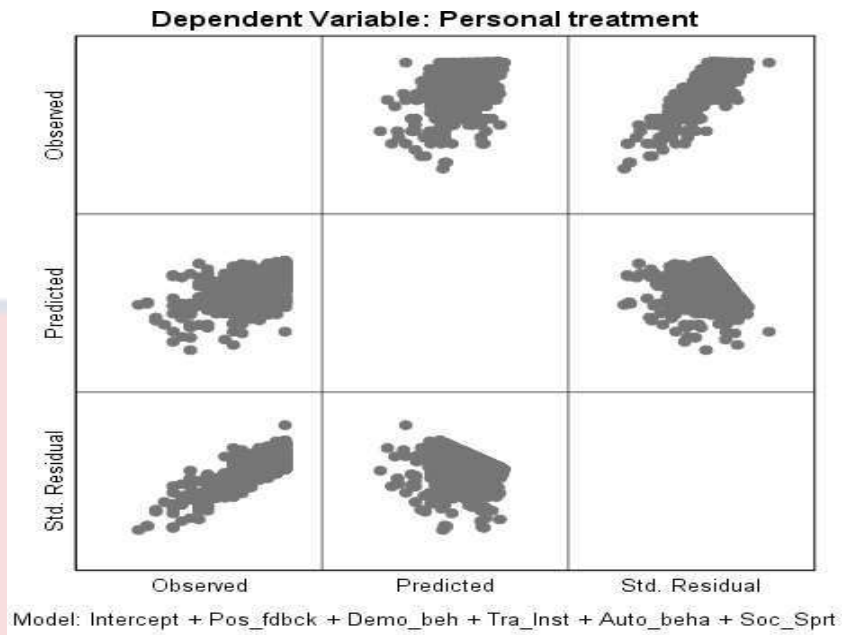
1. Ability utilization-30,37,41,45 and 48 2. Strategy-34,39,42,46 and 49
3. Personal treatment- 33,38,43,47 and 50
4. Individual performance- 31,35 and 40
5. Team performance- 32,36 and 44

THANK YOU FOR COMPLETING THE QUESTIONNAIRE

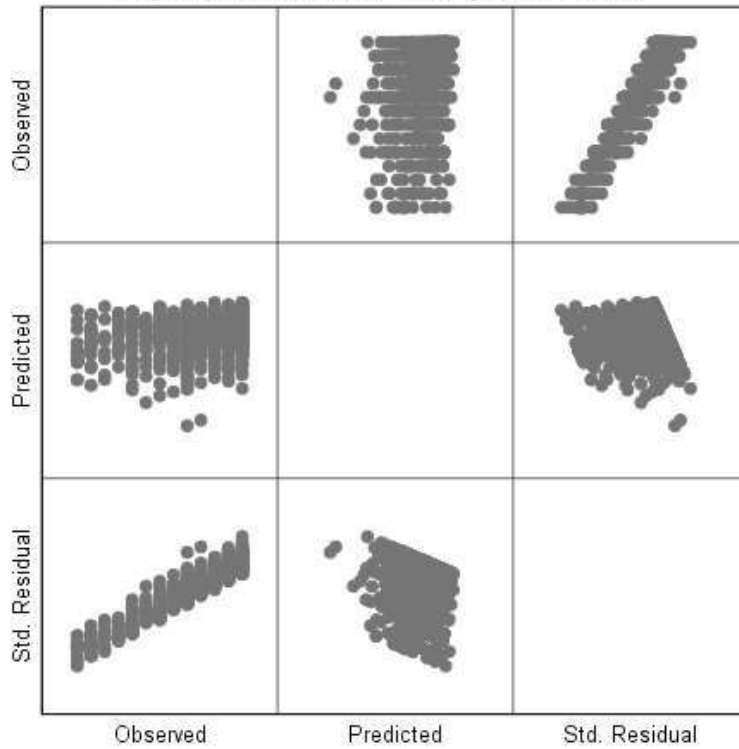
APPENDIX B

RESIDUAL PLOTS FOR HYPOTHESIS ONE





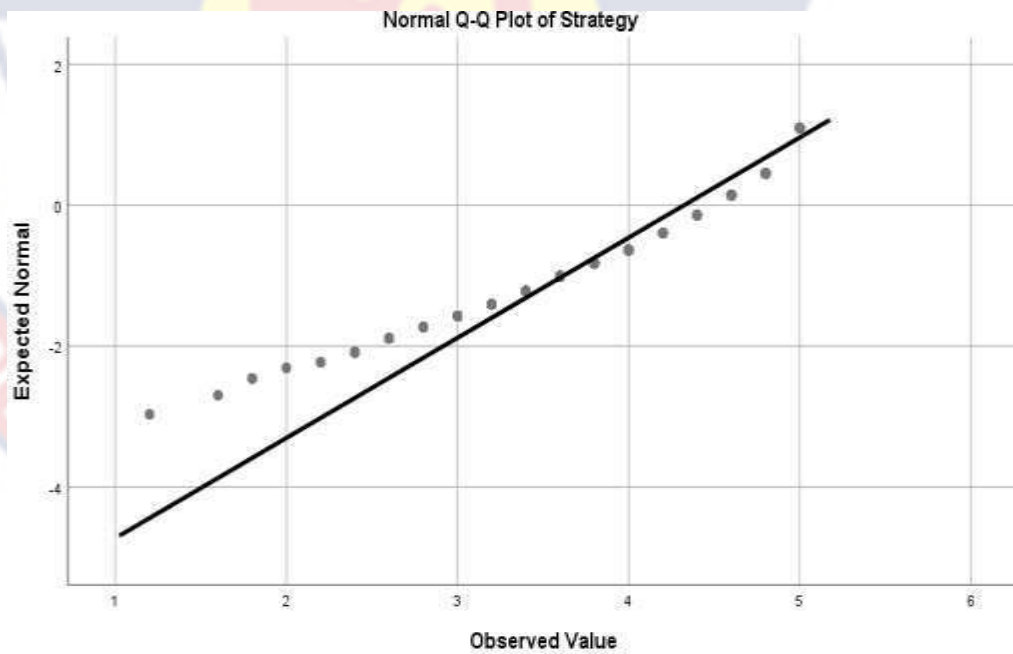
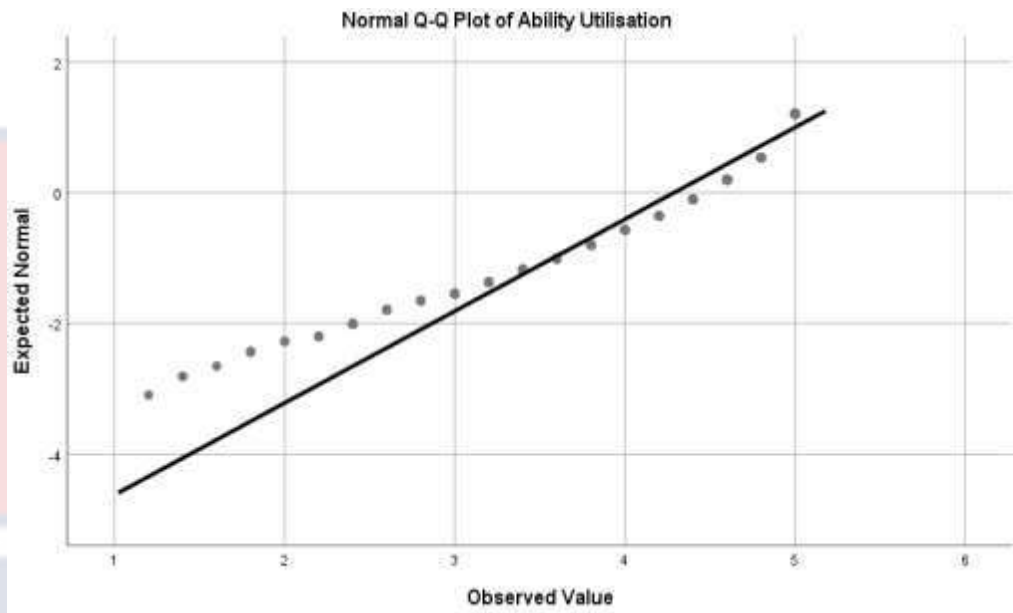
Dependent Variable: Team performance

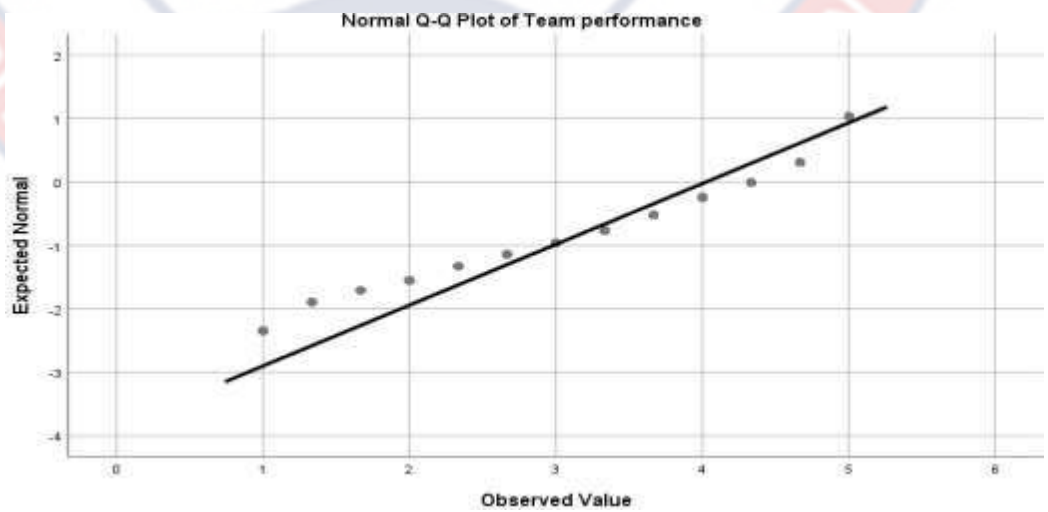
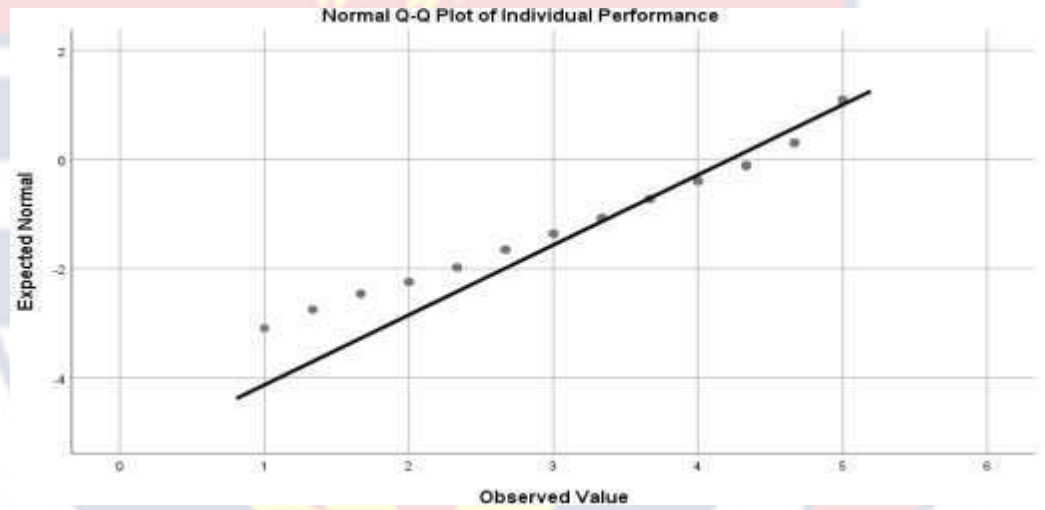
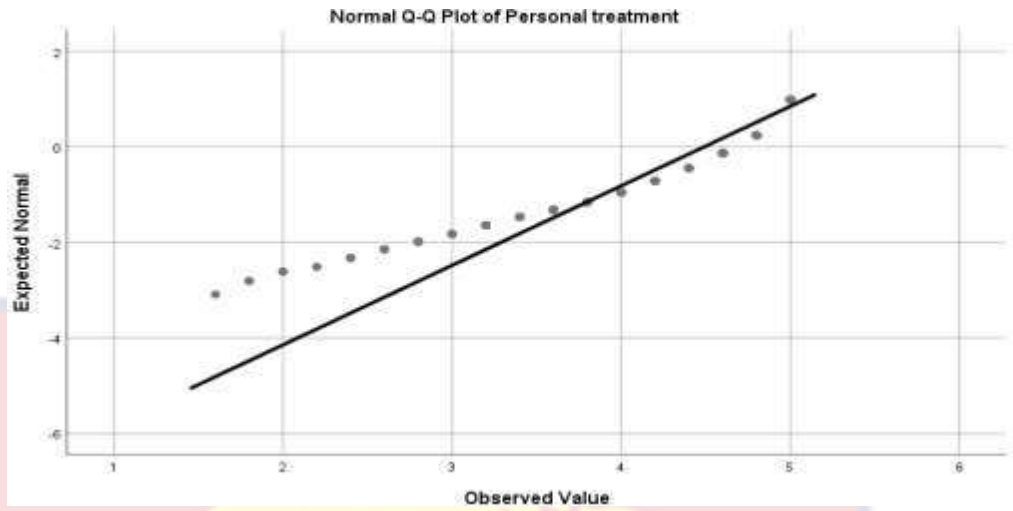


Model: Intercept + Pos_fdbck + Demo_beh + Tra_Inst + Auto_beha + Soc_Sprt

APPENDIX C

NORMALITY TEST FOR HYPOTHESES FOR ONE AND TWO





APPENDIX D

2x2 MANOVA RESULTS FOR HYPOTHESIS ONE AND TWO

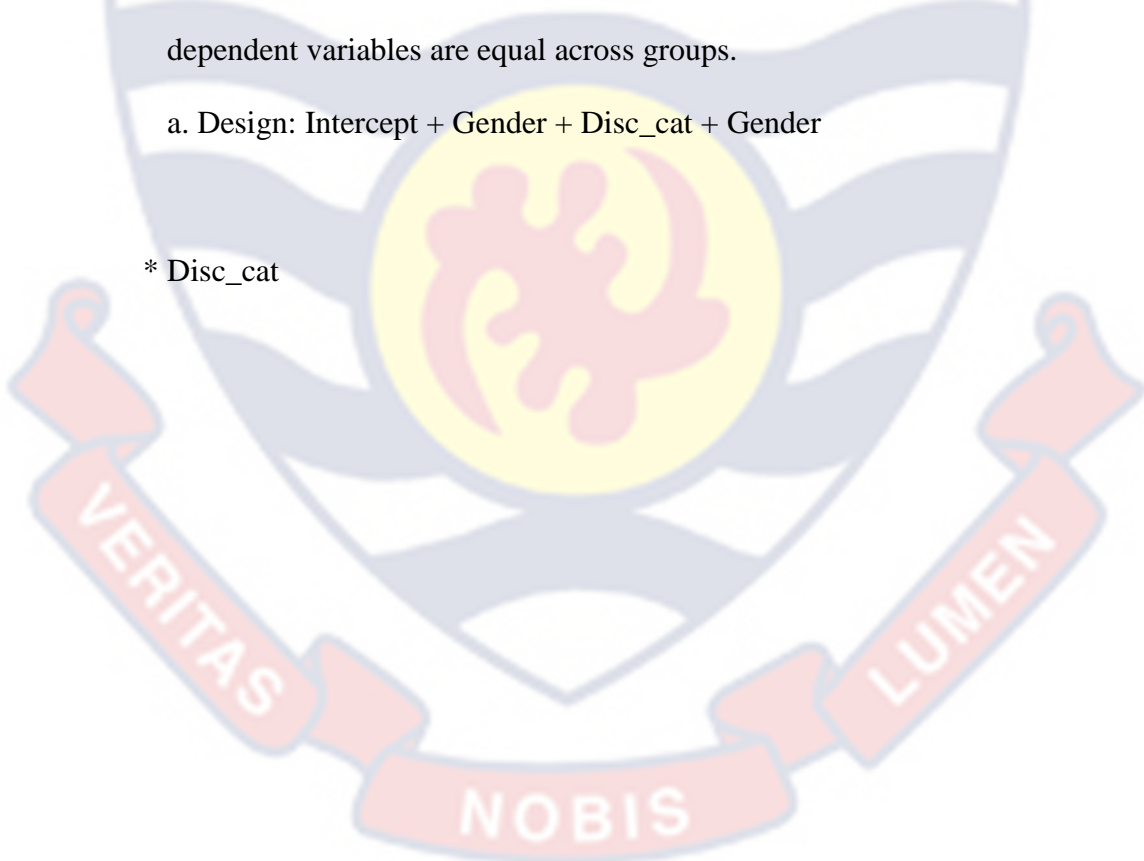
Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices^a

Box's M	174.245
F	3.830
df1	45
df2	835007.401
Sig.	.000

Tests the null hypothesis that the observed covariance matrices of the dependent variables are equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept + Gender + Disc_cat + Gender

* Disc_cat



Multivariate Testsa

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	.982	10999.680 ^b	5.000	993.000	.000	.982
	Wilks' Lambda	.018	10999.680 ^b	5.000	993.000	.000	.982
	Hotelling's Trace	55.386	10999.680 ^b	5.000	993.000	.000	.982
	Roy's Largest Root	55.386	10999.680 ^b	5.000	993.000	.000	.982
Gender	Pillai's Trace	.049	10.237 ^b	5.000	993.000	.000	.049
	Wilks' Lambda	.951	10.237 ^b	5.000	993.000	.000	.049
	Hotelling's Trace	.052	10.237 ^b	5.000	993.000	.000	.049
	Roy's Largest Root	.052	10.237 ^b	5.000	993.000	.000	.049
Disc_cat	Pillai's Trace	.010	2.056 ^b	5.000	993.000	.069	.010
	Wilks' Lambda	.990	2.056 ^b	5.000	993.000	.069	.010
	Hotelling's Trace	.010	2.056 ^b	5.000	993.000	.069	.010
	Roy's Largest Root	.010	2.056 ^b	5.000	993.000	.069	.010
Gender * Disc_cat	Pillai's Trace	.005	1.080 ^b	5.000	993.000	.370	.005
	Wilks' Lambda	.995	1.080 ^b	5.000	993.000	.370	.005
	Hotelling's Trace	.005	1.080 ^b	5.000	993.000	.370	.005
	Roy's Largest Root	.005	1.080 ^b	5.000	993.000	.370	.005

a. Design: Intercept + Gender + Disc_cat + Gender * Disc_cat

b. Exact statistic

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

		Type III Dependent					Partial
Source	Variable	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Eta Squared
Corrected Model	Ability Utilisation	15.990 ^a	3	5.330	10.821	.000	.032
	Strategy	23.652 ^b	3	7.884	16.694	.000	.048
	Personal treatment	5.708 ^c	3	1.903	5.343	.001	.016
	Individual Performance	17.181 ^d	3	5.727	9.663	.000	.028
	Team performance	56.728 ^e	3	18.909	18.265	.000	.052
	Intercept	Ability Utilisation	15438.188	1	15438.188	31342.389	.000
Intercept	Strategy	15716.452	1	15716.452	33278.344	.000	.971
	Personal treatment	16854.902	1	16854.902	47335.551	.000	.979
	Individual Performance	14882.326	1	14882.326	25111.326	.000	.962
	Team performance	13561.576	1	13561.576	13099.702	.000	.929
	Gender	Ability Utilisation	10.096	1	10.096	20.498	.000
Gender	Strategy	14.458	1	14.458	30.614	.000	.030
	Personal treatment	3.851	1	3.851	10.814	.001	.011
	Individual Performance	13.645	1	13.645	23.024	.000	.023
	Team performance	45.903	1	45.903	44.340	.000	.043
	Disc_cat	Ability Utilisation	1.922	1	1.922	3.902	.049
Disc_cat	Strategy	4.290	1	4.290	9.083	.003	.009
	Personal treatment	.452	1	.452	1.269	.260	.001
	Individual Performance	.635	1	.635	1.072	.301	.001
	Team performance	2.799	1	2.799	2.703	.100	.003
	Gender * Disc_cat	Ability Utilisation	3.691E-5	1	3.691E-5	.000	.993
Gender * Disc_cat	Strategy	.541	1	.541	1.146	.285	.001
	Personal treatment	.001	1	.001	.004	.949	.000
	Individual Performance	.200	1	.200	.337	.562	.000
	Team performance						

Team performance		3.392	1	3.392	3.276	.071	.003
Error	Ability Utilisation	491.088	997	.493			
	Strategy	470.856	997	.472			
	Personal treatment	355.005	997	.356			
	Individual Performance	590.876	997	.593			
	Team performance	1032.153	997	1.035			
	Total	Ability Utilisation	18916.800	1001			
Strategy		19203.920	1001				
Personal treatment		20541.960	1001				
Individual Performance		18435.222	1001				
Team performance		17313.556	1001				
Corrected Total		Ability Utilisation	507.078	1000			
	Strategy	494.508	1000				
	Personal treatment	360.712	1000				
	Individual Performance	608.057	1000				
	Team performance	1088.880	1000				

- a. R Squared = .032 (Adjusted R Squared = .029)
 b. R Squared = .048 (Adjusted R Squared = .045)
 c. R Squared = .016 (Adjusted R Squared = .013)
 d. R Squared = .028 (Adjusted R Squared = .025)
 e. R Squared = .052 (Adjusted R Squared = .049)

APPENDIX E ETHICAL CLEARANCE

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION STUDIES
FACULTY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY EDUCATION
DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, PHYSICAL EDUCATION & RECREATION

TELEPHONE: +233 - (0)206610931 / (0)543021384 /
(0)268392819

TELEX: 2552, UCC, GH

Our Ref: ET/PED/17/0001/



EMAIL: hpere@ucc.edu.gh

Cables & Telegrams:
UNIVERSITY, CAPE COAST

11th July, 2019

The Chairman
Institutional Review Board
University of Cape Coast
Cape Coast

Dear Sir,

APPLICATION FOR ETHICAL CLEARANCE

The bearer of this letter, Mr. Richard Samuel Kwadwo Abieraba, is a PhD student of the above-named Department. I support his application for ethical clearance from your outfit. He is conducting a research on the topic "**Influence of Coach Leadership Behaviour on Athletes' Satisfaction and Performance in Senior High School, Ashanti Region**" as part of the requirements for obtaining a Doctor of Philosophy degree in Physical Education at the University of Cape Coast.

I am the Principle Supervisor of his work and he has satisfied the conditions for data collection. I shall be grateful if he is given the necessary assistance.

Thank you.

Yours faithfully,

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'D. Apaak'.

Dr. Daniel Apaak
(Principal Supervisor)
Tel: +233-20-8587866
Email: daniel.apaak@ucc.edu.gh

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION STUDIES
FACULTY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY EDUCATION
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EMAIL: hper@ucc.edu.gh

Cables & Telegrams:
UNIVERSITY, CAPE COAST

11th July, 2019

The Chairman
Institutional Review Board
University of Cape Coast
Cape Coast

Dear Sir,

**APPLICATION FOR ETHICAL CLEARANCE
(MR. RICHARD SAMUEL KWADWO ABIERABA – ET/PED/17/0001)**

The above named person is a student of the Department of Health, Physical Education and Recreation of the University of Cape Coast. He is pursuing a Doctor of Philosophy degree in Physical Education. In partial fulfilment of the requirements for the programme, he is conducting a research for his thesis titled **"Influence of Coach Leadership Behaviour on Athletes' Satisfaction and Performance in Senior High School, Ashanti Region"**.

He has satisfied the conditions for data collection and we kindly request that he is granted ethical clearance to enable him conduct the research. Attached is his application for your consideration.

We count on your usual co-operation.

Thank you.

Yours faithfully,

Dr. Daniel Apaak
HEAD
Tel: +233-20-8587866
Email: daniel.apaak@ucc.edu.gh

atted.

NOBIS

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD SECRETARIAT

TEL: 03321-33172/3 / 0207355653/ 0244207814

C/O Directorate of Research, Innovation and Consultancy

E-MAIL: irb@ucc.edu.gh

OUR REF: UCC/IRB/A/2016/517

YOUR REF:

OMB NO: 0990-0279

IORG #: IORG0009096

22ND AUGUST, 2019

Mr. Richard Samuel Kwadwo Abieraba
 Department of Health, Physical Education and Recreation
 University of Cape Coast.

Dear Mr. Abieraba,

ETHICAL CLEARANCE -ID: (UCCIRB/CES/2019/36)

The University of Cape Coast Institutional Review Board (UCCIRB) has granted **Provisional Approval** for the implementation of your research protocol titled **Influence of Coach Leadership Behavior on Athletes' Satisfaction and Performance in Senior High Schools, Ashanti Region**. This approval requires that you submit periodic review of the protocol to the Board and a final full review to the UCCIRB on completion of the research. The UCCIRB may observe or cause to be observed procedures and records of the research during and after implementation.

Please note that any modification of the project must be submitted to the UCCIRB for review and approval before its implementation.

You are also required to report all serious adverse events related to this study to the UCCIRB within seven days verbally and fourteen days in writing.

Always quote the protocol identification number in all future correspondence with us in relation to this protocol.

Yours faithfully,

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'S. Owusu'.

Samuel Asiedu Owusu, PhD
 UCCIRB Administrator

ADMINISTRATIVE
 INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD
 UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST