A COMPARISON OF LEADERSHIP STYLES OF SUCCESSFUL AND

UNSUCCESSFUL COLLEGIATE WOMEN BASKETBALL COACHES

by

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## DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my parents,
. It is by means of
their love, inspiration, and sacrifice that I have
been able to find the strength and contentment for
myself.

I love you and may God bless you.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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Chapter I

INTRODUCTION

Leadership of athletic teams has become a subject of major concern
in recent years. The knowledge of what qualities a successful leader
should possess seems limited in the sporting world. However, the desires
of the athletic coach to become an effective leader is no different from
the desires of a school principal or company president.

The success or failure of an athletic team can depend on the leader-
ship qualities of the coach (Lewis, 1978). Coaches, like other leaders,
have sought to attain leadership qualities that would consistently help
them win games. A particular coach may have an advantage over other
coaches who may be equally qualified in coaching ability, but lack the
necessary leadership qualities to be a winning coach (Wardell, 1977).

Coaches look to the highly successful coach in an attempt to de-
termine and emulate the winning coach's leadership style (Cratty, 1973).
This is especially true of new coaches, coaches who have not been too
successful, and women coaches. These individuals want to learn coach-
ing or leadership techniques that could change their season from a
losing one to a winning one. Too frequently, coaches are not aware of
good leadership practices or how to be effective in the varied situa-
tions of coaching.

According to Gallon (1974), leadership style ranks with athletic
talent as being the most important criterion in determining athletic

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success. In fact, Gallon emphasized that proper leadership style is probably the key factor in athletic success.

Cratty (1973) added another factor:

> The coach may also find information about dynamics of leadership helpful with reference to his own behavior. Some coaches assume that because a higher authority (athletic director or board of education) has bestowed upon them the title of "coach," this automatically endows them with certain leadership qualities. Upon finding that the team members do not follow their lead as they had hoped, they are often at a loss to explain why and have difficulty examining their personal impact upon their team members. (p. 228)

Singer (1975) indicated the effectiveness and productivity of an athletic team depends on many factors, among which are: (a) the extent to which the goal is accepted by the group; (b) previous group experiences at success and failure; (c) the use of differential skills within the group; (d) the acceptance of leadership of the group and leadership persistence; and (e) the ability and special skills of the members.

Leadership research indicated the effectiveness of leaders depends not only on the leader but also on those being led. Leadership effectiveness also depends on the conditions or situations under which the leader must operate (Fiedler, 1967; Fiedler & Chemers, 1974).

Wardell (1977) described effective leadership as the coach's ability to identify particular situations that best suit his/her personality and leadership style. Wardell also suggested successful coaching depends on the coach's ability to change certain aspects of competitive situations to supplement his/her style of leadership.

A majority of leadership research involves the male leader or male coach; very little evidence was found that investigates women in

leadership roles (Bird, 1977). Women's sports programs are rapidly expanding, and little information is known about women in the leadership role as coach. Therefore, an investigation of leadership styles and the success of women coaches is now not only appropriate, but should be of genuine value.

## Statement of the Problem

The purpose of this study was to identify and to compare leadership styles of successful and unsuccessful collegiate women basketball coaches. The coaches were classified into two groups solely by career winning percentages. Specifically, the study was designed to answer the following research questions.

### Research Question 1:

What percentage of successful and unsuccessful responses are grouped into each of the leadership styles measured by the Leadership Ability Evaluation (LAE) scores? (See Appendix A for LAE questionnaire.)

### Research Question 2:

Does a relationship exist between successful and unsuccessful women basketball coaches as measured by LAE scores and winning percentages?

### Research Question 3:

What percentage of successful and unsuccessful responses are grouped into each of the leadership dimensions measured by the Coaches Leadership

Evaluation Questionnaire (CLEQ)? (See Appendix B, Part 2, for the CLEQ.)

Research Question 4:

Does a relationship exist between successful and unsuccessful women basketball coaches as measured by CLEQ scores?

Research Question 5:

Does a relationship exist between the ages of successful and un-successful women basketball coaches?

Research Question 6:

Does a relationship exist between the number of years of experience of successful and unsuccessful women basketball coaches?

Research Question 7:

Does a relationship exist between the educational level of success-ful and unsuccessful women basketball coaches?

Research Question 8:

Does a relationship exist between the major field of study of suc-cessful and unsuccessful women basketball coaches?

Research Question 9:

What percentage of successful and unsuccessful women basketball coaches are employed in Divisions 1, 2, and 3?

Research Question 10:

What percentage of successful and unsuccessful coaches have coaching certificates?

## Need for the Study

According to Farris (1979), the emergence of females in sports is largely a twentieth century phenomenon. Their numbers are increasing at all levels of competition. The female coach must provide solid leadership to promote quality programs for the emerging woman athlete (Sisley, 1981).

Eggert (1978) indicated as athletes are provided with better equipment, increased opportunities for participation in national and world competition, and scholarships, it becomes important to prepare coaches to direct these athletes. However, many variables affect an institution's approach to training coaches. Cleland (1977) noted differences among state teaching certification requirements, state coaching certification requirements and curriculums of teacher training programs. Regardless of the various factors that distinguish training programs from one another, there is a need for common concepts directed toward the preparation of coaches. Eggert added, "if athletes are expected to be skilled enough to represent our institutions, then coaches should have the skills necessary for their coaching assignments" (p. 7). The need for research to identify significant factors that can help predict success in coaching is imperative at this time.

Another area of concern focuses on the lack of the gender variable in leadership studies. Although leadership research has focused mainly on males, there is little in comparison that has been found available concerning females (Craven, 1980; Denmark, 1977; Wardell, 1977). With the rapid expansion of women's athletics, a delineation of what constitutes successful female leadership could be of service to ambitious women coaches.

## Limitations of the Study

This study is limited to:

1. The 1981-1982 collegiate women basketball coaches from Region 2 and Region 3 of the Association for Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (AIAW). Region 2 consists of five states, Region 3 consists of four states. Therefore, findings from this study should not be generalized to include women coaches in other states.

2. The career winning percentage of each coach. Winning percentages above .500 are classified as successful coaches. Winning percentages of .500 or below are classified as unsuccessful coaches. Other criteria for success might group the same coaches differently.

3. The accuracy of the coaches' responses relative to the choices of answers offered for the items on each of the selected instruments.

## Definition of Terms

To understand the terms used in this study, the following definitions are provided:

Association for Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (AIAW): A national voluntary organization currently administering programs for women's intercollegiate athletics for over 900 two- and four-year college and university member institutions (AIAW Directory, 1978-1980).

Division Classification: Member institutions may be divided within the class of active membership on several bases such as: size of female student enrollment, type of institution, amount of financial aid based upon athletic ability, and level of competition. The following divisions of active membership have been established:

1. Size of female student enrollment

    a) small college/university--3,000 and under full-time female undergraduate enrollment.

    b) large college/university--over 3,000 full-time female undergraduate enrollment.

2. Amount of financial aid based on athletic ability

    a) Division I--100% of AIAW Maximum Permissible Aid.

    b) Division II--50% of AIAW Maximum Permissible Aid.

    c) Division III--10% of AIAW Maximum Permissible Aid. The aid received by the student-athlete in any sport shall count in the 10% in each Division Three sport in which that student-athlete competes (AIAW Directory, 1979-1980).

Leadership: For purposes of this study the concept of leadership means the ability to influence other persons or groups to move psychologically toward the leader's objectives. Leadership thus incorporates

approaches or techniques influencing the behavior of others (Cassell & Stanick, 1961).

Leadership Behavior: According to Fiedler (1967) leadership behavior pertains to the particular acts in which a leader engages during the course of direction and coordinating the work of group members. This behavior may involve such acts as structuring the work relations, praising or criticizing group members, and showing consideration for the welfare and feelings of the group members.

Leadership Style: A coach's leadership style is the manner in which his or her underlying need-structure motivates behavior in various situations (Fiedler, 1967).

Leadership Effectiveness: Leadership effectiveness is the measured quality of the group's performance of its major assigned task (Fiedler, 1967).

Region 2: The southern area of AIAW. This section consists of five states: Kentucky, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee, and Virginia (AIAW Directory, 1978-1979).

Region 3: The southeastern area of the AIAW. This section consists of four states: Alabama, Florida, Georgia, and Mississippi.

Winning Percentage: A coach's winning percentage accounts for the total number of games won and total number of games lost during his or her entire coaching career as calculated according to the following formula:

$$\frac{\text{Games Won} \times 100}{\text{Total Games}} = \text{Winning Percentage}$$

## Organization of the Study

Chapter I has included a general introduction, a statement of the problem, the need for the study, possible limitations of the study, and a definition of essential terms. Previous research studies and professional literature are summarized in Chapter II. The methodology and procedures are described in Chapter III. Research findings, and the analysis of accumulated data are presented in Chapter IV. Chapter V includes the summary of purpose, summary of procedures, discussion, findings, conclusions, and recommendations.

Chapter II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

In this chapter the researcher reviews and summarizes literature
pertaining to leadership studies.  The review of related literature con-
sists of five sections:  (a) a brief historical overview of leadership
studies; (b) an examination of theories of leadership; (c) a review of
research pertaining to the classifications of leadership styles;
(d) studies of leadership in athletics; and (e) an examination of women
and leadership.

## Historical Overview

Leadership research goes back throughout recorded history.  It was
initially held that leaders were born--that some men were endowed with
special gifts to be leaders.  During the past several decades, however,
the concept that leadership ability is inherited has been questioned
(Swartz, 1973).

In a democracy, no one is given a leadership role via birthright.
Fiedler states, "Where there is no hereditary aristocracy, every man
is potentially a leader, and society has to give thought to the identi-
fication and proper training of men who will be able to guide its
institutions" (Fiedler, 1967, p. 3).  Today's democratic society pro-
vides the opportunity for individuals to develop and exercise leader-
ship roles.  "This diversity of leadership is a product of our

pluralistic way of life, and it is essential to the continuance of that way of life" (Gardner, 1961, p. 124).

Leadership research has produced a mass of findings. Misconceptions and misunderstandings persist in spite of advances being made in basic and applied research. In 1935, Ordway Tead stated:

> Moreover, there are in the exercise of leadership certain imponderables which will no doubt elude measurement for some time to come. And the further my study of this subject has progressed, the more I have become impressed with the crucial importance of these intangible psychic factors. (p. 9)

Thirty-four years later Lippitt (1969) researched the nature of leadership and commented on its evasiveness as follows: "The ingredients, prerequisites, and optimum styles of leadership have long eluded researchers even when they have thrown the spotlight of specific inquiry on it" (p. 83).

Leadership research first centered primarily on the study of traits characterizing effective leaders (Lassey & Fernandez, 1976). Researchers then focused on the study of the situation and environment which led to the analysis of leadership behavior (Swartz, 1973).

The functional approach to leadership studies developed as a result of situational research. According to Lippitt (1969), the functional concept maintains that leaders perform one of four functions: (1) decision-making, (2) providing information and advice, (3) planning, and (4) being a symbolic figurehead of a group.

## Leadership Theories

Leadership research has traditionally relied upon theoretical models. The interrelationship attached to each model has been the

responsibility of researchers as they relate an empirical investigation to a particular theoretical framework (Milner, 1976). Some of the theories reviewed in this section are those defined by Stodgill (1974). They attempt to explain: (1) the factors involved in the emergence of leadership, and (2) the nature of leadership.

## Great Man Theories

Initial attempts to understand leadership were based on the assumption that leaders are born, not made (Swartz, 1973). Stodgill (1974) cited Galton, Wiggam, and Woods, as researchers interested in the hereditary background of famous men.

Galton (1870) described leadership on the basis of genetic inheritance. Woods (1913) studied several nations over periods of five to ten centuries. He indicated:

> The conditions of each reign were found to approximate the
> ruler's capabilities. The brothers of kings (as a result
> of natural endowment, of course) also tended to become men
> of power and influence: . . . that the man makes the nation
> and shapes it in accordance with his abilities. (p. 17)

Wiggam (1931) advanced the proposition that an adequate supply of superior leaders will depend upon a proportionately high birth rate among the abler class.

Stodgill identified Bernard (1926), Bingham (1927), Kilbourne (1935), and Tead (1929) as supporters of the concept that leaders are endowed with superior qualities. This concept gave rise to the trait theory of leadership which explained leadership in terms of traits of personality and character.

## Environmental Theories

Stodgill (1974) cites Bogardus (1918), Hocking (1924), Mumford (1909), and Schneider (1937) as theorists who advanced the idea that the emergence of a great leader is a result of time, place, and circumstance. Mumford (1909) described the leader emerging as a result of abilities and skills. Bogardus (1918) introduced the notion that group leadership is determined by the nature of the group. Hocking (1924) advanced the theory of group leadership by suggesting that leadership is divested upon the leader when a plan or program is accepted by the group.

Schneider (1937) added a cultural observation to leadership situations. He observed that the number of national conflicts in certain countries was proportional to the number of military leaders; thus, relating the cultural observation to the achievement of leadership.

Dissatisfied with his colleagues, Murphy (1941) argued that leadership develops as a function of the occasion and not of a person. This concept led to the evolution of situational theory.

## Personal-Situational Theories

The Great Man and Environmental theorists explained leadership as an effect of a single set of forces. As research continued, the effects of situational factors were introduced as a third focus for study. Stodgill (1974) named Brown (1936), Case (1933), Gibb (1954), and Westburgh (1931) as researchers instrumental in proposing the five-field-dynamic laws of leadership. The laws state that the leader must: (1) have membership character, (2) be a representative in the social

field, (3) adapt to the existing field structure, (4) stay abreast of new trends in the field structure, and (5) be aware that leadership potency increases at the cost of a reduction in the freedom of leadership.

Bennis (1961), Cattell (1951), and Hollander (1964) suggested revisions to the theory. They introduced the following factors: (1) impersonal bureaucracy and rational measure, (2) informal and interpersonal relations, (3) benevolent autocracy, (4) employee-centered supervision, and (5) participative management.

## Interaction-Expectation Theories

According to Kemp (1977), several researchers dissatisfied with examining only the leader or the situation turned their attention to studying the interaction of these two variables. Bass (1960), Evans (1970), Fiedler (1967), and House (1971) advanced the theory of interaction-expectations.

Bass (1960) proposed a theory based on analyzing the effort of one member to change the motivation of other members or to change their behavior. Bass also supported the idea that leaders acquired their position by reinforcing behavior of group members. This reinforcement is done by granting or denying rewards or punishments.

Fiedler (1967) introduced the contingency theory of leadership. This theory is based on observing a pattern of leader behavior that is contingent upon the demands imposed by the situation.

Evans (1970) proposed the path-goal theory of leadership. This theory holds that leadership is determined by the follower's

perception of the abundance of rewards available to him.

House (1971) described the leader in terms of being able to in-
crease path availability by clarifying path-goal relationships. This
view of the leader's function led to a motivational theory of leader-
ship. This theory proposed that:

> The leader's motivational functions are to increase the net
> valences associated with work-goal attainment as well as
> with the path to such attainment, and to increase the
> subordinate's path instrumentality with respect to work-
> goal attainment for personal outcomes and behavior re-
> quired for work-goal attainment. (Stodgill, 1974, p. 21)

## Humanistic Theories

Argyris (1957), Blake and Morton (1961), Likert (1961), and
McGregor (1966) were concerned with the development of effective and
cohesive organizations. Their contention was that the function of
leadership is to provide freedom for the individual to fulfill his own
motivational needs and to contribute to the needs and accomplishments
of the organization.

## Exchange Theories

Gergin (1969), Homans (1958), March and Simon (1958), and Thibaut
and Kelly (1959) supported the concept of social exchange. The exchange
theory assumes that individuals make contributions at a cost to them-
selves in order to receive benefits from the group.

## Classifications of Leadership Styles

A variety of leadership patterns have been identified over time.
According to Swartz (1973), however, there seem to be four patterns of
leadership that recur in research. They are as follows:

1. Autocratic--Decision-making function resides in the leader with one-way communication and the role of the group is to follow orders. (p. 13)
2. Benevolently Autocratic--A resource type of person who has the answers; tends to manipulate the group using rewards and punishments. Such persons listen, but work to get things done according to their own preferences. (p. 13)
3. Democratic--Group decision process with the "we" feeling developed. There is two-way communication in depth, and good morale usually results. (p. 14)
4. Laissez-Faire--Individual decision actions by all. Minimum influence by the leader with no directions given at all. (p. 14)

Lewin, Lippitt, and White (1939) published their studies using three of these four categories. They reported the effectiveness of democratic, autocratic, and laissez-faire leadership styles with boys' clubs. Findings from these studies revealed that hostility was 30 times as frequent in the autocratic group as in the democratic group. Aggression was eight times as frequent in the autocratic group as in the democratic group. Nineteen out of 20 boys liked their democratic leader better than their autocratic leader; seven out of 10 boys liked their laissez-faire leader better than their autocratic leader. These particular studies raised questions regarding the extent to which the leader should assume the major responsibility of the group. According to Mann (1959), subsequent research failed to support the proposition that one style is more effective than the other.

McGrath (1962) clustered leadership into two categories. The first category classified leaders as autocratic, controlling, managing, directive, or task-oriented. Leaders who were democratic, permissive, non-directive, and considerate of group members' feelings were classified into the second group.

Fiedler (1967) grouped the four categories identified by Swartz (1973) into two major styles of leadership. The first style was task-oriented. The primary goal of this style was for the leader to control the group and to gain satisfaction from performing the task. The leader could be autocratic, managing, or directive while interacting with group members. Fiedler's second style was oriented toward achieving good interpersonal relations. The leader could be democratic, permissive, or nondirective toward group members.

The complexities of leadership and the variety of groups made it difficult to establish one single style for all occasions (Swartz, 1973). Cammalleri and Hendrick (1973) published an article comparing Fiedler's Contingency Model and Hersey and Blanchard's "Life Cycle Theory." The authors questioned what determines successful leadership. They stated:

> Life Cycle Theory contends that maturity of the group (psychological age) is the primary determinant of effective leadership style whether democratic (concern for people, relationships) or authoritarian (concern for task, production, autocracy) and that the style is synonymous with behavior rather than personality. Consequently, if the leader properly employs diagnostic skills, he may accurately estimate the group's maturity level and employ the appropriate leadership style regardless of his own personality tendencies. (p. 32)

The authors cite Fiedler's Contingency Model as follows:

> The leader's underlying personality structure and tendencies constitute dominant constraints for successful leadership. Leaders should seek positions primarily on compatibility of personality with organizational and environmental variables in order to maximize probability of leader success. (p. 32)

The works of Schmidt (1961) and Tannenbaum (1961) also indicated the difficulties in establishing one style. They proposed that the forces of the leader, the group members, and the situation combine in order for the leader to spontaneously react to a situation with the appropriate style of leadership.

Lippitt (1969) reinforced the concept of flexibility on the part of the leader by commenting:

> There can be no one set style of leadership which we can develop in ourselves or teach to others. Leadership must be flexible in style to meet the need of a particular situation which involves an individual, a group, an organization, or a nation. (p. 87)

Lippitt also indicated the effectiveness of leadership, regardless of what the situation may be, comes through confrontation, search, and coping.

## Leadership in Athletics

The cultural revolution in American society is creating a transformation from traditional values to new and different values (Scott, 1971). This revolution has penetrated into various spheres of American life including sports. According to Sage (1973), one area of concern has been organized sports with special attention directed to athletic coaches. Sage criticized coaches for possessing value orientations that are too traditional for current American lifestyles. According to Jacob (1967): "It has been claimed that conflicts over values have been responsible for the struggles which have taken place in recent years between coaches, their athletes, and other student populations (p. 71).

Accordingly, athletic coaches are being forced into reassessing their current ideas concerning interpersonal relationships. These relationships are especially in a leadership context, and coaches are attempting to develop more effective personal relationships with their athletes (Cratty, 1973).

Several critics such as Scott (1965) and Ogilvie (1971) claimed that traditional sports practices and values are dehumanizing and brutalizing and that coaches are insensitive and autocratic. Scott also indicated:

> The value orientations of coaches are so conservative as to be almost aberrant, that these values are so incongruous with those held by their athletes that they produce a great deal of frustration and conflict between coaches and athletes. (p. 208)

Tutko and Richards (1971) suggested that, as leaders, coaches are strong in discipline, rigid with rules, and have impersonal attitudes toward athletes. Cratty (1973) added "the available research indicated that coaches tend to score higher on measures of authoritarianism than does the normal population" (p. 24).

Throughout the years coaches have reacted to this confrontation of traditional leadership styles in different ways. Underwood (1969) indicated that some coaches have recognized society's changes and have adopted leadership styles that are operationally sound today. Scott (1971) reacted to the problem coaches are having as they attempt to change their leadership style and stated:

> There are many coaches who though having a genuine concern for the athletes they work with, are finding it difficult to open up and begin honestly communicating with them.

> These coaches feel that they will lose their authority and
> the athletes' respect if they begin behaving in a democratic
> manner.  (p. 127)

Fariss (1979) noted that the coach should react to the individuality of

human personality and eliminate the traditional and emotional autocratic

atmosphere so often witnessed in sports today. Wisnieski (1980) stresses

the inadequacies of the traditional, rigid, old-fashioned coaching style

and suggests that coaches add creativity in their coaching endeavors.

The subject of leadership is a complex phenomenon.  According to

Swartz (1973), it is becoming a more self-conscious process with the

individual choosing one style or rejecting another in order to react to

the situation.  Nevertheless, today's coach has been increasingly asked

to re-evaluate his/her leadership style.

## Research Findings

Dennis (1972) stated the majority of research on athletic leader-

ship has been in the areas of athletic administration, the personality

of coaches, and the behavior of athletic directors.  There is a compara-

tive dearth of literature dealing directly with leadership styles and

team success (Bird, 1977; Wardell, 1977).

## Studies Assessing Leadership Styles

In a study designed to assess leadership style, Swartz (1973)

investigated 72 collegiate football coaches.  Each coaches' score re-

flected a tendency toward one or more of the following four leadership

styles:  laissez-faire, democratic-cooperative, autocratic-submissive,

and autocratic-aggressive.  The coaches were divided into two groups

according to their college level career coaching record. The top 50 percent were classified as successful, and the bottom 50 percent were classified unsuccessful. Swartz concluded that successful and unsuccessful coaches employ basically the same leadership style.

In Brunnemer's (1980) doctoral dissertation, personal characteristics and attributes of highly successful collegiate basketball and football coaches were investigated. Twenty-seven male basketball and football coaches rated 23 characteristics and attributes considered important to successful coaching. In a collective judgment by the coaches, the "drive to succeed" characteristic emerged as most important. The characteristic of "authoritarianism" was not judged significant to the coaches' success.

In another study of leadership, Wardell (1977) attempted to determine the relationship between leadership styles and team success. His sample consisted of 84 high school male coaches in football, basketball, wrestling, and track and field. Leadership styles were assessed by the Least Preferred Co-Worker Scale (LPC) (developed by Fiedler in 1967). Winning percentages determined team success. Wardell's results did not demonstrate a great degree of significance between LPC variables. The relationship between the LPC and team success was also not significant.

Inciong (1974) also attempted to determine a relationship between leadership styles and team success. His sample consisted of 43 high school basketball coaches. Inciong concluded that leadership styles of task-oriented and impersonally-oriented high school basketball coaches are unrelated to team success.

## Studies Involving Personality Makeup of Coaches

Studies investigating the personality makeup of physical educators and coaches have revealed several commonalities. In 1965 Mudra attempted to determine the leadership behaviors of collegiate football coaches by assessing the coaches' application of learning principles. The gestalt-field approach was used by coaches who viewed learning as an acquisition of cognitive structures. The stimulus-response approach was used by coaches who viewed learning as the acquisition of habits brought about by trial and error. Mudra concluded that small college coaches are more gestalt-field oriented, and major university coaches are more stimulus-response oriented.

Ogilvie and Tutko (1966) studied the personality makeup of 64 coaches from various sports. The coaches were compared with the norms of college males to distinguish them from the average male. The coaches scored extremely low in their willingness to care and understand the behaviors of others. As a group, the coaches were disinterested in providing the emotional support athletes often need. During the study by Ogilvie and Tutko, several coaches reminded the researchers: "I'm no social worker; my job is to teach how to win" (p. 24).

Andrud (1974) studied 19 collegiate football coaches and found certain traits that ranked higher than the norm on the Guilford-Zimmerman Temperament Survey. The coaches scored higher on success drive and sociability.

Hendry (1974) tested the similarities and differences between the personalities of physical education teachers and coaches. His study

concluded that there are similarities in dominance and authoritarianism between the groups. Dissimilarities were found in other dimensions suggesting that the two groups are significantly different.

Penman, Hastad, and Cords (1974) examined the success of high school coaches who exhibit an authoritarian personality. The subjects used were 30 head football coaches and 34 head basketball coaches from schools in Minnesota and Washington. The results indicated that successful coaches are more authoritarian in nature.

## Studies of Women and Leadership

An examination of leadership development within the women's movement indicates that choosing a leadership style has provoked intense discussions among women (Adickes, 1977). A number of women have rejected any form of authoritarian leadership because this type resembles the style displayed often by men (Hart, 1980). Hart also suggested that some women have replaced the authoritarian style with a laissez-faire model. With this model there is no designated leader; instead, leaders emerge and submerge as needed. However, several problems developed from using this model. Hart listed the problems as follows: (1) individuals with specialized skills were unable to use them; (2) individuals who did use special skills were taken as a threat; (3) individuals outside of the group were unable to identify contacts; (4) it took more time to get work done; and (5) problems had to be reviewed by the entire group before action was taken.

In an analysis of leadership styles, Adickes (1977) also reviewed components for an alternate leadership style for women. This study suggested that female administrators are more principled and are more devoted to human concerns than male administrators. Adickes' conclusions suggested that decisions by men are more situationally-derived and less principled than decisions by women.

Research findings of women in sexually mixed groups indicate reluctance by women to assume leadership positions. On a scale to determine dominance, Megargee (1969) showed that women who were high in dominance were unwilling to take on a leadership role. The study also showed when high dominant women were paired with low dominant men, 20 percent took the leader's role over the low dominant men. However, when high dominant women were paired with low dominant women, 70 percent of the high dominant women took the leader's role.

Maier (1970) conducted a study that indicated women may be stronger leaders if the solution to a task is given to them rather than left for them to formulate. Male leaders in the study consistently solved the problem whether the solution had been given to them or devised by them.

Day and Stodgill (1972), however, investigated 38 men and 38 women supervisors and concluded that male and female supervisors are similar in leader behavior and effectiveness. According to Mamola (1979), this conclusion leads one to speculate how effective female leaders can be identified and promoted to important positions.

Research Findings in Physical Education

and Athletics

According to Kemp (1977), leader behavior literature addressing

women in physical education and athletics was limited until the 1960s

and 1970s. Kemp also indicated that for this reason, determining an

area of concentration among studies was difficult.

In 1973, Allen investigated leadership and group interaction among

female physical education administrators. The subjects were 27 ad-

ministrators of college and university physical education departments

and 176 full-time faculty members. Allen concluded the following:

(1) administrators do not favor one style of leadership; (2) administra-

tors are more relation-oriented than task-oriented; (3) faculty members

as a group have firm convictions that leaders who are concerned about

the well-being and status of faculty members allow the faculty to par-

ticipate in more decision making than leaders who are not concerned; and

(4) faculty members' perceptions of their administrator's leadership

behavior differ significantly from the estimate given by the adminis-

trators.

Buckeiwicz (1974) analyzed the leader behavior in physical educa-

tion departments of community colleges of California, Washington, and

Oregon. Buckiewicz compared perceptions of faculty and department chair-

persons. The Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire, Form XII,

was used and the responses were analyzed by means of analyses of vari-

ance and t-test. The results indicated that: (1) mixed departments

with male chairpersons differ significantly in their perceptions of the

leadership behavior of their chairpersons; (2) leader maturity does not affect faculty perceptions of leader behavior; and (3) department heads have a tendency to think they are more considerate than faculty members.

Milner (1976) compared the leadership behavior of male and female physical education department heads. The data from 49 department heads and 427 faculty members were used. Milner concluded that department heads described their leadership behavior as more consideration and initiation of structure than the faculty members who described their department head's leadership behavior. Milner also indicated that male and female department heads describe the consideration dimension of leadership behavior basically the same way. In addition, female chairpersons described themselves as displaying more initiation of structure than male chairpersons described themselves as displaying.

In another study investigating the perceptions of leader behavior, Kemp (1977) selected 129 physical educators from eight colleges and universities. The subjects were asked to sort statements from "most like" to "least like" on a 64-item Q-sort. The results of this study indicated that physical educators perceive women physical education administrators' behavior relative to a concern for individuals and a concern for getting the job done. The results do not support the assumption that women lack natural characteristics that are necessary to be effective administrators.

Bird (1977) presented some pertinent facts concerning discrimination between successful and unsuccessful sport teams. Her findings revealed

promising research in the area of group cohesion. Teams classified as interacting were: volleyball, basketball, and hockey. Teams classified as co-acting were: bowling and rifle teams. The first hypothesis tested was that coaches and players associated with winning teams perceived greater within-team cohesion than losing teams. This hypothesis received confirmation upon examination of the data for interacting groups. The second hypothesis was that winning coaches and players perceived coaches' leadership style to be more task-oriented than socio-emotional. This hypothesis received only partial confirmation for co-acting groups.

## Summary of the Chapter

The review of research studies and general literature provided helpful direction and data relative to the rationale, organization, and design of this study. The review was presented to develop an understanding of past reported research.

Literature revealed that leadership research goes back throughout recorded history and the subject has been under inquiry from many points of view. Several approaches to effective leadership included personality trait analysis, classification of leadership styles, situational factors, and functional diagnosis. Within the past thirty years a transition from traditional authoritarian styles of leadership to a more people-centered democratic approach has developed. This transformation has penetrated into various spheres of American life, especially athletics. The question of authority was discovered to be a central issue in

coaching, and the classification of leadership styles has become a major factor.

Coaches have reacted to this confrontation of traditional leadership styles in different ways. Some coaches have adopted styles that are operationally accepted today. However, there are some who are finding it difficult to honestly communicate with their players.

There is a dearth of literature concerning women coaches. Studies have not produced sufficient evidence to indicate whether female coaches have or have not conformed to particular leadership styles. Leadership development within the women's movement indicated that choosing a leadership style has provoked intense discussions among women. However, an awareness of the need for researchers in this area may eventually lead to more empirical data, which is required to better understand leadership roles of women.

# Chapter III

## METHODOLOGY AND PROCEDURES

The purpose of this study was to identify and compare leadership styles of successful and unsuccessful collegiate women basketball coaches. Providing structure for the study are ten research questions addressing the success and failure of women coaches. The research questions not only produced information regarding collegiate women basketball coaches, but also made comparisons between two levels of coaches--the successful coach and the unsuccessful coach. The two levels of coaches were classified solely by career winning percentages. The procedures used to accomplish this purpose are outlined under the following headings: (1) population of the study, (2) instrumentation, (3) collection of the data, and (4) analysis of the data.

## Population of the Study

Subjects for this study consisted of 1981-1982 collegiate women basketball coaches from nine states. The states represent Region 2 and Region 3 of the Association for Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (AIAW). Names and addresses were acquired from the 1980-1981 National Directory of College Athletics and the 1978-1980 AIAW Directory. Additional information received from AIAW National Headquarters in Washington, D.C. provided further information for identifying names and addresses of the coaches.

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Screening of colleges and universities from Region 2 and Region 3 indicated 100 institutions employing women to coach women's basketball. The data presented in Table 1 and Table 2 provide the number of institutions located in each state.

## Instrumentation

The following instruments were selected for use in this study: (1) the Leadership Ability Evaluation (LAE), (2) the Coaches' Demographic Questionnaire (see Appendix B, Part 1), and (3) the Coaches' Leadership Evaluation Questionnaire (CLEQ). A description of the instruments is provided in this section.

### The Leadership Ability Evaluation Questionnaire (LAE)

This questionnaire was designed by Russell N. Cassel and Edward G. Stancik (1961). It consists of 50 items, each of which constitutes a small leader-group type situation. The items are equally distributed in the following activity areas: home and family, school, work, recreation, and community. For each item the subjects are asked to select one of four choices as a means of influencing persons or groups in his/her role as a leader. Each of the four choices represent a different leader decision pattern and integrates one of four part scores on the questionnaire. Cassel and Stancik (1961) identified the four parts as follows:

> Part I--laissez-faire, an individual group member centered decision pattern. The leader exercises a minimum influence on the others but always is available to group members in the role of an advisor. Part II--democratic cooperative, a parliamentary procedure centered decision pattern. The chief

Table 1

The Number of Institutions Within Each State of the

Southern Region of the AIAW (Region 2)

| Region 2 (Southern) | |
|---|---|
| State | Number of Institutions |
| Kentucky | 10 |
| North Carolina | 20 |
| South Carolina | 10 |
| Tennessee | 7 |
| Virginia | 25 |
| Total | 72 |

Table 2

The Number of Institutions Within Each State of the

Southeastern Region of the AIAW (Region 3)

| Region 3 (Southeastern) | |
| --- | --- |
| State | Number of Institutions |
| Alabama | 9 |
| Florida | 6 |
| Georgia | 8 |
| Mississippi | 5 |
| Total | 28 |

concept of the leader is to emphasize the will of the group or the individual involved. The leader retains the dual role of leader and group member. Part III--autocratic submissive, a resource person centered decision pattern. The leader emphasizes the use of advisors and resource persons. Part IV-- autocratic aggressive, the leader alone makes action decisions. Group objectives and action plans are released bits at a time to the individual members for their parts in the action, as required. (p. 2)

Two principal aspects are included in the interpretation of LAE scores. First, the Total Score or Decision Pattern. This score represents an individual's characteristic decision pattern in comparison to groups comprising the normative data. The Total Score represents a composite weighting of part scores discerning optimally between outstanding leaders and typical individuals based on leadership achievements (Cassel, 1963). A Total Score of 10 discerns between outstanding and typical individuals. Total Scores of 10 and lower are indicative of effective leaders while Total Scores above 10 are indicative of ineffective leaders.

Secondly, interpretations are made from part scores and profile analysis. Part scores are compared with the norms for typical individuals and outstanding leaders. Raw scores are converted to T-score values. Part scores falling above the 60th or below the 40th T-score indicate either high or low degrees of leadership qualities in relation to norm groups used. For example: Laissez-faire--scores above 12 or or T-scores of 60 and higher suggest excessive dependence upon group members for arriving at decisions. Scores below 4 or T-scores of 40 and lower represent little dependence for arriving at decisions. Democratic Cooperative--scores above 35 suggest excessive cooperation by the leader; scores below 20 suggest too little cooperation. Autocratic-Submissive--

scores above 13 suggest excessive use of resource persons; scores below 6 suggest too little use of such persons. Autocratic Aggressive--scores above 8 represent excessive use of leader dominated thinking; scores of 0 represent little use of leader dominated thinking (Cassel & Stancik, 1961).

## Development and Standardization

Face Validity--According to Cassel and Stancik (1961), this aspect of validity concerns the degree in which the LAE measures a decision making pattern that an individual uses as a leader. In the assessment of face validity, six research psychologists evaluated the structures used in the four part scores of the LAE; the psychologists agreed that the leadership patterns were incorporated in the structure of the LAE.

Content Validity--This aspect of validity concerns the range of leadership functions involved in the LAE. The 50 problems encompass life activities of individuals in western culture. Each of the four choices represents a different decision mode. These modes were described by Kurt Lewin and used extensively by Flanagan (Cassel & Stancik, 1961).

Status Validity--The degree to which the Total Score discerns between groups of outstanding leaders and typical individuals defines status validity. According to Cassel and Stancik (1961):

Multiple point bi-serial R's range from .296 to .780 when
groups of outstanding leaders were compared with other
groups. When leaders were compared with individuals of
average or lower I.Q.s or where compared individuals were
of junior high school age or younger, the $R_{pbis}$ range about
.400; where typical individuals were 17-18 years or older
and above, average I.Q.s, the $R_{pbis}$ were in the low .300's
and high .200's. (p. 3)

Construct Validity--This validity associates the relationship be-

tween the Total Score, other test scores, and psychological data

(Cassel & Stancik, 1961).

Prediction Validity--The authors explained prediction validity as:

The degree to which the Total Score on the LAE discerns be-
tween groups of outstanding leaders and typical individuals
in cross validation procedure b weights from one group are
used as a basis for discerning between other groups of cor-
responding individuals. By use of Total Scores on the use of
b weights, two groups of individuals, outstanding leaders,
and typical persons are compared. A Total Score of 10 (and
below) is the most effective cut-off score. (p. 3)

Reliability--Cassel and Stancik (1961) computed reliability indices

by the split-half method corrected by Spearman-Brown correction formula.

According to the authors: "The Total Score on the LAE has reliability

coefficients ranging from .73 to .91. The more experienced, more intel-

ligent, and higher social status groups have higher reliability coef-

ficients" (p. 3).

Studies Utilizing the Leadership Ability
Evaluation Questionnaire

A review of literature revealed several commonalities involving

research studies that utilized the Leadership Ability Evaluation Ques-

tionnaire (LAE). The following experimental studies were conducted to

further validate the questionnaire. However, the results of the LAE

will be described in this section.

While investigating the dynamics involved in effective leadership functions, Cassel and Haddox (1959) compared leadership test scores for matched groups of male and female 9th grade students. In addition to the LAE, the Leadership Q-Sort Test (LQT) authored by Cassel, was used to assess leadership values or philosophy. The results of the LAE showed no significant differences for part scores earned by male and female students. The results also indicated that sex differences were not statistically significant for part scores on either of the tests.

In another study by Cassel and Haddox (1959) the LQT and LAE were used to compare 100 typical ninth grade students to a group of gifted ninth and eleventh grade students. The authors concluded that:

> No significant difference was found between the typical and gifted students in terms of leadership values as measured by the LQT scores. However, a difference was obtained that has both statistical and practical significance for decision pattern as measured by the LAE scores. Gifted students exhibited scores which more closely approximated those of demonstrated leaders. Their decision pattern emphasizes parliamentary procedure and minimizes other decision patterns (autocratic aggressive, auto-cratic submissive, and laissez-faire). (p. 717)

Cassel and Sanders (1961) also compared two leadership tests. Seventy-two Apache youths of mixed sex were compared to 100 Anglo-American youth of mixed sex. Comparisons were also made between male and female Apache youth. The leadership tests used were: The Leadership Q-Sort Test (LQT), and the LAE.

According to the researchers, a statistically significant difference was obtained between Apache and Anglo youth. In terms of part scores, the differences may be described as: "(1) Apache youth are more laissez-faire, more autocratic aggressive, and more autocratic

submissive than Anglo youth; while (2) Anglo youth are more democratic
and cooperative than their Apache peers" (p. 22). In terms of the
characteristic leadership decision pattern, there were no statistically
significant sex differences among the Apache youth (Cassel & Sanders,
1961).

Additional correlations revealed a significant relationship be-
tween the age of the youth and both leadership scores. The youth with
higher I.Q.s and higher achievement scores performed better on the LAE,
but no differences appeared on the LQT.

Concerned with developing and implementing a leadership training
program, Cassel and Shafer (1961) conducted a study assessing the growth
of students during a training program. Seventy senior students enrolled
in two participating classes provided the necessary data for the study.
The tests used were: The Leadership Q-Sort Test (LQT), the LAE, the
Test of Social Insight (TSI), the Group Personality Projective Test
(GPPT), and the PSR (peer status ratings).

The data indicated statistically significant leadership and social
insight, growth, and development by the students. Data also indicated
that individuals with higher leadership and social insight scores profit
more from the training program. Cassel and Shafer (1961) noted:

> Students with the highest IQs and the best initial leadership
> decision patterns received the highest peer status ratings (are
> most popular among peers). The best students as indicated by
> the Iowa Tests of Educational Development (ITED) total score
> have best leadership values, the best personality patterns,
> least tension, best IQs, but least desirable leadership deci-
> sion patterns at the end of the study. (p. 203)

The authors also concluded: "Students with best personality patterns have best leadership values, have no relationship to initial leadership decision patterns, but have a significant negative relationship to terminal leadership decision patterns" (p. 303).

Cassel and Childers (1963) conducted a study of certain attributes of 45 high school varsity football players by using scores from a battery of psychological tests. The attributes being assessed were: "(1) intellectual capability and expected achievement, (2) varied areas of educational development, (3) characteristic leadership decision patterns, (4) social insight, and (5) personality tension and needs" (p. 64).

As a basis for comparative analysis five psychological tests were used: the California Test of Mental Maturity, Short Form (CTMM), the Iowa Tests of Educational Development (ITED), the Leadership Ability Evaluation (LAE), the Test of Social Insight (TSI), and the Group Personality Projective Test (GPPT).

The authors concluded that the mean leadership pattern score on the LAE for the 45 football players was better than the mean score for the high school student national norm, but the difference was not statistically significant (t-value 1.97). The mean part scores were within range for typical high school students on national norms (Cassel & Childers, 1963).

In 1963 a validation study of leadership and social insight was conducted by Cassel. The participants were 200 Phoenix College freshmen including the total female population of six freshmen psychology

classes and the total male population of three and one-half psychology classes (Cassel, 1963).

The study made comparative analyses between scores on two experimental tests of leadership and social insight. Additional test scores and data were also used for analysis. The additional tests included: two college aptitude tests, and three scholastic achievement tests. Additional data used included: grade point averages, credit hours, and chronological ages. The two experimental tests (LAE and TSI) were administered by instructors. The college guidance counselors administered the aptitude and achievement tests.

The evidence indicated that the Total Score on the LAE is significantly related to grade point averages. The author interpreted this finding to mean that students who earned high grades, especially while this study was being conducted, generated leadership decision pattern scores more similar to the norms for typical individuals than to the norms for outstanding leaders.

Cassel also indicated the leadership decision pattern score was unrelated to: scholastic achievement, expected achievement, credit hours, chronological age, and social insight. Sex difference was not a factor for the subjects in this study.

## Coaches' Demographic Questionnaire

The Coaches' Demographic Questionnaire provided the following background information: (1) career won-lost record, (2) current age, (3) highest academic achievement, (4) major field of study, (5) number

of years as collegiate coach, and (6) indication of coaching certifi-
cate. This information supplied data for analysis of research questions
numbers five through ten.

## Coaches' Leadership Evaluation Questionnaire (CLEQ)

The Coaches' Leadership Evaluation Questionnaire (CLEQ), which was
developed by this author, provided a tool for women coaches to describe
their own leadership behaviors when interacting with their players. The
CLEQ contains 15 items that describe specific ways leaders behave. The
respondents indicate the frequency in each item by circling one of the
following choices: rarely, sometimes, often, and very frequently. The
responses are scored on three dimensions of leadership styles: (1) demo-
cratic leadership style, (2) autocratic leadership style, and (3) laissez-
faire leadership style. The answers for each dimension are assigned
values ranging from one to four--four for the most positive answer and
one for the most negative. Both groups of coaches are assigned mean
scores for each dimension by averaging the scores for the five items in
that dimension. The mean score is interpreted as the index of the
leader's behavior.

The initial step in constructing the questionnaire consisted of col-
lecting a number of statements pertaining to characteristic behaviors of
coaches. Women basketball coaches of the Central Intercollegiate Athletic
Association (N = 5) submitted statements describing the behavior of coaches.
The behaviors were grouped by the coaches into three leadership dimensions.

During July, 1981, a pilot study was conducted that surveyed women
coaches of the Foot Hill and Piedmont High School District in Virginia
(N = 10). The primary purpose of the pilot study was to identify

useless or inadequate items in the CLEQ. The pilot study results also helped in modifying the items to diminish ambiguity in the final investigation.

## Collection of the Data

The survey instruments and directions were mailed in August, 1981 to each of the 100 coaches of Region 2 and Region 3 of the Association for Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (AIAW). Included with the instruments and directions was a cover letter (see Appendix C) that explained and endorsed the study, a pen, and a self-addressed stamped envelope.

Three weeks after the original survey instruments were mailed, a follow-up letter was mailed to all non-responding coaches (see Appendix D). A second follow-up letter (see Appendix E) was sent three weeks after the first follow-up letter. This last letter contained the questionnaires originally sent in the initial study. This procedure was employed to increase the percentage of returns (Manley, 1970).

Seventy-seven percent of the 100 questionnaires were returned. This provided the researcher with an adequate representation of raw data. According to Wiersma (1975): "75% is considered a good rate of return" (p. 144).

The survey instruments were coded with Arabic numbers one through nine to identify each state. In addition, the instruments were coded by initials to identify each institution. Potential respondents were assured that their replies would remain anonymous and confidential.

## Analysis of the Data

To analyze the data collected, the following statistical procedures were used:

The coaches were placed into two groups according to their collegiate winning percentages. Coaches with percentages above .500 were termed "successful." Coaches with percentages of .500 and below were termed "unsuccessful."

### Research Question 1

What percentage of successful and unsuccessful responses are grouped into each of the leadership styles measured by the Leadership Ability Evaluation (LAE) scores?

a. The number and percentage of responses were tabulated according to each of the four leadership styles measured by the LAE.

### Research Question 2

Does a relationship exist between successful and unsuccessful women basketball coaches as measured by LAE scores and winning percentages?

a. The data for question 2 were first compared to national norms contained in the test manual. The steps involved in this procedure are:

1. Raw scores for each leadership style  autocratic-aggressive (AA), autocratic submissive (AS), democratic-cooperative (DC), and laissez-faire (LF) were weighted for both groups. The total weighted score is divided by 10 and the resulting value is the Total Score. It is the Total Score that is used to determine the

Decision Patterns. (See Appendix F for weighted score formula.)

2. Raw scores were converted to T-scores comparing the successful and unsuccessful scores with norms for typical and outstanding individuals. T-score values were plotted by use of the LAE profile. (Appendix G)

b. Means and standard deviations were tabulated for both groups of coaches in each of the four leadership categories as well as the total weighted scores.

c. A t-test to distinguish the difference between the means of each leadership category was tabulated to determine whether the performance difference between the two groups was significant.

d. Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficients were computed between winning percentages and LAE scores.

## Research Question 3

What percentage of successful and unsuccessful responses are grouped into each of the leadership dimensions measured by the Coaches' Leadership Evaluation Questionnaire (CLEQ)?

a. The number and percentage of responses were tabulated according to each of the leadership dimensions measured by the CLEQ.

## Research Question 4

Does a relationship exist between successful and unsuccessful women basketball coaches measured by CLEQ scores?

a. The answers for each dimension were assigned values ranging from one to four for each choice. In some cases, four points designated

the "very frequently" answer and one point corresponded to the "rarely" answer; in other cases, the reverse was true.

b. Both groups were assigned mean scores for each dimension by averaging the scores for the five items in that dimension. This mean score represented the coaches' view of their behavior in that dimension.

c. A t-test was used to determine if there was any significance between the mean scores of successful and unsuccessful women coaches.

## Research Questions 5-9

Does a relationship exist between the ages, number of years of experience, educational level, major field of study, and division classifications of successful and unsuccessful women basketball coaches?

a. Frequency and percentages were tabulated for each variable.

## Research Question 10

What percentage of successful and unsuccessful coaches have coaching certificates?

a. Frequency and percentages were tabulated for successful and unsuccessful coaches.

## Summary of the Chapter

The population for this study consisted of 1981-1982 collegiate women basketball coaches. The coaches were from 100 institutions representing Region 2 and Region 3 of the AIAW. Research instruments were selected to gather data through a mail survey. The instruments selected were: The Leadership Ability Evaluation (LAE), the Coaches'

Leadership Evaluation Questionnaire (CLEQ), and the Coaches' Demographic
Questionnaire.

Data collection was implemented by mailing the questionnaires to
each institution. A response period of three weeks was given. Subse-
quently, two follow-up letters were mailed to nonrespondents, resulting
in a final return of 77%.

Treatment of the data involved classifying coaches into two groups;
the successful and unsuccessful coaches. Percentages and means and
standard deviations were tabulated for LAE and CLEQ responses. LAE
data was also compared to national norms contained in the LAE manual.
T-tests were computed for each of the leadership categories contained
in the LAE and CLEQ. Finally, frequency counts were tabulated for
each of the variables listed in research questions numbers five through
ten.

Chapter IV

ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to identify and to compare leadership styles of successful and unsuccessful collegiate women basketball coaches. Subjects for the study consisted of 1981-1982 collegiate women basketball coaches from Region 2 and Region 3 of the Association for Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (AIAW).

The design of this study was descriptive in nature. The survey technique was used to collect the data. Three questionnaires were mailed to 100 coaches of Region 2 and Region 3 of the AIAW. Returns were received from 77 of the 100 coaches of which 62 were usable. State-by-state percentages of the usable returns are tabulated in Appendix H and Appendix I.

The coaches were placed into two groups according to their collegiate winning percentages. Coaches with winning percentages above .500 were termed successful (N = 38); coaches with winning percentages of .500 and below were termed unsuccessful (N = 24). Tables 3 and 4 indicate the institutions and states of the successful and unsuccessful coaches.

Upon completion of data collection and group placement, the data were coded and verified for processing. The Statistical Analysis System (SAS), an integrated system of computer programs, was used to

Table 3

Institutions of Successful Coaches

| Successful Coaches | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Institution | State | Institution | State |
| Old Dominion U | Va. | UNCG | N.C. |
| Longwood C. | Va. | Fisk U. | Tenn. |
| Lenoir-Rhyne C. | N.C. | Fla. International | Fla. |
| Va. Wesleyan C. | Va. | Austin Peay St. U. | Tenn. |
| U. of Tenn. | Knoxville Tenn. | N.C. Wesleyan | N.C. |
| | | Union C. | Ky. |
| Ga. Southern C. | Ga. | Maryville C. | Tenn. |
| Appalachian St. U. | N.C. | Pembroke St. U. | N.C. |
| Ala. St. U. | Ala. | N.C.U. (Charlotte) | N.C. |
| C. of Charleston | S.C. | Averett C. | Va. |
| Campbellsville C. | Ky. | Centre C. | Ky. |
| Tuskegee Inst. | Ala. | Murray St. U. | Ky. |
| Bridgewater C. | Va. | Wake Forest U. | N.C. |
| West Ga. C. | Ga. | Va. Wesleyan C. | Va. |
| Coker C. | S.C. | James Madison U | Va. |
| Atlantic Christian C. | N.C. | William & Mary C. | Va. |
| Miss. St. U. | Miss. | UNC (Asheville) | N.C. |
| N.C.U. (C.H.) | N.C. | Va. Tech | Va. |
| Northern Ky. U. | Ky. | Stetson U. | Fla. |
| Radford U. | Va. | | |

Table 4

Institutions of Unsuccessful Coaches

| Unsuccessful Coaches | |
| --- | --- |
| Institution | State |
| Eastern Mennonite C. | Va. |
| Ga. C. | Ga. |
| George Mason U. | Va. |
| Transylvania U. | Ky. |
| Mary Baldwin | Va. |
| Clinch Valley C. | Va. |
| Emory & Henry C. | Va. |
| Western Ky. U. | Ky. |
| Lynchburg C. | Va. |
| Ala. U. (Huntsville) | Ala. |
| Georgetown C. | Ky. |
| Fla. St. U. | Fla. |
| U. of Montevallo | Ala. |
| Ala. A & M U. | Ala. |
| Western Carolina U. | N.C. |
| Methodist C. | N.C. |
| Ferrum C. | Va. |
| Gardner-Webb C. | N.C. |
| Eckerd C. | Fla. |
| Randolph-Macon | Va. |
| Meredith C. | N.C. |
| Baptist C. (Charleston) | S.C. |
| Sweet Briar C. | Va. |
| Greensboro C. | N.C. |

facilitate analysis of the data. The statistical results are presented as they relate to the ten research questions under study.

## Research Question One

Question: What percentage of successful and unsuccessful responses are grouped into each of the leadership styles measured by the Leadership Ability Evaluation (LAE) scores?

The LAE questionnaire gives scores in four parts: (1) laissez-faire (LF), (2) democratic cooperative (DC), (3) autocratic submissive (AS), and (4) autocratic aggressive (AA)(See Appendix A). The laissez-faire statements received 311 (16.4%) responses from successful coaches and 158 (13.1%) from unsuccessful coaches. The successful coaches reported 1166 (61.3%) democratic cooperative responses, while the unsuccessful coaches reported 778 (64.8%) responses. The autocratic submissive statements received 265 (14.0%) responses from successful coaches and 183 (15.3%) from unsuccessful coaches. One hundred fifty-eight (8.3% autocratic aggressive responses were received from successful coaches and 81 (6.8%) from the unsuccessful coaches (see Table 5).

In terms of the part test scores in this study, the differences may be further described as: (1) the successful coaches sampled are more laissez-faire and autocratic aggressive than the unsuccessful coaches, while (2) the unsuccessful coaches sampled are more democratic, cooperative and autocratic submissive than successful coaches. Based on the definition described in the LAE manual, these differences suggest that successful coaches are more ego-centered and exercise a minimum amount of influence on group members. The differences also suggest that successful coaches act more as advisors than leaders. On the other hand

Table 5

The Number and Percentage of LAE Responses

for Successful and Unsuccessful Coaches

| Leadership style | Successful coaches | | Unsuccessful coaches | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | No. | % | No. | % |
| LF | 311 | 16.4 | 158 | 13.1 |
| DC | 1,166 | 61.3 | 778 | 64.8 |
| AS | 265 | 14.0 | 183 | 15.3 |
| AA | 158 | 8.3 | 81 | 6.8 |
| Total | 1,900 | 100.0 | 1,200 | 100.0 |

No. = Number of successful and unsuccessful coaches

% = Percentage of responses

the differences suggest that unsuccessful coaches use parliamentary procedures based on the changing thinking of the group; however, the emphasis is placed on the use of advisors and resource persons for assistance.

## Research Question Two

Question:   Does a relationship exist between successful and unsuccessful women basketball coaches as measured by LAE scores and winning percentages?

The data for research question two were first compared to national norms contained in the LAE test manual. The national norms evolved from two groups of subjects: (1) typical individuals--consisting of above and below average men and women, in prison adults, gifted 9th and 11th graders and delinquent youth; (2) outstanding leaders--consisting of Guidance Counselors, Air Force Colonels, and Chaplains.

The Total Score or Decision Pattern represents the characteristic decision pattern of an individual in comparison to the groups comprising the normative data. The Total Score is the weighting of the raw scores which discerns optimally between outstanding leaders and typical individuals. (See Appendix F for weighted score formula.) As indicated by the test manual a Total Score of 10 discriminates between outstanding leaders and typical individuals. Total Scores of 10 and lower are indicative of effective leaders, while Total Scores above 10 are indicative of ineffective leaders. From the successful coaches, 12 (32%) indicated Total Scores of 10 and lower. Seven (29%) unsuccessful coaches reported Total Scores of 10 and lower (see Table 6). These results

Table 6

Cut-off Scores Indicative of Leadership Effectiveness

Based on LAE Total Scores

| Total scores | Successful coaches | | Unsuccessful coaches | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | No. | % | No. | % | |
| 17 | | | | | |
| 16 | 1 | 3 | | | Ineffective |
| 15 | 2 | 5 | | | Leaders |
| 14 | 1 | 3 | 2 | 8 | |
| 13 | 7 | 18 | 4 | 17 | |
| 12 | 8 | 21 | 2 | 8 | |
| 11 | 7 | 18 | 9 | 38 | |
| Cut-off Scores | | | | | |
| 10 | 1 | 3 | | | |
| 9 | 6 | 16 | 4 | 17 | |
| 8 | 2 | 5 | 1 | 4 | |
| 7 | 2 | 5 | | | |
| 6 | 1 | 3 | 1 | 4 | |
| 5 | | | 1 | 4 | |
| 4 | | | | | |
| 3 | | | | | Effective |
| 2 | | | | | Leaders |
| 1 | | | | | |
| 0 | | | | | |

indicate that only 30% of the total population of coaches in this study are considered effective leaders based on the normative data given in the test manual. The results also indicate that 32% of the successful coaches' decision making patterns are more like those of outstanding leaders, while 68% are more like typical individuals. The unsuccessful coaches indicated 29% similar to outstanding leaders and 71% to typical individuals. Therefore, the Total Scores for both groups of coaches are most like the norms for typical individuals rather than the norms for outstanding leaders.

Interpretations were then made from part scores and profile analysis. Profiles for successful and unsuccessful coaches were constructed based on norms of typical individuals and outstanding leaders (see Appendices J and K for norms). Mean scores were converted to T-Score values based on the normative data given in the test manual (see Appendix G for LAE Profile).

Figure 1 and Figure 2 illustrate the comparison of LAE scores for successful and unsuccessful coaches with the national norms. Scores falling above or below the red dotted lines on the profiles--above the 60th T-Score or below the 40th T-Score--indicate inappropriate leadership qualities in relation to the norm group. The ideal profile on the LAE is between the 40th and 60th T-score; between the red dotted lines. All of the mean part scores were well within the ideal range for typical individuals and outstanding leaders as indi- cated by the figures. However, the profiles for successful and unsuccess- ful coaches are similar to the Total Scores for both groups. The Total
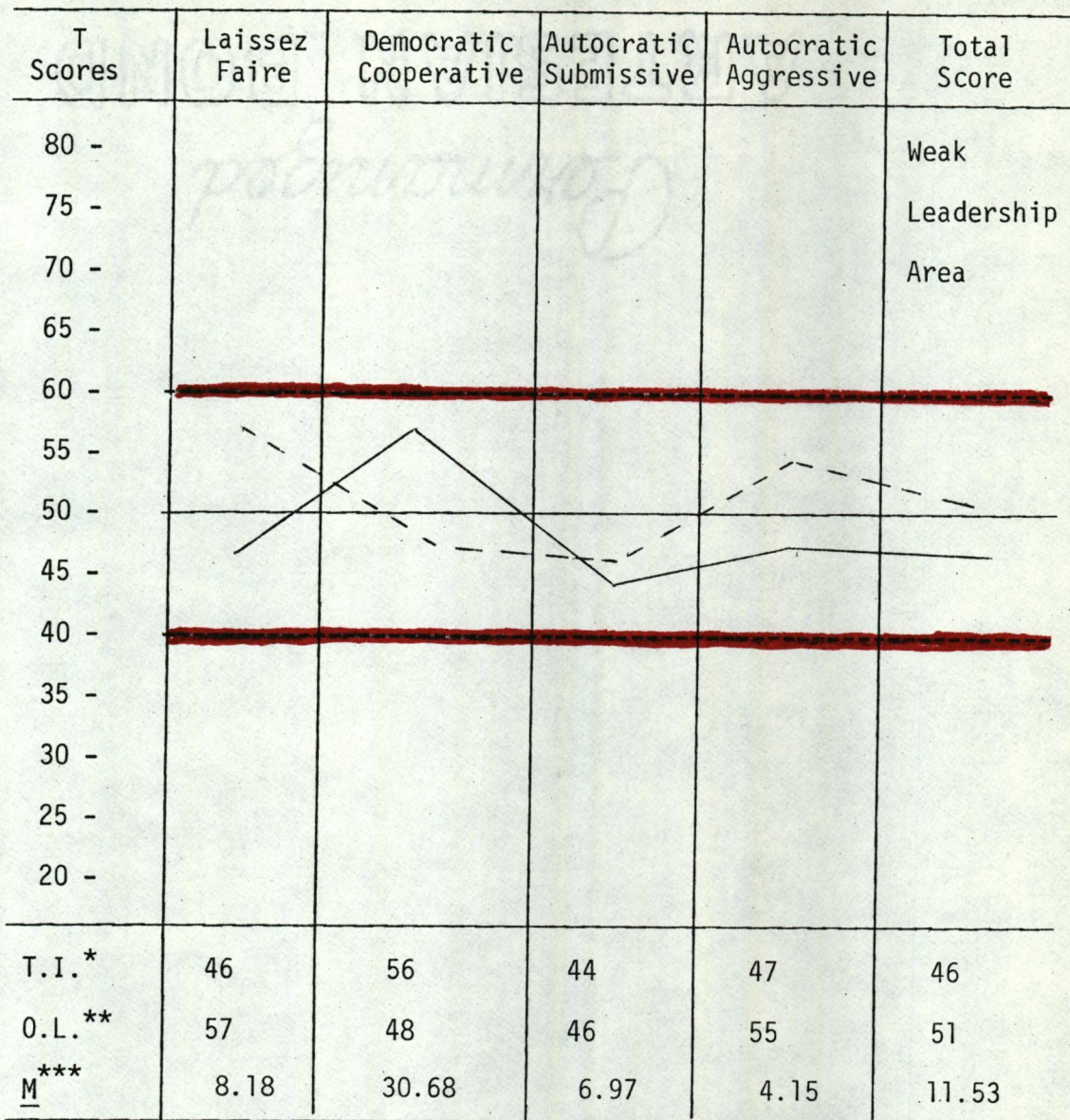
| T Scores | Laissez Faire | Democratic Cooperative | Autocratic Submissive | Autocratic Aggressive | Total Score |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 80 - | | | | | Weak |
| 75 - | | | | | Leadership |
| 70 - | | | | | Area |
| 65 - | | | | | |
| 60 - | | | | | |
| 55 - | | | | | |
| 50 - | | | | | |
| 45 - | | | | | |
| 40 - | | | | | |
| 35 - | | | | | |
| 30 - | | | | | |
| 25 - | | | | | |
| 20 - | | | | | |
| T.I.* | 46 | 56 | 44 | 47 | 46 |
| O.L.** | 57 | 48 | 46 | 55 | 51 |
| $\underline{M}$*** | 8.18 | 30.68 | 6.97 | 4.15 | 11.53 |

*Norms for Typical Individuals

**Norms for Outstanding Leaders

***$\underline{M}$ = Mean LAE Scores

Key: ———— Comparisons with Typical Individuals (T.I.)

------ Comparisons with Outstanding Leaders (O.L.)

Figure 1.   LAE Profile for Successful Coaches
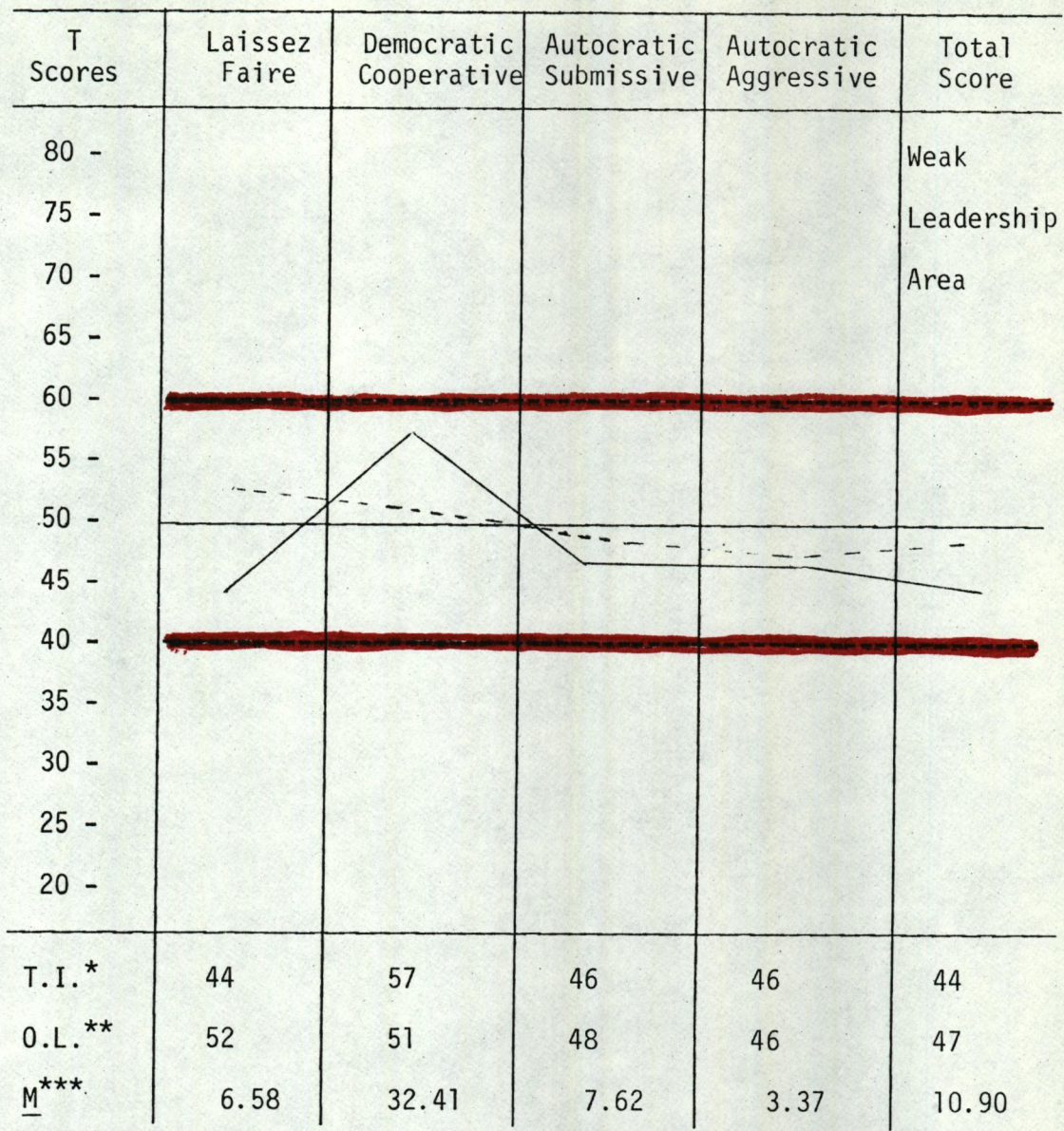
| T Scores | Laissez Faire | Democratic Cooperative | Autocratic Submissive | Autocratic Aggressive | Total Score |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 80 - | | | | | Weak |
| 75 - | | | | | Leadership |
| 70 - | | | | | Area |
| 65 - | | | | | |
| 60 - | | | | | |
| 55 - | | | | | |
| 50 - | | | | | |
| 45 - | | | | | |
| 40 - | | | | | |
| 35 - | | | | | |
| 30 - | | | | | |
| 25 - | | | | | |
| 20 - | | | | | |
| T.I.* | 44 | 57 | 46 | 46 | 44 |
| O.L.** | 52 | 51 | 48 | 46 | 47 |
| M*** | 6.58 | 32.41 | 7.62 | 3.37 | 10.90 |

*Norms for Typical Individuals
**Norms for Outstanding Leaders
***M = Mean LAE Scores

Key: ——————Comparisons with Typical Individuals (T.I.)
------ Comparisons with Outstanding Leaders (O.L.)

Figure 2.  LAE Profile for Unsuccessful Coaches

<u>Scores</u> indicated that both groups of coaches are similar to the norms of
typical individuals rather than outstanding leaders. The profiles also
indicated this similarity. Thus, in comparing the two groups of coaches
of this study to national norms, a relationship does exist in terms of
their decision making patterns being similar to those of typical indi-
viduals rather than recognized leaders.

After comparing the mean part scores to normative data, statistical
analyses were used to determine if the differences were significant.
The data reported in Table 7 show the results of the t-test for inde-
pendent samples. This test was used to determine if there was a sig-
nificant difference at the .05 level of significance with 60 degrees of
freedom between the mean part scores of successful and unsuccessful
coaches. Based on the mean part scores, there were no significant dif-
ferences.

A further analysis to question two may be found by examining the
information found in Table 8. Pearson Product Moment Correlation Co-
efficients were computed between winning percentages and LAE scores.
This procedure was used in order to determine the extent, if any, of
the relationship between the two variables (winning percentages and LAE
scores). The figures indicate no significant relationship between
winning percentages and Laissez-Faire, Autocratic Submissive, and Auto-
cratic Aggressive scores for successful and unsuccessful coaches. A
statistical significance was found between winning percentages and
Democratic Cooperative and the <u>Total Scores</u> for successful coaches.
The correlation between winning percentages and the Democratic

Table 7

t-test Results in Five Leadership Categories

Between Successful and Unsuccessful Coaches

| Leadership Style | Successful | | Unsuccessful | | t-Ratio |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Mean | SD | Mean | SD | |
| LF | 8.18 | 3.87 | 6.58 | 2.99 | 1.72 |
| DC | 30.68 | 4.93 | 32.41 | 5.92 | -1.24 |
| AS | 6.97 | 2.83 | 7.62 | 3.52 | -0.80 |
| AA | 4.15 | 2.66 | 3.37 | 2.96 | 1.07 |
| *TS | 11.53 | 2.32 | 10.90 | 2.23 | 1.07 |

60 df; .05 level of significance       t = 2.00

*TS = Total Score.

Table 8

Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficients

Between Winning Percentages and LAE Scores

| Leadership Style | Successful Correlation Coefficient | Unsuccessful Correlation Coefficient |
|---|---|---|
| LF | -0.311 | -0.074 |
| DC | 0.356* | -0.103 |
| AS | -0.185 | 0.279 |
| AA | -0.008 | -0.049 |
| TS | -0.381* | 0.079 |

*Statistically significant at the .05 level.

Cooperative score ($r$ = .356) showed a very low positive relationship between the two variables. The Total Score correlation ($r$ = -.381) showed a significantly negative relationship between the two variables. The negative correlation explains an inverse relationship between winning percentages and the Total Score. This may be the result of the method used to determine the Total Score; whereas, low Total Scores indicate an acceptable leadership pattern. However, the magnitude of the correlations indicate little relationship between the variables. Therefore, there is little distinction in the leadership styles used by successful and unsuccessful coaches when measured with winning percentages.

### Research Question Three

Question: What percentage of successful and unsuccessful responses are grouped into each of the leadership dimensions measured by the Coaches' Leadership Evaluation Questionnaire (CLEQ)?

The CLEQ contains 15 items which describe specific ways coaches behave (see Appendix B). The responses were scored on three dimensions (five questions per dimension) of leadership behavior: (1) democratic, (2) autocratic, and (3) laissez-faire. For each dimension the number and percentage of responses for successful and unsuccessful coaches were tabulated.

#### Democratic Dimension

Tables 9 and 10 present the numbers and percentages of successful and unsuccessful coaches' Democratic Dimension responses.

"I prefer to experiment with new coaching methods and procedures" (Question 4). Nineteen (50%) successful coaches rarely or sometimes experiment with new methods and procedures. Sixteen (67%) unsuccessful coaches often and very frequently experiment with new methods.

Table 9

The Numbers and Percentages of Successful Coaches CLEQ

Responses for the Democratic Dimension

| Question | No. of Responses | | | | % Distribution | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | R | S | 0 | VF | R | S | 0 | VF |
| 4 | 4 | 15 | 16 | 3 | 11 | 39 | 42 | 8 |
| 10 | 0 | 4 | 14 | 20 | 0 | 11 | 36 | 53 |
| 11 | 8 | 12 | 12 | 6 | 21 | 32 | 32 | 15 |
| 12 | 0 | 1 | 8 | 29 | 0 | 3 | 21 | 76 |
| 13 | 0 | 1 | 20 | 17 | 0 | 3 | 53 | 45 |

Key:  R = Rarely
      S = Sometimes
      0 = Often
      VF = Very Frequently

Table 10

The Numbers and Percentages of Unsuccessful Coaches CLEQ

Responses for the Democratic Dimension

| Question | No. of Responses | | | | | % Distribution | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | R | S | O | VF | | R | S | O | VF |
| 4 | 0 | 8 | 10 | 6 | | 0 | 33 | 42 | 25 |
| 10 | 0 | 3 | 13 | 8 | | 0 | 13 | 54 | 33 |
| 11 | 2 | 7 | 8 | 7 | | 8 | 29 | 33 | 29 |
| 12 | 0 | 1 | 8 | 15 | | 0 | 4 | 33 | 63 |
| 13 | 0 | 1 | 10 | 13 | | 0 | 4 | 42 | 54 |

Key:  R = Rarely
      S = Sometimes
      O = Often
      VF = Very Frequently

"I encourage weaker team members to greater efforts" (Question 10).
Twenty (53%) successful coaches very frequently encourage team members.
Thirteen (54%) unsuccessful coaches often encourage team members, and
only eight (33%) very frequently.

Question 11 refers to coaches encouraging team members to express
ideas concerning methods and procedures. Eight (21%) successful coaches
rarely encourage team members to be expressive; twelve (32%) sometimes;
twelve (32%) often; and six (15%) very frequently. On the other hand,
two (8%) unsuccessful coaches rarely; seven (29%) sometimes; eight
(33%) often; and seven (29%) very frequently.

Question 12 addressed the idea of whether or not coaches consider
the well-being of each player. Thirty-seven (97%) successful coaches
and twenty-three (95%) unsuccessful coaches, often and very frequently
consider the well-being of their players.

Using positive means to motivate players (Question 13) received
twenty (53%) often responses and seventeen (45%) very frequently re-
sponses and seventeen (45%) very frequently responses from successful
coaches. The tabulations for unsuccessful coaches included ten (42%)
often and thirteen (54%) very frequently.

Autocratic Dimension

Tables 11 and 12 present the data for questions 1, 3, 5, 6, and 9
from the Autocratic Dimension.

"I feel that success and accomplishment are achieved by strict
devotion to stated goals" (Question 1). Thirty-three (86%) successful

Table 11

The Numbers and Percentages of Successful Coaches CLEQ

Responses for the Autocratic Dimension

| Question | No. of Responses | | | | % Distribution | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | R | S | 0 | VF | R | S | 0 | VF |
| 1 | 0 | 5 | 15 | 18 | 0 | 13 | 39 | 47 |
| 3 | 1 | 2 | 16 | 19 | 3 | 5 | 42 | 50 |
| 5 | 9 | 18 | 7 | 4 | 24 | 47 | 18 | 11 |
| 6 | 11 | 18 | 6 | 3 | 29 | 47 | 16 | 8 |
| 9 | 20 | 12 | 3 | 3 | 52 | 32 | 8 | 8 |

Key:  R = Rarely
      S = Sometimes
      0 = Often
      VF = Very Frequently

Table 12

The Number and Percentages of Unsuccessful Coaches CLEQ

Responses for the Autocratic Dimension

| Question | No. of Responses | | | | % Distribution | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | R | S | O | VF | R | S | O | VF |
| 1 | 1 | 1 | 12 | 10 | 4 | 4 | 50 | 42 |
| 3 | 0 | 2 | 11 | 11 | 0 | 8 | 46 | 46 |
| 5 | 5 | 9 | 9 | 1 | 21 | 38 | 38 | 4 |
| 6 | 7 | 11 | 6 | 0 | 29 | 46 | 25 | 0 |
| 9 | 15 | 9 | 0 | 0 | 63 | 38 | 0 | 0 |

Key:  R = Rarely
      S = Sometimes
      O = Often
      VF = Very Frequently

coaches and twenty-two (92%) unsuccessful coaches often and very frequently feel that success is achieved by strict devotion to stated goals.

Question 3 refers to coaches who expect nothing short of complete dedication on the part of each team member. Thirty-five (92%) successful coaches often and very frequently expect complete dedication from each team member. Only one (3%) responded rarely and two (5%) responded sometimes. Twenty-two (92%) unsuccessful coaches also expect complete dedication from teach members. Only two (8%) responded sometimes.

Question 5 addresses coaches who prefer easy-going assistant coaches. Nine (24%) successful coaches responded rarely. Eighteen (47%) sometimes, seven (18%) often, and four (11%) very frequently. Unsuccessful coaches reported five (21%) rarely, nine (38% sometimes, nine (38%) often, and one (4%) very frequently.

"I resort to forms of punishment to enforce the rules" (Question 6). Seven (29%) unsuccessful coaches rarely resort to punishment; however, eleven (46%) sometimes, and six (25%) often. No very frequently reports were made for this group. Eleven (29%) successful coaches rarely resort to punishment; eighteen (47%) sometimes; six (16%) often; and three (8%) very frequently.

Criticizing athletes in front of others (Question 9) received fifteen (63%) rarely, and nine (38%) sometimes responses from unsuccessful coaches. Successful coaches reported twenty (52%) rarely

responses, twelve (32%) sometimes, three (8%) often, and three (8%) very frequently.

## Laissez-faire Dimension

Tables 13 and 14 present the data for questions 2, 7, 8, 14, and 15 for the Laissez-faire Dimension.

Question two refers to coaches who prefer pressure-free practices at all times. Successful coaches reported: sixteen (42%) rarely, sixteen (42%) sometimes, five (13%) often, and one (3%) very frequently. Unsuccessful coaches reported: eight (33%) rarely, thirteen (54%) sometimes, two (8%) often, and one (4%) very frequently.

"I prefer athletes to feel independent of the coach at all times" (Question 7). Six (16%) successful coaches responded rarely, eighteen (47%) sometimes, eleven (29%) often, and three (8%) very frequently. Unsuccessful coaches responded five (21%) rarely, fifteen (63%) some-times, three (13%) often, and one (4%) very frequently.

"I prefer athletes to define their own standards of performance" (Question 8). Four (11%) successful coaches responded rarely, twenty-one (55%) sometimes, ten (26%) often, and three (8%) very frequently. Four (17%) unsuccessful coaches responded rarely, fourteen (58%) some-times, five (21%) often, and one (4%) very frequently.

"I feel that athletes will improve if motivation grows out of their own enthusiasm" (Question 14). Twelve (31%) unsuccessful coaches some-times and often feel that athletes should motivate themselves. Twenty-six (68%) feel even stronger. The unsuccessful coaches did not feel

Table 13

The Numbers and Percentages of Successful Coaches CLEQ

Responses for the Laissez-Faire Dimension

| Question | No. of Responses | | | | | % Distribution | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | R | S | 0 | VF | | R | S | 0 | VF |
| 2 | 16 | 16 | 5 | 1 | | 42 | 42 | 13 | 3 |
| 7 | 6 | 18 | 11 | 3 | | 16 | 47 | 29 | 8 |
| 8 | 4 | 21 | 10 | 3 | | 11 | 55 | 26 | 8 |
| 14 | 0 | 5 | 7 | 26 | | 0 | 13 | 18 | 68 |
| 15 | 23 | 8 | 4 | 3 | | 60 | 21 | 11 | 8 |

Key:  R = Rarely
      S = Sometimes
      0 = Often
      VF = Very Frequently

Table 14

The Numbers and Percentages of Unsuccessful Coaches CLEQ

Responses for the Laissez-Faire Dimension

| Question | No. of Responses | | | | % Distribution | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | R | S | O | VF | R | S | O | VF |
| 2 | 8 | 13 | 2 | 1 | 33 | 54 | 8 | 4 |
| 7 | 5 | 15 | 3 | 1 | 21 | 63 | 13 | 4 |
| 8 | 4 | 14 | 5 | 1 | 17 | 58 | 21 | 4 |
| 14 | 5 | 12 | 4 | 3 | 21 | 50 | 17 | 13 |
| 15 | 11 | 8 | 5 | 0 | 46 | 33 | 21 | 0 |

Key:  R = Rarely
      S = Sometimes
      O = Often
      VF = Very Frequently

as strongly; five (21%) reported rarely, twelve (50%) sometimes, four (17%) often, and three (13%) very frequently.

"I prefer athletes to set their own training schedules" (Question 15). Successful coaches reported: twenty-three (60%) rarely responses, eight (21%) sometimes, four (11%) often, and three (8%) very frequently. Unsuccessful coaches reported: eleven (46%) rarely, eight (33%) sometimes, five (21%) often.

## Research Question Four

Question: Does a relationship exist between successful and unsuccessful women basketball coaches measured by CLEQ scores?

The answers for each dimension were assigned values ranging from one to four--four for the most positive answer and one for the most negative. The successful and unsuccessful coaches were assigned mean scores for each dimension by averaging the scores for the five items in that dimension. A t-test for independent samples (Ary, Jacobs, & Razavich, 1972) was utilized to determine if there was any significant difference at the .05 level of significance. In the dimensions of democratic, autocratic, and laissez-faire at the .05 level of significance and 60 degrees of freedom, there were no significant differences between the successful and unsuccessful coaches' view of their leadership behavior. Tables 15, 16, and 17 present the t-test data for the successful and unsuccessful coaches.

Table 15

t-Test Results for the Successful and Unsuccessful

Coaches Democratic Dimension

| Coaches | Democratic Dimension | | | t-Ratio |
| | N | Mean | SD | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Successful | 38 | 15.47 | 1.55 | |
| | | | | -1.32 |
| Unsuccessful | 24 | 16.08 | 2.06 | |

Note: 60 df    t = 2.00

Not significant at .05 level.

Table 16

t-Test Results for the Successful and Unsuccessful

Coaches Autocratic Dimension

| Coaches | Autocratic Dimension | | | t-Ratio |
|---------|------|------|------|---------|
| | N | Mean | SD | |
| Successful | 38 | 13.28 | 1.82 | |
| | | | | 0.98 |
| Unsuccessful | 24 | 12.83 | 1.71 | |

Note: 60 df    t = 2.00

Not significant at .05 level.

Table 17

t-Test Results for the Successful and Unsuccessful

Coaches Laissez-Faire Dimension

| Coaches | Laissez-Faire Dimension | | | t-Ratio |
| | N | Mean | SD | |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Successful | 38 | 11.65 | 2.78 | |
| | | | | -0.47 |
| Unsuccessful | 24 | 11.95 | 1.73 | |

Note: 60 df     t = 2.00

      Not significant at .05 level.

## Research Question Five

Question:  Does a relationship exist between the ages of successful and unsuccessful women basketball coaches?

Table 18 lists the number of coaches in each age group. Thirteen percent of the successful and unsuccessful coaches were 21-25 years of age. This small percentage could be the result of higher education offering more taining and preparation for women coaches. Therefore, women between these ages are remaining at these institutions longer. It should also be noted that coaches who lose more often than win during their early years of coaching, may leave the field and seek employment in other areas. Thus, winning coaches would have more years experience. The majority of the coaches (86% successful, 63% unsuccessful) surveyed were 26-40 years of age. However, 48% of the total coaches surveyed fell into the 26-30 year old category. This percentage could be the result of women coaches acquiring higher degrees, thus entering coaching careers at a later age. The decline in the number of coaches after 30 may be an indication of job stress. The successful coaches reported 5.2% between the ages of 41-50. The unsuccessful coaches reported 16.6% between 41-50. The differences in these percentages could be the result of the new era in women's athletics. Because of the limited background of most women coaches, few are emotionally or philosophically prepared for the pressures and expectations of competition. Therefore, many coaching careers do not extend past 40 years of age.

## Research Question Six

Question:  Does a relationship exist between the number of years of experience of successful and unsuccessful women basketball coaches?

Table 18

Distribution of Successful and Unsuccessful Coaches by Ages

| Age | Successful Coaches | | Unsuccessful Coaches | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | No. | % | No. | % |
| Under 20 | 0 | 0.0 | 0 | 0.0 |
| 21-25 | 3 | 7.8 | 5 | 20.8 |
| 26-30 | 17 | 44.7 | 13 | 54.1 |
| 31-35 | 10 | 26.3 | 0 | 0.0 |
| 36-40 | 6 | 15.7 | 2 | 8.3 |
| 41-45 | 1 | 2.6 | 2 | 8.3 |
| 46-50 | 1 | 2.6 | 2 | 8.3 |
| 51-55 | 0 | 0.0 | 0 | 0.0 |
| Over 55 | 0 | 0.0 | 0 | 0.0 |
| Total: | 38 | | 24 | |

Note:  No. = Number of successful and unsuccessful coaches

% = Percentage of coaches ages

More than fifty percent (57.8% successful, 83.3% unsuccessful) of
the coaches surveyed had from one to five years of collegiate coaching
experience. Very few coaches had more than ten years of experience.
This may be due to the recent emphasis on women's athletics at the
collegiate level (see Table 19).

## Research Question Seven

Question: Does a relationship exist between the educational level of
successful and unsuccessful women basketball boaches?

As indicated in Table 20: five (13%) successful coaches have
Bachelor's degrees; thirty-two (84%) have Master's degrees; and only
one (3%) has a Doctor's degree. Four (11%) successful coaches indi-
cated they were presently in graduate school. The unsuccessful coaches
indicated six (25%) having Bachelor's degrees, and eighteen (75%) having
Master's degrees. Two (8%) unsuccessful coaches are presently in
graduate school. It should be noted that 81% of the total coaches
surveyed have Master's degrees. There has been increasing pressure
applied on university level teachers to seek terminal degrees in order
to maintain positions. Perhaps this is one reason why this study shows
a large percentage of the coaches with higher degrees.

## Research Question Eight

Question: Does a relationship exist between the major field of study of
successful and unsuccessful women basketball coaches?

Table 21 shows the number of coaches with a major or minor in
physical education. As undergraduates, thirty-six (95%) successful

Table 19

Distribution of Successful and Unsuccessful

Coaches by Years of Experience

| Years of Experience | Successful Coaches | | Unsuccessful Coaches | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | No. | % | No. | % |
| 1 | 6 | 15.7 | 9 | 37.5 |
| 2 | 2 | 5.2 | 4 | 16.6 |
| 3 | 3 | 7.8 | 2 | 8.3 |
| 4 | 6 | 15.7 | 2 | 8.3 |
| 5 | 6 | 15.7 | 3 | 12.5 |
| 6 | 3 | 7.8 | 1 | 4.1 |
| 7 | 3 | 7.8 | 0 | 0.0 |
| 8 | 0 | 0.0 | 1 | 4.1 |
| 9 | 2 | 5.2 | 0 | 0.0 |
| 10 | 0 | 0.0 | 1 | 4.1 |
| 11 | 5 | 13.1 | 0 | 0.0 |
| 12 | 0 | 0.0 | 0 | 0.0 |
| 13 | 0 | 0.0 | 0 | 0.0 |
| 14 | 1 | 2.6 | 0 | 0.0 |
| 15 | 0 | 0.0 | 0 | 0.0 |
| 16 | 0 | 0.0 | 0 | 0.0 |
| 17 | 0 | 0.0 | 0 | 0.0 |
| 18 | 0 | 0.0 | 0 | 0.0 |
| 19 | 0 | 0.0 | 0 | 0.0 |
| 20 | 1 | 2.6 | 1 | 4.1 |
| Total | 38 | | 24 | |

Note:  No. = Number of successful and unsuccessful coaches

% = Percentage of years of Experience

Table 20

Distribution of Degrees Earned by Successful

and Unsuccessful Coaches

| Educational Level | Successful Coaches | | Unsuccessful Coaches | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | No. | % | No. | % |
| Degree earned: | | | | |
| Bachelor's Degree | 5 | 13 | 6 | 25 |
| Master's Degree | 32 | 84 | 18 | 75 |
| Doctor's Degree | 1 | 3 | 0 | 0 |
| Other: | | | | |
| Graduate School | 4 | 11 | 2 | 8 |

Note:  No. = Number of successful and unsuccessful coaches

%  = Percentage of coaches by educational level

Table 21

Distribution of Successful and Unsuccessful Coaches by Major

| Major | Successful Coaches | | | | Unsuccessful Coaches | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Undergr. | % | Grad. | % | Undergr. | % | Grad. | % |
| P.E. Major | 36 | 95 | 31 | 84 | 21 | 88 | 17 | 85 |
| P.E. Minor | 0 | 0 | 1 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 5 |
| Neither | 2 | 5 | 5 | 13 | 3 | 13 | 2 | 10 |

Note: P.E. = Physical Education

Undergr. = Undergraduate

Grad. = Graduate

% = Percentage of Coaches' majors

coaches were physical education majors. As graduate students, thirty-one (84%) were physical education majors. The unsuccessful coaches indicated twenty-one (88%) as undergraduates, and seventeen (85%) as graduate students. Only 3.2% of the total coaches minored in physical education as graduate students. Twelve (19%) successful and unsuccessful coaches neither majored nor minored in physical education as undergraduates and while in graduate school.

The figures indicate that as undergraduates and graduate students the majority of the coaches were physical education majors. The ultimate worth of women's athletic programs is dependent on qualified physical educators. These programs will move toward ideal directions if future professionals remain involved and help promote the preparation of women coaches.

## Research Question Nine

Question:  What percentage of successful and unsuccessful women basketball coaches are employed in Divisions 1, 2, and 3?

The data presented in Table 22 lists the divisional breakdown of successful and unsuccessful coaches. Division 1 indicated thirteen (34%) successful and two (8%) unsuccessful coaches. Thirteen (34%) successful and nine (38%) unsuccessful coaches were classified in Division 2. Division 3 classified eleven (29%) successful and thirteen (54%) unsuccessful coaches. One successful coach did not indicate a division classification; however, the coach specified this was the last year to be classified in the AIAW.

Table 22

Distribution of Successful and Unsuccessful Coaches by Divisions

| Division | Successful Coaches | | Unsuccessful Coaches | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | No. | % | No. | % |
| 1 | 13 | 34 | 2 | 8 |
| 2 | 13 | 34 | 9 | 38 |
| 3 | 11 | 29 | 13 | 54 |

Note:  No. = Number of successful and unsuccessful coaches

% = Percentage of coaches by divisions

The AIAW is divided into three competitive divisions with classification based on financial aid limits and female enrollment. Table 22 indicates more successful coaches classified in Division 1 than unsuccessful coaches. Table 22 also indicates there are more unsuccessful coaches in Division 3 than successful coaches. These figures are probably the result of the larger institutions acquiring more financial aid, thus, having more scholarships and improving recruitment. The percentages of successful and unsuccessful coaches classified in Division 2 are somewhat similar. This could account for the continuous growth in women's athletics. Some of the smaller institutions are beginning to develop their programs and these developments are attracting more women.

## Research Question Ten

Question: What percentage of successful and unsuccessful coaches have coaching certificates?

As can be seen in Table 23, nine (24%) successful coaches have coaching certificates; twenty-nine (76%) do not. The unsuccessful coaches reported five (21%) having coaching certificates and nineteen (79%) without. The results show a large percentage of the successful and unsuccessful coaches from this study do not have coaching certificates. As of yet, the AIAW does not require coaches to have these certificates.

Table 23

Numbers and Percentages of Successful and Unsuccessful

Coaches with Coaching Certificates

| Coaches | Coaching Certificates | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Yes | % | No | % |
| Successful | 9 | 24 | 29 | 76 |
| Unsuccessful | 5 | 21 | 19 | 79 |

Note: % = Percentage of coaches with or without certificates

## Summary of the Findings

The analysis of data revealed that in the 1981-1982 basketball

season 100 institutions were registered in Region 2 and Region 3 of the

Association for Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (AIAW). Three

questionnaires were mailed to the 100 institutions specifically for

women who were coaching women's basketball during the 1981-1982 season.

Of the 100 members, 77 (77%) responded to the survey instruments.

Sixty-two (62%) of the returns were usable.

The state which had the highest percentage of returns was Virginia

with nineteen (76%). The second largest was North Carolina with fif-

teen (77%). Mississippi had the smallest percentage (2.0%).

The successful and unsuccessful coaches were grouped according to

winning percentages. Thirty-eight had winning percentages above .500

and were classified as successful coaches. Twenty-four had winning

percentages of .500 and below and were classified as unsuccessful

coaches.

The statistical results were presented as they related to the ten

research questions under study. Research question one presented data

from the Leadership Ability Evaluation Questionnaire (LAE). The numbers

and percentages were tabulated from the successful and unsuccessful re-

sponses. The successful and unsuccessful coaches reported 15.1%

laissez-faire responses. The democratic cooperative style received

61.3% of the responses from successful coaches and 64.8% from the un-

successful coaches. The autocratic submissive style reported 14.4% of

the responses from successful and unsuccessful coaches. The total percentage of the autocratic aggressive style was 7.7% for successful and unsuccessful coaches. In terms of the part scores, the differences in the responses were described as: (1) successful coaches are more laissez-faire and autocratic aggressive than unsuccessful coaches; while (2) unsuccessful coaches are more democratic cooperative and autocratic submissive than successful coaches.

Research question two was first compared to national norms contained in the LAE manual. Total Scores were calculated by the weighting of raw scores. The Total Scores were indicative of effective and ineffective leaders. Thirty-two percent of the successful coaches and 29% of the unsuccessful coaches reported Total Scores of 10 and lower. These results indicated that only 30% of the coaches surveyed in this study were considered effective leaders based on the normative data given in the test manual. Interpretations were also made based on Total Scores and profile analyses. The results indicated that decision-making patterns for both groups of coaches are similar to those of typical individuals rather than outstanding leaders. These interpretations were based on the information given in the test manual.

After comparing the two groups of coaches to normative data, statistical analyses were used to determine if the differences between the leadership scores were significant. A t-test for independent samples revealed that there were no significant differences at the .05 level of significance.

Further analysis of question two presented correlation coefficients between winning percentages and LAE scores. The correlations indicated that there was not a substantial relationship between winning percentages and leadership styles used by both groups of coaches.

To present a broader picture of question three, Table 24 will show the total frequency of responses for successful and unsuccessful coaches. The reader can refer to Appendix B, Part 2 for the CLEQ questionnaire.

Research question four presented mean scores for each of the CLEQ dimensions. The mean score represented the coaches' views of their behavior in that dimension. A t-test for independent samples was utilized to determine if there were any significant differences at the .05 level of significance. The t-test for the democratic dimension was -1.32; the autocratic dimension 0.98; and the laissez-faire dimension -0.47. With 60 degrees of freedom, there were no significant differences between the successful and unsuccessful coaches' view of their leadership behavior.

The Coaches' Demographic Questionnaire provided data for research questions five through ten. The questions related to the ages, years of experience, educational level, major field of study, division classification, and coaching certificates. The majority of the coaches surveyed were 26-40 years of age. More than 50% of the successful and unsuccessful coaches had from one to five years of collegiate coaching experience. Very few coaches had more than ten years of experience.

By degree level, 17% had Bachelor's degrees, 81% had Master's degrees, and 2% had Doctoral degrees. As undergraduates, 91% of the

Table 24

Summary of Successful and Unsuccessful

Coaches Responses for the CLEQ

| Division | Rarely | Sometimes | Often | Very Frequently |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Democratic** | | | | |
| 4 | 4 | 23 | 26 | 9 |
| 10 | 0 | 7 | 27 | 28 |
| 11 | 10 | 19 | 20 | 13 |
| 12 | 0 | 2 | 16 | 44 |
| 13 | 0 | 2 | 30 | 30 |
| Total | 18 | 53 | 119 | 124 |
| **Autocratic** | | | | |
| 1 | 1 | 6 | 27 | 28 |
| 3 | 1 | 4 | 27 | 30 |
| 5 | 14 | 27 | 16 | 5 |
| 6 | 18 | 29 | 12 | 3 |
| 9 | 35 | 21 | 3 | 3 |
| Total | 69 | 87 | 85 | 69 |
| **Laissez-Faire** | | | | |
| 2 | 24 | 29 | 7 | 2 |
| 7 | 11 | 33 | 14 | 4 |
| 8 | 8 | 35 | 15 | 4 |
| 14 | 5 | 17 | 11 | 29 |
| 15 | 34 | 16 | 9 | 3 |
| Total | 82 | 130 | 56 | 42 |

successful and unsuccessful coaches were physical education majors. As graduate students, 77% were physical education majors. None of the coaches minored in physical education as undergraduates. Three percent minored in physical education as graduate students. Nineteen percent of the coaches neither majored nor minored in physical education as undergraduate or graduate students.

AIAW member institutions are divided within the class of active membership on several bases such as: size of female student enrollment, type of institution, amount of financial aid based upon athletic ability, and level of competition. The successful and unsuccessful coaches surveyed in this study reported 24% classified in Division One, 35% in Division Two, and 38% in Division Three. Division Three represents small colleges or universities with an enrollment of 3000 or less full-time females.

Coaching certificates are not major requirements for coaches as of yet. The successful coaches involved in this study reported 24% with certificates and 76% without while the unsuccessful coaches reported 21% with certificates and 79% without.

Chapter V

SUMMARY, FINDINGS, DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS,

AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In preceding chapters, the problem was introduced, the related
literature was reviewed, the procedures and statistical techniques dis-
cussed, and the analyses of data presented.  This chapter is concerned
with the summary, findings, conclusions, and recommendations of the
study.  Specifically, the chapter contains six major sections:
(1) summary of purpose, (2) summary of procedures, (3) discussion,
(4) findings, (5) conclusions, and (6) recommendations.

## Summary of Purpose

The purpose of this study was to identify and to compare leadership
styles of successful and unsuccessful collegiate women basketball
coaches.  Subjects for the study consisted of 1981-1982 collegiate
women basketball coaches from Region 2 and Region 3 of the Association
for Intercollegiate Athletes for Women (AIAW).  Providing structure for
the study were ten research questions addressing the success and failure
of women coaches.  The research questions not only produced information
regarding collegiate women basketball coaches, but also made compari-
sons between two levels of coaches--the successful coach and the
unsuccessful coach.

## Summary of Procedures

### Population

The population of this study consisted of 100 collegiate women basketball coaches from nine states. Seventy-seven percent of the respondents marked and returned the questionnaires. Sixty-two percent of the questionnaires were in usable form. The coaches were placed into two groups according to their collegiate winning percentages. Coaches with percentages above .500 were termed successful coaches while those with a percentage of .500 and below were termed unsuccessful coaches.

### Instrumentation

The following instruments were selected for use in this study: (1) the Leadership Ability Evaluation (LAE), (2) the Coaches' Demographic Questionnaire, and (3) the Coaches' Leadership Evaluation Questionnaire (CLEQ).

The LAE assesses the decision-making pattern created by a person when he/she functions as a leader while influencing other persons or groups. The concept of leadership thus implies approaches or techniques influencing the behavior of others. The questionnaire consisted of 50 items, each of which constitutes a small leader-group type situation. The items reflected tendencies toward four leadership styles. The styles were: (1) Laissez-faire, (2) Democratic Cooperative, (3) Autocratic-submissive, and (4) Autocratic-aggressive. The four scores were also weighted to give a Total Score suggesting leadership effectiveness.

The Coaches' Demographic Questionnaire provided background information pertaining to: (1) current age, (2) academic achievement, (3) major field of study, (4) number of years as collegiate coach, (5) indications of coaching certificates, and (6) career won-lost record.

The CLEQ provided a tool for women coaches to describe their leadership behaviors while interacting with players. The questionnaire consisted of 15 items describing specific ways leaders behave. The responses were scored on three dimensions of leadership styles: (1) Democratic, (2) Autocratic, and (3) Laissez-faire. Each dimension consisted of five items.

## Data Collection and Analysis

Data collection was implemented by the mailing of three questionnaires to each coach. Upon completion of data collection, the data were coded and verified for processing. The Statistical Analysis System (SAS) was used to facilitate analysis.

The number and percentage of responses were tabulated from the two groups according to each of the four leadership styles measured by the LAE and the three dimensions measured by the CLEQ. The data from the LAE was compared to national norms contained in the test manual. Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficients were also computed between winning percentages and LAE scores. The t-test for a difference between two independent samples was used for LAE and CLEQ mean scores. Frequency and percentages were tabulated for the demographic data.

# Findings

Based on the results of this study, the following findings are presented:

1. <u>Research Question One</u>: What percentage of successful and unsuccessful responses are grouped into each of the leadership styles measured by the Leadership Ability Evaluation (LAE) scores?

The percentages of the coaches' responses from both groups were similar in each leadership classification.

2. <u>Research Question Two</u>: Does a relationship exist between successful and unsuccessful women basketball coaches as measured by LAE Scores and winning percentages?

All of the mean scores on the LAE were well within range when compared with typical individuals and outstanding leaders. None of the scores were above the 60th T-Score or below the 40th T-Score. These results indicated that successful and unsuccessful coaches of this study possessed neither high nor low degrees of leadership qualities in relation to the norm groups used. The results also indicated that the LAE <u>Total Scores</u> and profile analyses were similar to the norms of typical individuals rather than outstanding leaders.

3. The t-test results showed the differences were not statistically significant between scores from the LAE for successful and unsuccessful coaches at the .05 level of significance.

4. Correlation coefficients indicated low positive and low negative correlations between winning percentages and LAE scores for both groups of coaches. However, these correlations were not substantial enough to declare a noteworthy relationship.

5.  Research Question Three:  What percentage of successful and un-
successful responses are grouped into each of the leadership dimensions
measured by the Coaches' Leadership Evaluation Questionnaire (CLEQ)?

The percentages of responses were similar in the Democratic Dimen-
sion with the exception of questions four and eleven.  Eleven percent of
the successful coaches rarely experimented with new coaching methods or
procedures.  Only 8% of the unsuccessful coaches experiment with new
methods very frequently, whereas 67% often or very frequently experiment
with new methods.

Data from question eleven showed that 21% of the successful coaches
rarely and only 15% very frequently encourage team members to express
ideas concerning methods and procedures.  Eight percent of the unsuccess-
ful coaches rarely and 29% very frequently encourage their members to
criticize their methods and procedures.  The percentages for the Auto-
cratic Dimension showed the five items to be similar.  The only differ-
ences for the Laissez-faire Dimension was question 14.  Sixty-eight
percent of the successful coaches very frequently feel that athletes
will improve if motivation grows out of their own enthusiasm.  Only 13%
of the unsuccessful coaches responded very frequently.

6.  The CLEQ t-ratios showed no significant differences at the
.05 level of significance between the two groups of coaches' view of
their leadership behavior (Research question four).

7.  Personal demographic data were not conclusive in either indi-
cating leadership style or successful coaching (Research questions
five through ten).

## Discussion

The purpose of this study was to identify and compare leadership styles of successful and unsuccessful collegiate women basketball coaches. A substantial amount of research has been conducted concerning leadership styles. However, the majority of the research involves male coaches or male athletes. There is no way to know whether this material is applicable to female coaches.

This study was designed to measure success in terms of winning games. It was originally intended to show a type or types of discrimination between successful and unsuccessful coaching and leadership styles. In order to assess what type or types of leadership styles were more effective in coaching women's basketball, several statistical analyses were conducted. The evaluations focused on the coaches as they perceived their coaching behaviors.

The findings indicated that successful and unsuccessful women basketball coaches did not exhibit any distinguishable leadership styles. In fact, statistical analysis proved the two groups to employ basically the same leadership style. These results are in contrast to what Ogilvie (1965), Tutko and Richards (1971), Cratty (1973), and Tutko (1974) suggested when they indicated that coaches tend to score higher on measures of authoritarianism. Penman, Hastad, and Cords (1974) examined the success of coaches who exhibit an authoritarian personality. Their results also indicated that coaches are more authoritarian in nature. However, these conclusions are based on research conducted with

male coaches and the appropriate comparisons cannot be made with female coaches.

Related literature indicated that women have rejected any form of authoritarian leadership because this type resembles the style displayed often by men (Hart, 1980). In an analysis of leadership styles, Adickes (1977) reviewed several components for alternative leadership styles that were being experimented by women. In 1971, Allen investigated leadership and group interaction among female physical education administrators. Her conclusions indicated that female physical education administrators do not favor one style of leadership. From these observations and the results of this study, it may well be that female coaches are more adaptable in that their leadership behaviors are more flexible than men coaches. It is also possible that successful coaches are those who are most adaptable and respond to the demands of situational and team variables. This is supported by Swartz (1973), Rosenfeld and Plax (1975), and Farris (1979).

According to Neal and Tutko (1975), within the next decade women coaches must determine the format, style, and type of development for women's athletics. They should not only know what they want to accomplish, but the basis on which their decisions must be made. Women coaches must explore the forces underlying women's athletics, not only for personal understanding, but to distinguish personal needs that may interfere with the decision-making processes and the objective needs.

## Conclusions

Based upon the analysis of the data, the following conclusions were drawn:

1. the findings of this research study suggests that successful and unsuccessful women collegiate coaches employ basically the same leadership styles.

2. the percentages of successful coaches were similar to the percentages of unsuccessful coaches in each leadership style.

3. the successful and unsuccessful coaches possessed neither high nor low degrees of leadership qualities when compared to national norms.

4. the successful and unsuccessful coaches possessed decision making patterns similar to those of typical individuals rather than recognized leaders.

5. personal demographic data for successful and unsuccessful coaches were not conclusive in indicating leadership style or successful coaching.

## Recommendations

To further assist future research, the following recommendations appear justifiable based on the analysis of the data and review of the procedures:

1. research should be conducted comparing leadership behaviors of female athletic teams coached by males with those coached by females.

2. in future research, chi square statistical procedure can be implemented for more detailed item analysis.

3. a replication of the study comparing the leadership styles of highly successful NCAA Division 1 women basketball coaches with highly successful NCAA Division 3 women basketball coaches.

4. a study should be conducted comparing the leadership styles of women's team sports (basketball, softball) versus women's individual sports (swimming, bowling).

5. a replication of this study using criteria other than winning percentages, such as the number of scholarships awarded, and team morale.

6. a study should be conducted utilizing a form of evaluation for situational occurrences during the season rather than evaluating leadership styles and success on a seasonal basis.

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APPENDIX A

THE LEADERSHIP ABILITY EVALUATION QUESTIONNAIRE (LAE)

## WHAT YOU ARE TO DO

This booklet has fifty problems. Each problem has four possible answers. Each problem describes a situation in which a person in a leadership position wishes to influence another person or a group of persons toward goals desired by the leader.

You are to select one of the four answers which you believe accomplishes best the leader's goals. At times none of the four answers may be what you would do, but you must select the one answer closest to what you think you would do if you were the leader.

Select your one answer and draw a circle around the letter of your answer to the right of the problem, under the column marked "YOUR ANSWERS BELOW." Give one answer to each problem. Answer every problem.

You will have all the time you need to finish. But work fast.

Please turn the page and begin.

W-77A

# THE LEADERSHIP ABILITY EVALUATION

| AA | AS | DC | LF |
|----|----|----|----|
| YOUR ANSWERS BELOW | | | |

1. You see an acquaintance wearing an expensive watch that looks identical to the one you have just lost. What do you do?

   A. Say nothing.
   B. Demand he return the watch to you.
   C. Tell him you lost a watch similar to the one he is wearing; ask if it could be your lost watch.
   D. Call a policeman.

   B    D    C    A

2. Your mother shows favoritism toward your brother or sister. What do you do?

   A. Ask your father what to do.
   C. Do nothing and wait for a change.
   B. Discuss this with your mother.
   D. Insist your mother treat you fairly immediately.

   D    A    B    C

3. You are an older employee and feel that all the unpleasant jobs have been assigned to you instead of to other employees. What do you do?

   A. Insist your boss give all employees a share of the unpleasant duties.
   B. Do the job you are asked to do.
   C. Tell the grievance committee your complaint.
   D. Discuss your feeling with the other employees and ask them to take a share of those duties.

   A    C    D    B

4. You ride to school with several neighbor students who often are late for the ride. You want to be on time. What do you do?

   A. Discuss this with the driver to find ways of being on time.
   C. Insist they be on time.
   B. Arrange for another ride.
   D. Ask your parents what to do.

   C    D    A    B

5. Rubbish on a lot in your block makes a safety hazard for children. As a parent what do you do?

   A. Insist the owner clean up his lot.
   C. Volunteer your services and request your neighbors cooperation in cleaning up the lot.
   B. Request the city take action against the owner.
   D. Instruct your children to stay away from the lot.

   A    B    C    D

6. A large group of youths in a public playground try to decide what to do. As the playground director you:

   A. Say nothing until asked.
   C. Ask them to vote for the activities available.
   B. Appoint a committe to decide what the group should do.
   D. Assign persons from the group to various activities.

   D    B    C    A

7. Your younger brother or younger sister does not respect the privacy of your room, and continuously gets into your things when you are not around. What do you do?

   A. Complain to your parents.
   C. Discuss this in a family conference.
   B. Threaten your brother or sister with bodily harm.
   D. Wait for the youngsters to grow out of this stage.

   B    A    C    D

8. Nearly half your employees must be laid off for a long period of time. As the owner you:

   A. Lay off the least efficient workers first and keep the best workers.
   C. Appoint a employee - management committee to make recommendations.
   B. Keep those who have been employed the longest.
   D. Let the personnel department make the decision.

   A    B    C    D

| AA | AS | OC | LF |
|----|----|----|----|
| | YOUR ANSWERS BELOW | | |

9. You receive a failing grade in a class in which you think you did as well as the students who passed. What do you do?      C   B   D   A

A. Do nothing and repeat the course.
B. Discuss this with the principal.
C. Insist the teacher give you a passing grade.
D. Discuss this with the teacher and request an explanation.

10. A friend is running for a political office which you think he should not have. He asks you to campaign for him. What do you do?      A   D   B   C

A. Tell him he is not the right person for the office.
B. Tell him you will think it over.
C. Say nothing but do not campaign.
D. Discuss this with other friends.

11. The younger children leave the living room in disorder. As a parent, what do you do?      B   A   C   D

A. Discuss this with your husband and ask him what to do.
B. Insist they stay out of the living room completely.
C. Discuss this at a family conference with all present.
D. Do your best to keep it clean and hope they will grow up soon.

12. On a hunting party with friends, you first wound a deer. Another member kills it. What do you do?      A   B   C   D

A. Insist the deer is yours since you hit it first.
B. Ask the game warden to decide to whom the deer belongs.
C. Discuss this with your friend and share the deer.
D. Say nothing and let your friend have the deer.

13. Another person receives a promotion which you have been expecting. What do you do?      B   A   D   C

A. Use the grievance committee to investigate this.
B. See the boss to insist that you get the promotion.
C. Express your disappointment when you are home.
D. Ask the boss for ways to improve your qualifications.

14. Students are planning their careers. As their high school advisor, you should:      C   B   D   A

A. Let them plan for jobs which interest them.
B. Suggest they investigate careers which their parents think are best.
C. Assign students to study career areas you think are best.
D. Ask students to consider both their interests and abilities; then discuss appropriate career possibilities.

15. Your neighbor insists on burning trash in violation of the local ordinance. What do you do?      A   B   C   D

A. Insist he stop the burning immediately.
B. Report the violation to the police.
C. Inform your neighbor of the local law.
D. Close your windows and hope he stops burning.

16. As the coach, you see members of your football team breaking training rules before the "big game." What do you do?      A   C   B   D

A. Kick them off the team.
B. Have team members vote on their punishment.
C. Report this to the dean.
D. Say nothing and let them play.

17. You have lost your job and have trouble finding another suitable one. You dislike the suggestion from your wife that she find a job to help out. What do you do?      B   C   A   D

A. Allow her to get a temporary job and help her with the housework.
B. Insist she remain at home while you accept a low paying job.
C. Discuss this problem at the employment office.
D. Let your wife do as she pleases while you keep looking for a job.

| AA | AS | DC | LF |
|----|----|----|----|
| YOUR ANSWERS BELOW | | | |

18. As the owner of a business, you promote two of your relatives. The other employees complain about these promotions. What do you do?

    A. Do nothing but carry out the promotions you wish.
    C. Discuss and clarify your promotion policies with your employees.
    B. Use psychological tests to determine who is to be promoted.
    D. Sympathize with the employees complaining but do not change your decisions.

    A    B    C    D

19. A school song is to be chosen for a new high school. As the principal, What do you do?

    A. Ask the music department to write this song.
    C. Ask the student body and faculty to vote on several suggested songs.
    B. Select the song you think is best.
    D. Wait until a professional song writer volunteers to write this song.

    B    A    C    D

20. You are invited to join a social club. Your friends do a good deal of drinking of alcoholic beverages at this club. You do not approve of this drinking. What do you do?

    A. Join the club and work hard to change their habits.
    C. Do not join and say nothing.
    B. Ask non-members whom you respect how they feel about this.
    D. Denounce the principals and habits of the members and refuse to join.

    D    B    A    C

21. A neighbor applies for a license to open a business in your strictly residential area. What do you do?

    A. Take no action.
    C. Circulate a petition against the request.
    B. Discuss this with the city officials.
    D. Insist your neighbor withdraw the request.

    D    B    C    A

22. A group of students plan to raid a rival school the night before the "big game." As a fellow classmate, you do not think the raid should be carried out. What do you do?

    A. Tell the principal what the group is planning to do.
    C. Tell them to cancel their plans or you will tell the authorities.
    B. Let them go.
    D. Plead for good sportsmanship and warn them of the consequences if they go ahead.

    C    A    D    B

23. As a pilot, flying at high altitudes, you discover engine trouble. What do you do?

    A. Order everyone to parachute immediately.
    C. Discuss this with your crew and decide what to do.
    B. Radio your home base and ask for instructions.
    D. Fly for the nearest emergency airfield.

    A    B    C    D

24. Your husband feels he can afford to buy an expensive new car. The rest of the family want this car. As the wife, what do you do?

    A. Say nothing but insist on keeping the old car.
    C. Develop ways to save the money you will need for the new car.
    B. Insist on buying the new car at once.
    D. Discuss the cost of less expensive cars with the car dealer.

    B    D    C    A

25. Your group is trying to decide where to go for the evening. You prefer to go dancing. What do you do?

    A. Insist on going dancing or you and your date will go alone.
    C. Say nothing and go with the group.
    B. Ask the fellows how much they can afford to spend, then suggest places accordingly.
    D. State your preference but go along with the majority decision.

    A    B    D    C

| AA | AS | DC | LF |
|----|----|----|----|
| YOUR ANSWERS BELOW | | | |

26. Your daughter, a high school honor graduate, wishes very much to enroll in a university you know you cannot afford. What do you do?

    A. Hold a family conference and try for a compromise.
    B. Allow her to go to the university.
    C. Discuss this with the high school principal.
    D. Insist she go to the local city college.

    D    C    A    B

27. An employee of yours has been coming late recently. This interferes with the work flow. What do you do?

    A. Warn him that he will be fired next time he comes late.
    B. Report him to the personnel department.
    C. Say nothing and hope he improves.
    D. Discuss with him the importance of being on time and suggest he buy an alarm clock.

    A    B    D    C

28. A group of your close friends plan to skip school. You think this is a mistake. What do you do?

    A. Try to have them change their plans.
    B. Say nothing mind your own business.
    C. Talk this over with your favorite instructor and ask him what to do.
    D. Insist they go to school or you will tell the dean.

    D    C    A    B

29. Your community is to vote for three million dollars to construct badly needed school buildings. You favor this expenditure but because taxes are too high you oppose this action at this time. What do you do?

    A. Openly oppose this bond issue.
    B. Discuss your objections with the school board.
    C. Say nothing against the issue, but do not support it.
    D. Ask for an early community vote, and abide with the outcome.

    A    B    D    C

30. As a white resident in a large southern city you oppose segregation. A recent Supreme Court decision indicates that integration must take place. What do you do?

    A. Do nothing; say nothing.
    B. Organize your friends and demand integration at once.
    C. Support the Supreme Court decision and urge immediate steps toward integration.
    D. Request a committee of educators survey this problem and make recommendations.

    B    C    D    A

31. A senior class girl comes to school in an extremely low-cut dress. As her teacher, what do you do?

    A. Send her home and tell her to return dressed properly.
    B. Discuss this with the dean of girls or the principal.
    C. Do nothing.
    D. Discuss "good taste" with the girl concerned.

    A    B    D    C

32. You are a second lieutenant in a combat area. You need two men to go on a dangerous mission. What do you do?

    A. Ask for two volunteers.
    B. Have the men in your command draw straws to see who goes.
    C. Select two men.
    D. Ask the captain who should go.

    C    D    B    A

33. Your seventeen year old son insists that his allowance is not enough. You believe it is. What do you do?

    A. Give him his present allowance and refuse to discuss this further.
    B. Arrange for him to earn more money.
    C. Give him the extra money he requests.
    D. Find out what your son's friends get and then make a decision.

    A    D    B    C

| | AA | AS | DC | LF |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | YOUR ANSWERS BELOW | | | |

**34.** Several of your close friends decide to attend a symphony concert. You do not care for classical music. What do you do?

A. Tell them you have another engagement.

C. Insist they go to the movie you wish to see.

B. Ask them to choose between a movie and a symphony; then abide by their decision.

D. Ask for the opinion of one who has seen the movie and heard the concert.

C    D    B    A

**35.** You and your friends are planning a fishing party. The others wish to go to a mountain lake; you wish to go deep sea fishing. What do you do?

A. Insist they go deep sea fishing.

C. Let your friends go to the lake while you go to the sea.

B. Go where the reports show the fish are bitting best.

D. Go with your friends to the lake but plan deep sea fishing for another time.

A    B    D    C

**36.** Your twenty year old daughter plans to marry a man you strongly disapprove. What do you do?

A. Do not say or do anything unless you are asked.

C. Show strong disapproval but allow her to make the final decision.

B. Tell her if she marries him you will cut her out of your will.

D. Request she discuss this with other mature adults.

B    D    C    A

**37.** Your employees wish to be off work on a holiday. But a large order arrives which you would like to get out immediately. What do you do?

A. Insist everyone work on this holiday.

C. Explain the situation and your wishes, but allow them to take off if they wish to do so.

B. Ask them to work late several days before the holiday to get out the order.

D. Ask for a vote of the working force to decide if they work on the holiday or not.

A    B    C    D

**38.** You see a classmate cheating on an examination. What do you do?

A. Ignore it; mind your own business.

C. Ask the student to report his dishonesty to the instructor.

B. Insist the student be failed according to school rules.

D. Ask your parents or counselors what to do.

B    D    C    A

**39.** Your community is raising money for a worthy charity. You wish to support this drive. As the owner of a large company, what do you do?

A. Allow each employee to give what he wishes.

C. Ask an employee committee to handle the fund raising.

B. Tell each employee to donate 10% of his weekly pay.

D. Ask your company treasurer what is the proper thing to do.

B    D    C    A

**40.** You are sixteen years of age and in a car with four teen age friends. They play the game of "chicken" to see who will keep his hands off the steering wheel longest while driving at 50 miles an hour. It is your turn to drive. What do you do?

A. Take your turn but hold the wheel.

C. Remind them of the safe driving laws.

B. Laugh it off and tell them you do not play such silly games; suggest something else.

D. Refuse; tell them you will tell their parents if they do not stop this game at once.

D    C    B    A

**41.** A store clerk, for the second time, short changes you. As a regular customer, what do you do?

A. Report this to the manager.

C. Call this to the clerk's attention and request the correct change.

B. Say nothing but do not return to this store.

D. Ask your friends what to do.

A    D    C    B

| AA | AS | DC | LF |
|----|----|----|-----|
| YOUR ANSWERS BELOW | | | |

42. You try to study in the library, but some people are talking loudly. What do you do?

    A. Find a quiet corner.
    C. Politely request the talkers to be considerate of others.
    B. Ask the librarian to make them stop talking.
    D. Tell the talkers to be quiet.

    D     B     C     A

43. As the father of a large family with teen agers, in planning the yearly family vacation, you should.

    A. Make all plans yourself on basis of what you can afford.
    C. Hold a family conference, explain the money situation, and decide as a group.
    B. Let each member do as he wishes.
    D. Ask your wife to get vacation ideas from her friends.

    A     D     C     B

44. A mountain fire spreads rapidly to the area where you are picnicking. What do you do?

    A. Do nothing unless directed by the fire marshall.
    C. Call the fire marshall and volunteer your services.
    B. Ask all persons to help and direct them in putting out the fire.
    D. Discuss the fire with your group and decide whether to stay and fight the fire or leave.

    B     C     D     A

45. Two of your friends plan to leave school and join the army. You feel they are making a mistake. What do you do?

    A. Let them join the army.
    C. Explain the benefits of finishing school before enlisting in the army.
    B. Tell them they are making a mistake.
    D. Suggest they discuss their plans with a recruiting officer.

    B     D     C     A

46. Your wife, against your wishes, opens a charge account in an exclusive store. What do you do?

    A. Call the store and close the account.
    C. Discuss the money problem with your wife and work out an acceptable plan.
    B. Say nothing since your wife has a right to half the money you earn.
    D. Ask your banker what to do.

    A     D     C     B .

47. You enjoy the latest dance steps; but your boy friend does not. What do you do?

    A. Dance the steps he knows.
    C. Discuss this with him and teach him the new steps.
    B. Insist he take dancing lessons.
    D. Invite friends to a party where he can see them dance new steps.

    B     D     C     A

48. A promotion is offered you which requires that you be away from home a good deal. You prefer to remain home. What do you do?

    A. Accept but insist you be allowed to remain home.
    C. Discuss this promotion with your family and supervisor, then make your decision.
    B. Accept and carry on.
    D. Do not accept; request you be given the next promotion that does not require travel.

    A     C     D     B

49. You see a minor traffic accident caused by a car going through a red signal. What do you do?

    A. Say nothing; mind your own business.
    C. Call the police and insist the traffic violator be arrested.
    B. Volunteer as a witness for the person driving correctly.
    D. Discuss who was at fault with other persons present.

    C     D     B     A

50. A close friend smokes a cigarette on the school grounds; this is against the state law. What do you do?

    A. Tell him to put out the cigarette.
    C. Discuss with him the reasons for school rules against smoking.
    B. Tell the first faculty member you see what he is doing.
    D. Let him do as he pleases.

    A     B     C     D

APPENDIX B

COACHES' DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRE

Part I

COACHES' LEADERSHIP EVALUATION QUESTIONNAIRE (CLEQ)

Part 2

## COACHES' DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRE

Part I

College/University _____

State _____

AIAW Region _____

Male _____
Female _____

General Information:

1. Indicate <u>collegiate</u> career win-loss record as a head coach:

   _____ Wins
   _____ Losses

2. Indicate <u>overall</u> career win-loss record as a head coach:

   _____ Wins
   _____ Losses

3. Age:  _____ under 20      _____ 41 - 45
        _____ 21 - 25       _____ 46 - 50
        _____ 26 - 30       _____ 51 - 55
        _____ 31 - 35       _____ over 55
        _____ 36 - 40

4. Highest academic achievement:

   _____ Bachelor's Degree
   _____ Master's Degree
   _____ Doctor's Degree
   _____ Other, specify _____.

5. Indicate college major:         Undergraduate    Graduate

   Physical Education Major
   Physical Education Minor         _____          _____
   Neither Physical Education
     Major or Minor                 _____          _____

6. Indicate total number of years as a collegiate head coach: _____ years

7. Indicate current (1981-82) division classification:

   _____ I
   _____ II
   _____ III

8. Do you have a coaching certificate?

   _____ Yes
   _____ No

9. Are you interested in reviewing the results?

   _____ Yes
   _____ No

(over please)

Part II.  Listed below are some characteristic behaviors of coaches
occurring while interacting with players.  Please indicate
the extent to which each statement characterizes your
behavior as a coach.  You have four choices for each
statement.  Circle only one answer for each statement.

R- Rarely,  S- Sometimes,  O- Often,  VF- Very Frequently

1.  I feel that success and accomplishment are achieved
by strict devotion to stated goals.                        R  S  O  VF

2.  I prefer a pressure-free practice at all times.        R  S  O  VF

3.  I expect nothing short of complete dedication on
the part of each team member.                              R  S  O  VF

4.  I prefer to experiment with new coaching methods
and procedures.                                            R  S  O  VF

5.  I prefer an easy-going type of assistant coach.        R  S  O  VF

6.  I resort to forms of punishment to enforce the rules. R  S  O  VF

7.  I prefer athletes to feel independent of the
coach at all times.                                        R  S  O  VF

8.  I prefer athletes to define their own standards
of performance.                                            R  S  O  VF

9.  I criticize athletes in front of others.               R  S  O  VF

10.  I encourage weaker team members to greater efforts.   R  S  O  VF

11.  I encourage team members to express ideas
concerning my methods and procedures.                      R  S  O  VF

12.  I actively consider the well-being of each
player.                                                    R  S  O  VF

13.  I use positive means to motivate players.             R  S  O  VF

14.  I feel that athletes will improve if motivation
grows out of their own enthusiasm.                         R  S  O  VF

15.  I prefer athletes to set their own training
schedules.                                                 R  S  O  VF

APPENDIX C

COVER LETTER

# VIRGINIA POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE AND STATE UNIVERSITY

*Blacksburg, Virginia 24061*

DIVISION OF HEALTH, PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND RECREATION

August 15, 1981

Dear Coach:

At the present time I am involved in a nine-state research study concerning the leadership styles of women basketball coaches. This study is being conducted as part of my doctoral studies at Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University.

As a coach, and as a woman, you have a unique position of responsibility. To have a successful program, much is demanded from you as a person. Your leadership style and the techniques you use with your squad is of interest to me. I do need your help. Would you please assist me by completing the Personal Demographic Questionnaire and the Leadership Ability Evaluation Questionnaire which are enclosed?

I want to emphasize that total time involvement for the two questionnaires will not exceed one hour of your time. Individual responses will be confidential; the collective judgments of the participants will form the output of the study. Each questionnaire has been coded; however, this has been done for the purpose of sending follow-up letters only.

I do appreciate your taking some time from your busy schedule to do this for me. A self-addressed, stamped envelope is included for your convenience in returning the questionnaires. The success of this study depends upon your prompt reply. I will be happy to make the results of the study available if you would indicate your interest by checking the appropriate questions.

Please return the questionnaires by August 24. Thank you very much.

Sincerely,

Deborah J. Callaway

Dr. Margaret C. Driscoll
Committee Chairman

Encls.

APPENDIX D

FOLLOW-UP LETTER

# VIRGINIA POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE AND STATE UNIVERSITY

DIVISION OF HEALTH, PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND RECREATION

*Blacksburg, Virginia* 24061

September 8, 1981

Dear Coach:

You recently received a self-addressed stamped envelope and two questionnaires to be completed and returned to me by August 24. The overall response to my study has been gratifying; however, at this time I have not received all the responses. I hope you will take the time to complete the questionnaires in order to make my study as complete as possible. If you have returned the questionnaires, please accept my appreciation and disregard this notice.

I appreciate your time and effort toward this important contribution to the continuing excellence in women's athletics.

Thank you very much.

Sincerely,

Deborah J. Callaway

Dr. Margaret L. Driscoll
Committee Chairman

APPENDIX E

SECOND FOLLOW-UP LETTER

# VIRGINIA POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE AND STATE UNIVERSITY

*Blacksburg, Virginia* 24061

DIVISION OF HEALTH, PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND RECREATION

September 25, 1981

Dear Coach:

Recently you received a self-addressed stamped envelope and two questionnaires concerning the leadership styles of women basketball coaches. The number of early replies indicates a keen interest by those sampled in this study.

However, to date, I have not received your reply. Understanding that summer vacation may have interrupted your mail, may I again invite you to participate, so that your state will be well represented.

Enclosed you will find a second questionnaire. Your efforts in completing this questionnaire will be greatly appreciated.

Thank you,

Deborah Callaway

Dr. Margaret L. Driscoll
Committee Chairman

DC/MLD:mc

Enclosure

APPENDIX F

WEIGHTED SCORE FORMULA

## Determining the TOTAL SCORE

| Mode | Raw Score | Weight | Weighted Score |
|------|-----------|--------|----------------|
| LF | | x 7 | |
| DC | | x 1 | |
| AS | | x 4 | |
| AA | Not used for Total Score | | |

Sum of Weighted Scores = Total Weighted Score

$$\text{TOTAL SCORE} = \frac{\text{Total Weighted Score}}{10} = \frac{\phantom{xxxx}}{10} = \boxed{\phantom{x}}$$

T
O
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APPENDIX G

THE LAE PROFILE

## THE L A E PROFILE

| T-SCORE | LF | | DC | | AS | | AA | | TOTAL SCORE | |
|---------|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|
| | Raw Score | | Raw Score | | Raw Score | | Raw Score | | | |
| | T.I.* | O.L.** | T.I. | O.L. | T.I. | O.L. | T.I. | O.L. | T.I. | O.L. |
| 80 | 25 | 16 | 45 | 48 | 18 | 19 | 14 | 10 | 24 | 21 |
| 75 | 22 | 14 | 42 | 46 | 17 | 17 | 12 | 9 | 22 | 19 |
| 70 | 20 | 13 | 39 | 43 | 15 | 15 | 11 | 8 | 21 | 17 |
| 65 | 17 | 11 | 36 | 40 | 14 | 13 | 9 | 6 | 19 | 16 |
| 60 | 15 | 9 | 33 | 38 | 12 | 12 | 8 | 5 | 17 | 14 |
| 55 | 12 | 8 | 30 | 35 | 11 | 10 | 6 | 4 | 15 | 12 |
| 50 | 10 | 6 | 27 | 32 | 9 | 8 | 5 | 4 | 13 | 11 |
| 45 | 7 | 4 | 24 | 30 | 7 | 6 | 3 | 2 | 11 | 9 |
| 40 | 5 | 3 | 21 | 27 | 6 | 5 | 2 | 1 | 9 | 7 |
| 35 | 2 | 2 | 18 | 24 | 4 | 3 | 1 | 1 | 7 | 6 |
| 30 | 1 | 1 | 15 | 21 | 2 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 4 |
| 25 | 0 | 0 | 12 | 19 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 4 | 2 |
| 20 | 0 | 0 | 10 | 16 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 0 |

*T.I. = Typical Individuals

** O.L. = Outstanding Leaders

APPENDIX H

THE STATE-BY-STATE PERCENTAGES OF RETURNS

FOR SUCCESSFUL AND UNSUCCESSFUL COACHES

FROM REGION 2 OF THE AIAW

The State-by-State Percentages of Returns

for Successful and Unsuccessful Coaches

from Region 2 of the AIAW

| State | Region 2 | | | |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| | Number Mailed | Number Received | Number Usable | Usable (%) |
| Kentucky | 10 | 9 | 8 | 80 |
| North Carolina | 20 | 17 | 15 | 75 |
| South Carolina | 10 | 6 | 3 | 30 |
| Tennessee | 7 | 4 | 4 | 57 |
| Virginia | 25 | 23 | 19 | 76 |
| Total | 72 | 59 | 49 | |

APPENDIX I

THE STATE-BY-STATE PERCENTAGES OF RETURNS

FOR SUCCESSFUL AND UNSUCCESSFUL COACHES

FROM REGION 3 OF THE AIAW

The State-by-State Percentages of Returns

for Successful and Unsuccessful Coaches

from Region 3 of the AIAW

| State | Region 3 | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Number Mailed | Number Received | Number Usable | Usable (%) |
| Alabama | 9 | 6 | 5 | 55 |
| Florida | 6 | 4 | 4 | 66 |
| Georgia | 8 | 5 | 3 | 37 |
| Mississippi | 5 | 3 | 1 | 20 |
| Total | 28 | 18 | 13 | |

APPENDIX J

NORMS OF TYPICAL INDIVIDUALS

Norms of Typical Individuals

In Terms of a T-Score with Mean of 50 and SD of 10

(N = 2,000)

| T-Score | Score<br>Laissez<br>Faire<br>LF | Score<br>Democratic<br>Cooperative<br>DC | Score<br>Autocratic<br>Submissive<br>AS | Score<br>Autocratic<br>Aggressive<br>AA | Total<br>Score<br>Decision<br>Pattern |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 80 | 24.56 | 44.57 | 18.46 | 13.88 | 24.33 |
| 75 | 22.06 | 41.65 | 16.86 | 12.37 | 22.44 |
| 70 | 19.56 | 38.73 | 15.26 | 10.86 | 20.55 |
| 65 | 17.06 | 35.81 | 13.66 | 9.35 | 18.66 |
| 60 | 14.56 | 32.89 | 12.06 | 7.84 | 16.77 |
| 55 | 12.06 | 29.97 | 10.46 | 6.33 | 14.88 |
| 50 | 9.56 | 27.05 | 8.86 | 4.82 | 12.99 |
| 45 | 7.06 | 24.13 | 7.26 | 3.31 | 11.10 |
| 40 | 4.56 | 21.21 | 5.66 | 1.62 | 9.21 |
| 35 | 2.06 | 18.29 | 4.06 | 0.81 | 7.32 |
| 30 | 1.00 | 15.37 | 2.46 | 0.00 | 5.43 |
| 25 | 0.50 | 12.45 | 1.23 | 0.00 | 3.54 |
| 20 | 0.00 | 9.53 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 1.65 |
| M | 9.56 | 27.05 | 8.56 | 4.82 | 12.99 |
| SD | 4.89 | 5.83 | 3.09 | 3.01 | 2.76 |

APPENDIX K

NORMS OF OUTSTANDING LEADERS

  
Norms of Outstanding Leaders

In Terms of a T-Score with a Mean of 50 and SD of 10

(N = 400)

| T-Score | Score<br>Laissez<br>Faire<br>LF | Score<br>Democratic<br>Cooperative<br>DC | Score<br>Autocratic<br>Submissive<br>AS | Score<br>Autocratic<br>Aggressive<br>AA | Total<br>Score<br>Decision<br>Pattern |
|---------|------|------|------|------|------|
| 80 | 15.90 | 48.43 | 18.69 | 10.20 | 20.84 |
| 75 | 14.24 | 45.73 | 16.93 | 8.90 | 19.14 |
| 70 | 12.58 | 43.03 | 15.17 | 7.60 | 17.44 |
| 65 | 10.92 | 40.33 | 13.41 | 6.30 | 15.74 |
| 60 | 9.26 | 37.63 | 11.65 | 5.00 | 14.04 |
| 55 | 7.60 | 34.93 | 9.89 | 3.70 | 12.34 |
| 50 | 5.94 | 32.23 | 8.13 | 3.70 | 10.64 |
| 45 | 4.28 | 29.53 | 6.37 | 1.80 | 8.94 |
| 40 | 2.62 | 26.83 | 4.61 | 1.00 | 7.24 |
| 35 | 1.21 | 24.13 | 2.85 | 0.50 | 5.54 |
| 30 | 0.60 | 21.43 | 1.47 | 0.00 | 3.84 |
| 25 | 0.00 | 18.73 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 2.14 |
| 20 | 0.00 | 16.03 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 0.44 |
| M | 5.94 | 32.23 | 8.13 | 3.70 | 10.64 |
| SD | 3.21 | 5.38 | 3.43 | 2.49 | 2.39 |

# A COMPARISON OF LEADERSHIP STYLES OF SUCCESSFUL AND UNSUCCESSFUL COLLEGIATE WOMEN BASKETBALL COACHES

by

Deborah Johnson Callaway

(ABSTRACT)

The purpose of this study was to identify and to compare leadership styles of successful and unsuccessful collegiate women basketball coaches. Subjects for the study consisted of 1981-1982 collegiate women basketball coaches from Region 2 and Region 3 of the Association for Intercollegiate Athletics for Women (AIAW). Providing structure for the study were ten research questions addressing the success and failure of women coaches. The research questions not only produced information regarding collegiate women basketball coaches, but also made comparisons between two levels of coaches--the successful and unsuccessful coach.

The following research instruments were used in this study: (1) the Leadership Ability Evaluation (LAE), (2) the Coaches' Demographic Questionnaire, and (3) the Coaches' Leadership Evaluation (CLEQ).

Questionnaires were mailed to 100 women basketball coaches from the nine states of Region 2 and Region 3. Seventy-seven percent of the coaches marked and returned the questionnaires. Sixty-two percent of the questionnaires were in usable form. The coaches were placed

into two groups according to their collegiate winning percentages.
Coaches with percentages above .500 were termed successful coaches while
those with a percentage of .500 and below were termed unsuccessful
coaches.

Upon completion of data collection, the data were coded and veri-
fied for processing. The Statistical Analysis System (SAS) was used to
facilitate analysis. The number of percentage of responses were tabu-
lated from the two groups according to each of the four leadership
styles measured by the LAE and the three dimensions measured by the
CLEQ. The data from the LAE were compared to national norms contained
in the test manual. Pearson Product Moment correlation coefficients
were also computed between winning percentages and LAE scores. The
t-test for a difference between two independent samples was used for
LAE and CLEQ mean scores. Frequency and percentages were tabulated
for the demographic data.

On the basis of these analyses, the following conclusions were
drawn:

1. successful and unsuccessful women collegiate coaches employ
basically the same leadership styles.

2. the percentages of successful coaches were similar to the per-
centages of unsuccessful coaches in each leadership style.

3. the successful and unsuccessful coaches possessed neither high
nor low degrees of leadership qualities when compared to national norms.

4. personal demographic data for successful and unsuccessful coaches
were not conclusive in indicating leadership style or successful coaching.