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**Coaches' perception of their own leadership behavior and the
congruence with education and personality**

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Abstract

A quantitative cross-sectional survey design was used to investigate the relationship between educational levels and perceived actual leadership behavior while deliberating the effect of personality. The participants ($n = 61$) were female and male Swedish amateur and elite tennis coaches. Two instruments were used: the Leadership Scale for Sport, and the Big Five Inventory. 16 items were constructed specially for this study to assess demographic and background. It was hypothesized that personality as measured by the Big Five Inventory would influence leadership behavior as measured by the Leadership Scale for Sport to a lesser degree than educational level. A correlation was hypothesized between extraversion/agreeableness and democratic behavior, social support, and positive feedback. Tendencies advocate personality, rather than education, as the prominent determinant of perceived behavior. Extraversion correlated statistically significant with social support ($r = .28$) and with positive feedback ($r = .27$). These and additional results are discussed in relation to the theoretical frameworks, and previous research.

Key words: perceived actual leadership, education, personality, tennis coach, Swedish Model

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Introduction

Almost 600 000 individuals are estimated to have one or several leadership duties within the Swedish sport system¹, most of them without any economical profit from their work (RF, 2002). The importance of the coaches cannot be underestimated, and as RF (2009, p.15) pointed out “The coaches must be recognized, encouraged, and given the opportunity to develop (translated by the author)”. In the same report RF (p.10) visualized that “Swedish sport want to be the best in the world for all at all levels”. Further, they argued that a *world leading* educational activity constitute one part on which this vision is built. However, research has shown (RF, 2006a) that coaches are not always satisfied with the education that the Swedish sport organizations provide, and a wish for higher educational requirements and specific standards to obtain, for example, coach certificates should be implemented in the Swedish sport system to guarantee the quality of the leadership (coaching) performed.

Yet another study (RF, 2006b) provided support for the importance of the experience from applied work within the sport club in the process of learning the nature of sports leadership, or in other words how to be a good coach. Thus, the Swedish sports leader (i.e. coach) performs in an environment where the governing body appears to still be trying to figure out the best way to create good leadership. Meanwhile, the flora of sport related educations in varying forms keep on increasing on the Swedish market (see for example Åkesson, 2010). The emphasis that education does matter for an individual’s development and expertise is now anchored to the establishment of sports in general, and within RF in particular, which is illustrated by the following quotation:

The optional coach education has been and will be of decisive importance for the work development within Swedish sport. Through the optional coach education new knowledge, build upon research and collective work towards development, should be brought out to the leaders in the local sports organizations. It is there, out in the local organizations, where Swedish sport is being formed... (RF, 2009, pp. 37-38) (Translated by the author)

¹ The Swedish sport system is organized according to what is commonly referred to as an umbrella structure. The governing body is *Riksidrottsförbundet* (i.e. RF), which covers all the national-, special-, and local sports organizations. The *Swedish Model* is founded in democratic ideologies, and mainly built by, and depending on, adults and youths who are willing to put their knowledge, experiences, and work in to an organization which is based on a non-profit principle.

Statement of the problem

Elite junior tennis has been recognized as a multifaceted social setting involving complex relationships between players, parents, and coaches (Wolfenden & Holt, 2005), which suggests that coaching elite junior tennis players would require some specific coaching skills, that is, a leader behavior that distinguishes them from non-elite coaches. Evidently, the Swedish Model (see footnote 1) doesn't entail any requirements concerning degree of education at any level. Nevertheless, efforts are being made with the ambition to set standards for coaches involved in competitive sports. In the requirement analysis from the Swedish Tennis Federation (SvTF, 2007/2008a) education is proposed as an instrument to increase the competence level among coaches, players and parents. Further, a coach license, and an increased amount of hours spent in applied work with a course leader present is suggested, this to ensure the quality of the leadership carried out with the commitment to create more successful athletes. This analysis was later extended into a Developmental Model (SvTF, 2007/2008b) where the educational level of the coach is recommended specifically according to the age/level of the players, note, this is still simply recommendation. Hence, no official requirements are set in terms of education². Consequently, the question is not to what extent education and applied work is needed to create good leadership; it's whether the educational syllabus that is offered lead to a more competent group of professionals.

Importance of the study

In Swedish research the emphasis has been on the issue whether coaches have an education or not, and most studies approaching leadership style has exclusively been qualitative in nature with a focus on sociological issues and personal relationships. This study aims to explore the relationship between perceived actual leadership behavior and educational level, in terms of both sport specific education (i.e. tennis coach education) and academic education, while considering personality as a possible moderator to this relationship. Even if the voluntary leaders are assigned to be an invaluable part of the Swedish Model, the focus of this study is on leaders that are employed, in the range from full time coaches to coaches paid by the hour; however, their leadership per se cannot be seen as less important and meaningful. Hence, this study will add to the body of knowledge related to leadership behavior, education, and

² It should be noted, at the 4th level (players aged 14-16 years) it's stated that the coach *shall have* completed the higher coach education provided by the Swedish Tennis Federation, but, this seem to be a printing error rather than a real requirement since at the next level (players aged 16-18), once again only recommendations concerning education are given.

personality of coaches. Additionally it may aid both the governing body (RF), the Swedish Tennis Federation, and coaches in Sweden, to better understand the impact of the current education on leadership behavior. Thus, this study can bring evocative insights for those who work with the professional preparation of coaches.

Theoretical Framework

Even though few, some different approaches have been used in the pursuit of accessing leadership behavior in sports (e.g. Conroy & Coatsworth, 2006; Isberg, 1992; Chelladurai, 1984; Smoll & Smith, 1989). This study uses the Multidimensional Model of Leadership developed by Chelladurai (1978) to explain actual leadership behavior as perceived by the coaches themselves. The model proposes a situational, complex, relationship to leadership behavior (described in detail below), and suggests that performance and satisfaction among team members are a function of the congruence between three states of leader behavior. Further, behavior does not occur in a void, therefore, the attributes of the situation, the leader, and the members are proposed to be the decisive background for the three categories of behavior (Chelladurai, 1978; 1990; Chelladurai & Carron, 1978). For example, the Multidimensional Model of Leadership (MML) exemplifies how the personality of the leader is seen as one of the determinants of actual behavior.

The Multidimensional Model of Leadership

The Multidimensional Model of Leadership (see figure 1) was developed by Chelladurai (1978) as an attempt to progress the study of leadership in sports. This conceptual framework, by combining preceding theories, allowed for studying leadership within the special features that represent the sport setting. The model's focal points is gathered in three states of leader behavior: (1) leader behavior prescribed by macro-variables (e.g. the goals of the organization, the size of the team, the attributes of the task); (2) preferred leader behavior (i.e. coaching behavior preferred by the group); and (3) actual leader behavior (i.e. the behavior performed by the coach).

Specifically, *prescribed leader behavior* (i.e. required behavior) refers to demands that are set on leader behaviors (Box 4) by conventional situational characteristics (Box 1). The behavior of the leader, hence, becomes a product of existing cultures, norms, and governmental conventions within the organization. Additionally, in case of the subordinates (i.e. the

athletes) are incapable of making legitimate judgments of the leader behavior required by the situation, the leader will have to decide for the members (Chelladurai, 1990).

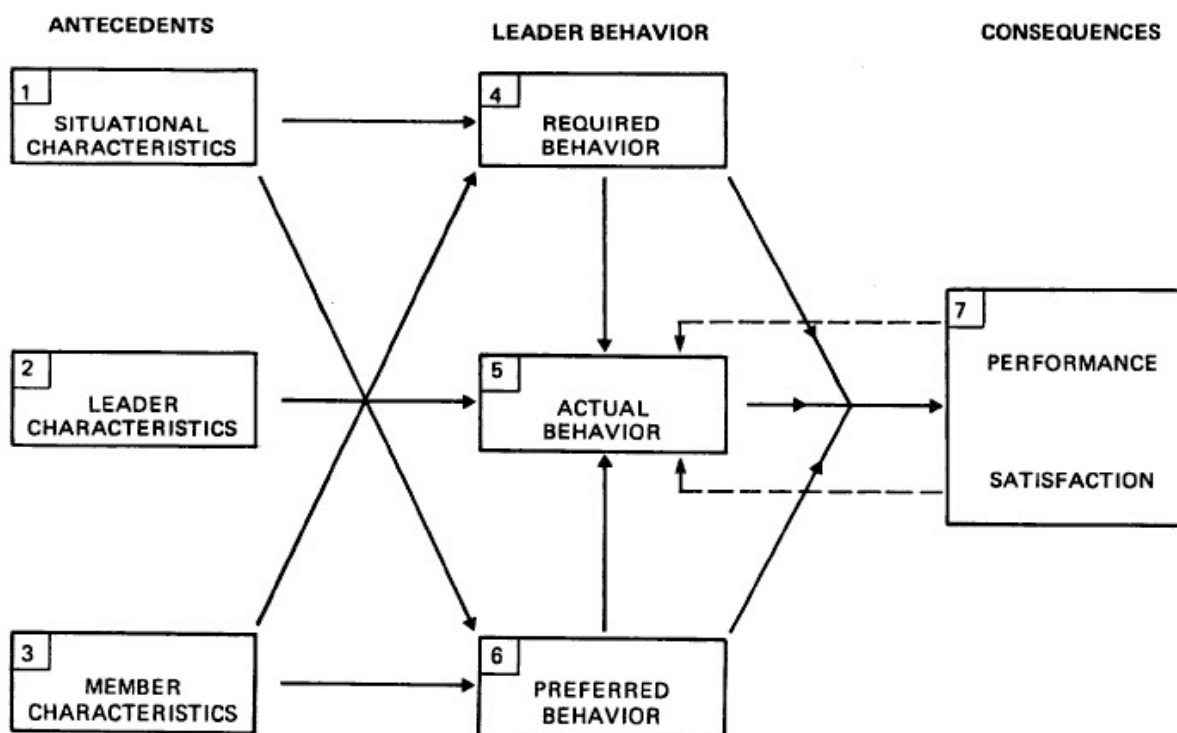


Figure 1. The Multidimensional Model of Leadership (Chelladurai, 1990)

Preferred leader behavior (Box 6) is mainly a function of the individual attributes of the team members (Box 3). Individual differences in terms of needs for particular performance related concepts will influence the preference for specific leader behaviors (i.e. social support, coaching and guidance, and feedback), and further act as mediators to the effect of situational characteristics (Box 1).

Thirdly, *actual leader behavior* (Box 5) is a product of the personality, skills, and experience of the leader (Box 2), and the situational demands (Box 4). For example, an amateur team and a professional team would have different goals that would require the coach to behave correspondingly. Further, it is suggested that the behavior executed by the leader is affected by the subordinates' (i.e. team members') preferences for an explicit behavior. For instance, a girls' junior team would not expect the same behavior as a men's senior team from the same coach.

Finally, the model explains *performance and satisfaction* to be a function of the amount of the congruence between the three mentioned leader behaviors (Box 7). Further, Chelladurai and Carron (1978) point out that, even though participation in sports can have multiple outcomes, this element is the focus of the Multidimensional Model since performance and satisfaction are the most prominent consequences for athletes.

Consequently, the present study is explicitly concerned with two assumptions of the Multidimensional Model of Leadership: (1) prescribed behavior (i.e. provided tennis coach education), as a function of situational characteristics (i.e. the convention of the Swedish Model), and (2) leaders characteristics (i.e. personality measured by the BFI) as determinants of actual leader behavior.

The Leadership Scale for Sport

At this point it becomes vital to explain the main concepts of the Leadership Scale for Sports (LSS) (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1980). Primarily, since the LSS's measures contain relevant constructs and parameters that add essential parts to the theoretical framework. The scale has its origin in the theoretical framework of House's (1971) path-goal theory, wherefrom Chelladurai draw his task-related proposition. Basically, the path-goal concept has its emphasis on member's (e.g. athletes) personal goals, their perceptions of the goals of the organization (e.g. sport club), and the most efficient way, or path, to reach these goals. The idea is that the athletes' satisfaction is affected by the coaching behaviors' suitability to the features of the task, and leadership serves to align members' personal goals with the goals of the organization. Hence, the leader's role is to make the path to the goals as well defined, and easy to travel as possible. Precisely, when the task at hand is *varied* and *interdependent*, structure operates by regulating and making the path-goal relationship clearer. Then, the coach's structuring behavior will result in the athletes being more coordinated, satisfied, and it will increase their level of performance.

The degree, to which the performance of a task demands interaction with other tasks in the group in order to be successful, and where the success of the individual parts' is based on the coordination of these tasks, is termed *dependence*. Hence, *independent sports* are those where the athlete by him-/herself can carry out a task successfully without interacting with other athletes, while *interdependent sports* are sports where the outcome, or performance is dependent upon the interaction between athletes performing different tasks. This dimension

evidently distinguishes individual and team sports (Chelladurai, 1984). For example, soccer and basketball are good examples of interdependent sports, whereas tennis and alpine skiing represent independent sports.

The *task variability* is related to the environment, and how likely it is for it to change (i.e. vary). According to Chelladurai and Saleh (1978) the environmental variability is preferably seen as a continuum. Briefly, low levels of variability exist in a task if the performance occurs in an environment that is unlikely to change, or unexpected events are unlikely to happen; high variability exist in tasks where the environment is unpredictable, which obliges the athlete to be skillful in altering his/her performance rapidly to changes that occur. These two sets of task variability in turn define the requirement of closed (i.e. low variability), and open (i.e. high variability) behavior. Hence, tennis would be a good example of an *open sport*, whereas long jump exemplifies a *closed sport*.

From this proposition, Chelladurai (1978) makes five specific suggestions about athletes' preferences for coach behavior in relationship to the type of the task; (1) training and instruction would be preferred more often by athletes in interdependent and open sports relative to athletes in independent and closed sports, (2) democratic coach behavior would be preferred by athletes in independent sports more regularly than athletes in the opposite type of sport, (3) autocratic behavior would not be preferred as much by athletes in independent sports as those in interdependent sports, (4) social support from the coach would be preferred more by athletes in independent sports than those in the other type of sport, and (5) positive feedback would be preferred by athletes in interdependent and open sports more than athletes in independent and closed sports. Nonetheless, later findings have given miscellaneous support for this proposition (cf. Chelladurai 1984; Chelladurai & Carron, 1983).

Consequently, the LSS measure five types of leader behavior (described below according to Chelladurai's adapted version, 2006, p. 193)

- I. *Training and instruction*: coaching behavior aimed at improving the athletes' performance by emphasizing and facilitating hard and strenuous training; Instructing them in the skills, techniques, and tactics of the sport; clarifying the relationship among the members; and structuring and coordinating the members' activities.

- II. *Social support*: Coaching behavior characterized by a concern for the welfare of individual athletes, positive group atmosphere, and warm interpersonal relations with members.
- III. *Positive feedback*: Coaching behavior that reinforces an athlete by recognizing and rewarding good performance.
- IV. *Democratic behavior*: Coaching behavior that allows greater participation by athletes in decisions pertaining to group goals, practice methods, and game tactics and strategies.
- V. *Autocratic behavior*: Coaching behavior that involves independent decision-making and stresses personal authority.

In this study the Swedish version measuring the coach's own behavior (Fahlström, 2006a), actual behavior as perceived by the coach, was used to assess leadership behavior.

The Big Five Inventory

The Big Five Inventory is an assessment based on self-report that aims to test five fundamental personality dimensions; Extroversion, Conscientiousness, Agreeableness, Neuroticism, and Openness (John & Srivastava, 1999). Originally the test was developed intentionally to research settings, however today it is an accessible instrument that is used in a variety of psychological institutions. Personality is assumed to be founded in our inheritance, but is developed throughout life by our experiences, during a persons' childhood and adolescence, and everyday life (Zakrisson, 2010). The Big Five traits are comprehensive personality concepts that are established in more explicit traits. For each statement; *I see my self as someone who...*; the answer is given on a five point scale ranging between (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree. The questionnaire can be found in both short versions and full versions, ranging from 10 to 50 items. In this study the full Swedish version with 50 items was used (Bäckström, 2007). The dimensions of the test are:

- I. *Extraversion*: Describes, on the higher end, persons who are social, like fun, amusement, and pleasure. They are personal oriented, and optimistic. On the other end of the scale (negative end) extroversion defines individuals who have tendencies towards depression, anxiety, anger, insecurity, and being emotional.
- II. *Conscientiousness*: Measures a person's degree of persistence, goal attainment, and ability to organize. On the higher end of the scale we find individuals who are loyal,

hard working, have self-discipline, and are ambitious. On the lower end we find lazy, careless, non-trustable, and un-ambitious individuals.

- III. *Agreeableness*: Describes individuals who have sympathy for others, are trustful, forgiving, helpful, and have a good heart. On the opposite, lower end of the scale we find individuals who are rude, cynical, suspicious, manipulative, and like to take revenge.
- IV. *Neuroticism (Emotional Stability)*: On the higher end we have individuals who easily get nervous, worries about things, and on the other end we have stable, calm, and self-secure individuals who are satisfied with whom they are. Neuroticism is defined as emotional imbalance.
- V. *Openness or Openness to Experience*: Describes people who are open for new things, they like intellectual stimuli, and new experiences. On the higher end we have curious, imaginative, interested, creative, non-controversial and original individuals. An individual with the opposite traits is to be found at the negative side of the scale.

Previous Research

Swedish and international research on leadership in sport

There are various definitions of leadership, but three common elements have been found which can be described in the following definition: “Leadership is a behavioral process aimed at influencing members to work toward achieving the group’s goals (Chelladurai, 2006, p. 191)”. Hence, the emphasis is on what the leaders do and not what they are. In this paper the word coach(ing) is used equivalent to the definition of leadership. One view of leadership that has become prominent in the last decade is the gender approach to coaching. A review of women and sport in 16 countries has shown that, with regard to leadership positions in sport, women are under-represented in all areas and at all levels (Hartmann & Pfister, 2003). However, Chelladurai, Kuga, and O’Bryant (1999) state that this difference could partly be explained by men’s preferences for coaching, and they will therefore be more prone to seek coaching jobs than women. In the Swedish research domain, Redelius (2002) found that female coaches tend to have passed sport-coach education, and also passed several other educations to a higher degree than men, however, females still tend to be limited to coach children up to 12 years of age. Redelius also noted that females were coaching girls and mixed teams, while men exclusively coached teams with only boys, or girls. In line with

previous authors' findings, Redelius similarly found that females are underrepresented as coaches in Sweden.

Swedish research has shown (Fahlström, 2006a; Redelius, 2002) that coaches, both on the elite and the non-elite level, perceive themselves as being born with, or possessing some type of qualifications, skills and personality characteristics that make them to leaders. Further, based on findings that show how coaches on higher levels frequently are hired to top coach or management positions without any formal education, Swedish researchers have tried to understand the skills and competences gained from the active career as an elite athlete (Fahlström, 2006b). Similar attempts have also been made concerning non-elite coaches, by trying to understand the skills and competences gained from applied work as a voluntary coach (RF, 2006b). However, referring to Isberg (1992), coaches might still need to develop skills to be able to reflect more insightful on their behavior. Conversely, more recent research has shown that Scandinavian coaches in general have a firm background from applied work and education. Specifically, coaches with an education in sports exhibit more positive feedback, and coaches with work experience over 10 years significantly exhibit more training and instruction and social support than less experienced coaches (Johansen, et al., 2009a; 2009b).

However, international studies have shown that parents to elite junior tennis players were the main source of emotional support, while coaches tried to limit their role to tennis-specific advice and avoid personal relationships outside the tennis setting with the players (Wolfenden & Holt, 2005). Moreover, the gender of the coach has been proven to have an effect on the preference for the executing of typical leader behavior (i.e. social support), where athletes having a female coach preferred less social support than athletes having a coach of the opposite gender (Riemer & Toon, 2001).

The Swedish research on leadership, in general, has focused on the meaning of being a voluntary leader within the Swedish sport system. However, one of the Swedish researchers trying to find deeper understanding about the role of being a coach is Leif Isberg. According to him coaches don't seem concerned to find out what prerequisites the sport club has to work on an elite level, they don't know much about (a) athletes expectations, (b) the requirements set by the organization on coaches and athletes, or (c) the organizational structure of the club (Isberg, 1992). Further, he points out that it's very rare that a leadership behavior or pattern is

clear-cut, for example either autocratic or democratic. Rather, the importance is where the emphasis lies within the coach's leadership behavior. Hence, he argues that coaches shall gain insight on how they function and react in different situations.

Yet another study has shown that Swedish coaches identify difficulties in their work (Redelius, 2002), for example, pedagogical problems in situations of solving conflicts with children and parents, lack of patience, difficulties to control one's own temper, and a feeling of psychological pressure related to the demands and expectations that comes with the coach role. In line with Redelius's findings, previous research (Annerstedt, 1991) found the following qualities to be important components in the competence of physical education teachers: (a) create a friendly atmosphere, (b) lead and plan the work, (c) present the content in an adequate way, and (d) teach/educate. Furthermore, Annerstedt (2007) argues that the foundation to succeed as a physical education teacher is to love children and have an understanding of individual differences and interests. Thus, it is necessary to like sports but it's not enough to be able to succeed as a teacher and knowing how to motivate and engage your pupils with the tools of sports. With the close linkage between physical educators and sport coaches, it can be assumed that these findings would also apply to different levels of sport coaching.

Finally, it has been discussed in previous research (Fahlström, 2006a) the potential existence of a "Swedish Management". This assumption asserts that Swedish sport coaches are presumed to possess some unique, and specific types of leader behaviors that distinguish them from coaches from other countries. For example, they are characterized by their delegating behavior, humanity, and modernity. Nonetheless, it is still not clear what kind of skills and knowledge that are needed to be able to handle the requirements that are requested from Swedish coaches. This uncertainty might fall on the fact that there is no accepted formal requirement on coaches as to their level of education, skills or knowledge. Fahlström declares the importance of further research on what defines a coach in Swedish circumstances.

It is clear that the coach role is complex and dynamic, and that coaches feel demands and expectations even though they are not stated in any formal declaration. With the above discussion in mind, it is implied that we cannot discount for personality when studying leadership behavior, and that education might mediate the behavior executed by the coach.

However, research should be done within a framework that allows for various variables to determinate leader behavior, as mentioned before, leadership does not occur in a void.

Research on coaching and education

To offer ideal psychological benefits for youth athletes, training programs for coaches exemplify one way to refine situational characteristics in youth sport. The most influential work in the area of evaluating training programs and intervention for coaches in sport has been conducted by Smith and Smoll and their associates (e.g. Smoll & Smith, 1989; Smith & Smoll 1990; Smith, Smoll, & Curtis, 1979; Smith, Smoll, & Hunt, 1977). Their development of the CBAS (Coaching Behavior Assessment System) allowed for more thorough qualitative measurements of leadership behaviors in sport (Smith, Smoll, & Hunt, 1977). In a study on little league baseball coaches (Smith, Smoll, & Curtis, 1979) they found, after a two hours educational session on suggested behavioral guidelines to coaching, that the athletes of coaches in the intervention group perceived their coach more positively. Specifically, significant results were obtained when comparing the intervention group and the experimental group for overt coaching behavior; trained coaches were rated as executing more reinforcement, positive encouragement on mistakes made, and general technical instructions; and less likely to engage in destructive behavior such as punishment and absence of reinforcement, similar results have been found by Conroy and Coatsworth (2006).

Additionally, studies have shown that with *Coach Effectiveness Training* (CET), which has a focus on social support and teaching coaches how to better relate to their athletes, youth sport coaches can, independent of wins and losses, have positive effects on athletes' self-esteem, perceptions of their coach, and enjoyment during practice (Smoll, Smith, Barnett, & Everett, 1993). However, the results for increases in self-esteem were not significant for athletes playing for the trained coaches. Similar results have been shown in earlier studies (Smith & Smoll, 1990). It should be noted, within the two studies mentioned, only males were included in the studies, which limit the generalizability of the results.

Yet another study has shown that the CET also can have a positive effect on regulating sport anxiety (Smith, Smoll, & Barnett, 1995). A more recent study (Smith, Smoll, & Cumming, 2007) showed that training coaches to be more effective in creating a motivational climate had positive effects on both boys and girls in decreasing sport anxiety. Further, Conroy and

Coatsworth's (2006) statement serve to illustrate the impact and importance of coach training/education:

Considering that every experienced or observed coaching behavior is a micro-intervention, depending on the sport, training schedule, and length of season, young athletes may be exposed to anywhere between hundreds or tens of thousands of coaching micro-interventions. Training coaches to increase certain behaviors and decrease others can change the quality of the micro-interventions to which children are repeatedly exposed and may also enhance youth social development (p.130).

Clearly, with the athletes in mind, the importance of coach education cannot be underestimated. However, education for all its merits, yet, both Swedish (RF, 2006a) and international (Gilbert & Trudel, 2006) research has found that coaches don't value formal education in terms of professional development. Swedish researchers have failed to look into this matter more closely, that is, education is offered, but we don't know much about the qualitative outcomes of the provided training, that is, the leaders coaching behavior.

Leadership and personality

Given the central role prescribed to the coaches within the Swedish sport model, it becomes evident to better understand, and increase the knowledge about the quality of the leadership carried out within its system. One significant feature that has been shown to substantially influence leadership is the personality of the leader. Personality has been given many definitions, and still researchers have not agreed upon one single definition. However, to make it clearer, one view on personality could be defined in the following way:

Personality is a characteristic way of thinking, feeling, and behaving.

Personality embraces moods, attitudes, and opinions and is most clearly expressed in interactions with other people. It includes behavioral characteristics, both inherent and acquired, that distinguish one person from another and that can be observed in people's relations to the environment and the social group (Encyclopædia Britannica, 2012).

In the past decade, the research on leadership personality with its history in the trait theories has explosively been brought new life. One of the most common frameworks used within these studies is the “Big Five”, or Five Factor Model. This taxonomy has shown great robustness in terms of different theoretical advances, samples, methodological frameworks, and across different cultures (e.g. Goldberg, 1990; John & Srivastava, 1999; Kalshoven, Hartog, & Hoogh, 2010; McCrae & Costa, 1987). Personality, as seen in the light of the Big Five taxonomy, is established in five universal dimensions. Each dimension in turn, entails several personality traits. The magnitude of traits one individual possesses within each dimension can vary, and so can the degree to which a person’s traits are on the higher or lower level of the continuum of each dimension (cf. Goldberg, 1990).

Hence, with the Big Five as a conceptual framework, leadership has been studied from quite a wide range of aspects, however, primarily in business, and education. Still, the conduction to the sport domain has been spare. Nonetheless, implications can be drawn from existing findings. For example, the degree of autonomy in leadership professions has been proven to moderate the relationship between the Big Five personality dimensions and performance (Barrick & Mount, 1993). Specifically, leaders with high scores on conscientiousness and extraversion, performed better in works with a great deal of autonomy. Since the sport coach profession has a relatively high degree of autonomy, assumingly, coaches would score high on these two dimensions of the Big Five Inventory.

Additionally, a meta-analysis revealed that low neuroticism and conscientiousness show strong correlation with job satisfaction overall, whereas agreeableness and openness indicate weak correlation (Judge, Heller, & Mount, 2002). These finding, reversed into a sport setting, tell us that these two typical dimensions are to be preferred from an organizational point of view in terms of keeping coaches within the club, and for the reason of athletic satisfaction.

Yet another study found that extraversion, and agreeableness are related to transformational leadership³ (Judge & Bono, 2000). Drawing parallels to coaching behavior in sport, clearly, high scores on these two dimensions would be wished for, if they can predict leader behavior

³ Transformational leadership is processes that changes and transform individuals. It emphasizes emotions, values, ethics, standards, and long-term goals. A transformational leader is concerned of his subordinates, their motives, needs, and he treats them with respect (Northouse, 2009).

as anticipated in the Swedish Model, that is, ethical, supportive, and fair coaches. Another study found that extraversion and openness were significantly predictive of leadership emergence and leadership effectiveness (Judge, Bono, Ilies, & Gerhardt, 2002). The difference between these two leadership criteria is that emergence refers to being perceived by others as a leader, while effectiveness refers to the actual skill of the leader to be able to influence and guide people toward set goals. In sport, the second criterion is evidently of great importance. Moreover, in their meta-analysis Barrick and Mount (1991) found that extraversion was a valid predictor for occupations involving interpersonal skills. Conduction into the sport context could be exemplified by the typical work of a coach, which is based on interpersonal relations with the athletes. Hence, the accomplishment of a coach could be suspected to lie partly in his or her degree of extraversion.

Aims

Guided by the research outside sport the purpose of this study is, however, *not* primarily to examine personality of coaches explained by the Big Five personality domains in relation to their perceived actual leadership behavior. Rather, the purpose is to include the Big Five to control for personality, since evidence clearly shows that personality can be a decisive factor when explaining different types of leader behavior. Hence, the primary aim of this study is to explore the effect of education on leadership as measured by the Leadership Scale of Sport. The second aim is to increase the understanding of the function of personality as a possible determining antecedent to leadership behavior as perceived by coaches. Thus, in terms of the Big Five personality domains, the aim is to explore the correlation between them and leadership behavior, when measured by the *Coaches' own perspective on leadership behavior* version of the Leadership Scale for Sport.

Subsequently, this study aims at investigating the relationship between educational level, in terms of both tennis coach education and academic education, and perceived leadership behavior. The objective is to end in a discussion where the optional coach education provided by the Swedish Tennis Federation will be analyzed in the light of previous research, and in the context of its efficacy in providing coaches with the qualitative characteristics that are proclaimed in the Swedish Model.

Hence, it is hypothesized that:

- I. Women will have higher levels of education than men in both academic, and coach related education.
- II. Elite junior tennis coaches have a higher level of educational background than non-elite coaches.
- III. Elite junior tennis coaches, exhibit a different type of leadership behavior in terms of giving more training and instruction, and more positive feedback, but less social support than tennis coaches concerned with non-elite players.
- IV. Personality will influence perceived actual leader behavior to a lesser degree than educational level (this fourth hypothesis was explorative).
- V. Extraversion and agreeableness will have negative relationships with democratic behavior, social support and positive feedback, respectively.
- VI. Elite coaches will score higher on conscientiousness and extraversion than amateur coaches, since these traits have been related to persons in professions involving high autonomy, and interpersonal skills.

Method

Research Design

Firstly, in addition to the two existing questionnaires (i.e. the Leadership Scale for Sport and the Big Five Inventory), 16 items exploring the participants' demographic and background were constructed (see appendix for full survey). Secondly, the three instruments were put together into one document that comprised the full survey. After a review of the cover letter by an expert, and the items created specifically for this study, the full survey was entered into an online software program (i.e. Google docs). Before the survey was being sent out to the sample, it was administered to one coach with the intention to check for errors, fill in time, and comprehensiveness. The forwarding function was checked; the coach forwarded the survey back to the researcher, whereby the researcher forwarded it back to the coach. No signs of errors were found. The suggested time needed to complete the questionnaires in the survey package was set to 20-30 minutes. When declaring the time, concern was taken to the fact that many tennis coaches in Sweden don't have Swedish as their mother tongue. The initial check for administrative errors was made with a non-Swedish coach, whereby the estimated time was set. Nonetheless, later reports from Swedish coaches revealed that 15 minutes was used on average.

Participants

All Swedish tennis clubs that are engaging in both amateur (recreational) and competition players, registered at Riksidrottsförbundet, and additionally have a homepage with contact information to one and several coaches were approached. All coaches who were presented with email addresses were contacted ($n = 300$). In the cover letter they were asked to forward the survey to other significant coaches at their club ($n = \text{unknown}$). The response rate was 20 % ($n = 61$). Reasons for non-participation can only be assumed to be based on, for example time constrain, or a lack of interest. From the 16 items measuring demographic and background information seven items were used in this study, which intend to describe relevant aspects of the demographics, and background concerning educational level, work experience, and coach level in the sample (see table 1).

Table 1

Descriptive statistics for the whole sample

	<i>Elite coaches (n = 40)</i>	<i>Amateur coaches (n = 21)</i>
Mean age (SD)	37 (12)	39 (16)
Gender; Female/Male	9/31 (23% / 77%)	5/16 (24 % / 76 %)
Mean years of work experience (SD)	16 (11)	16 (13)
Academic education:		
Low Educated	27 (68 %)	16 (76 %)
High Educated	13 (32 %)	5 (24 %)
Tennis education:		
Basic	18 (45 %)	13 (62 %)
Higher	21 (53 %)	8 (38 %)
Missing	1 (2 %)	0 (0 %)

Elite coaches are coaches who coach players that are competing within a ranking system, *amateur coaches*, thus, are coaches who coach recreational players. *High educated coaches* are those who have studied at a university level, and completed at least a bachelors degree, *low educated coaches* are those with a senior high school degree, or lower as their highest degree. *Basic tennis education* include the first three courses (i.e. TLK 1, TLK 2, and TK 1), while *higher tennis education* involves the three last courses (i.e. TK 2, TK 3, and TK 4)

which are aimed at individuals who have chosen tennis coaching as a profession according to the Swedish Tennis Federation's classification.

Instruments

In this study the Leadership Scale for Sport (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1980) was used to measure coaches' perceptions of their own actual leadership behavior because of its specific adaptation to the sport setting, and since it allow for a quantitative assessment of such behavior. Due to its robustness (cf. Goldberg, 1990), the Big Five Inventory (BFI) (e.g. Benet-Martinez & John, 1998; John, Naumann & Soto, 2008) was used to measure, and control for personality traits that might influence leadership behavior.

The participants were presented with one survey containing three parts; (1) 16 items constructed specially for this study assessing demographic and background information; (2) the Leadership Scale for Sport was used to measure perceived actual leadership behavior; (3) for the assessment of personality the Big Five Inventory was used.

The Leadership Scale for Sport

The Swedish version measuring the coach's own behavior (Fahlström, 2006a) of the Leadership Scale for Sport (LSS) as described previously, consist of 40 items that measure five types of leader behavior, each item have five response alternatives; always (score 1), often (75 % of the time), occasionally (50 % of the time), seldom (25 % of the time), and never (score 5). Hence, low scores on the scale indicate that the coach is involved in the measured behavior most of the time, or always, and low scores indicate the absence of, or diminutive engagement in the behavior.

The LSS version *Coaches' perception of their own behavior* has been tested in different studies (e.g. Dwyer & Fischer, 1988; Salminen & Liukkonen, 1994) and shown acceptable levels of Cronbach's alpha, however, Swedish alpha levels is unavailable. The internal consistency estimates was .86 (training and instruction), .67 (democratic behavior), .04 (autocratic behavior), .57 (social support), and .75 (positive feedback) in Dwyer and Fischer's study; .82 (training and instruction), .78 (democratic behavior), .12 (autocratic behavior), .71 (social support), and .85 (positive feedback) in the Salminen & Liukkonen study. Yet another study (Bennett & Maneval, 1998) showed internal consistency with subscales estimates as .82 (training and instruction), .81 (democratic behavior), .58 (autocratic behavior), .76 (social

support), and .81 (positive feedback). Since the coefficient for autocratic behavior repeatedly has shown low and sometimes unsatisfactory values this subscale should be viewed with caution. Hence, the LSS version for coach's own behavior is reliable as long as the results for the autocratic behavior are taken into consideration with carefulness. In the current study the Cronbach alpha coefficient was .96 (training and instruction), .83 (democratic behavior), -.10 (autocratic behavior), .48 (social support), and .71 (positive feedback).

Further, it should be noted that some issues have been found regarding the LSS. Firstly, it is debated if the LSS apprehend all germane coaching behaviors, and the second issue is that it doesn't cover those behaviors related to the growing body of the conceptualization of transformational leadership (Chelladurai & Riemer, 1998).

The Big Five Inventory

The Swedish version of the Big Five Inventory (BFI) (Bäckström, 2007) is a questionnaire consisting of 50 items that aims to test five fundamental personality dimensions; Extroversion, Conscientiousness, Agreeableness, Neuroticism, and Openness. For each statement the answer is given on a five point scale ranging between (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree. Thus, high scores on the dimension measured indicate that the individual's personality is on the higher end of that personality trait, while low scores indicate that an individual lies on the negative end of the scale. For example, low scores of neurosis indicate a calm, and self-secure individual, while high scores indicate a nervous, and unstable person. On the other hand, low scores on the extraversion scale indicate that a person is introverted with traits as anger and anxiety, while high scores indicate self-secure individuals that like fun, and are socially competent. Recently, the Big Five Inventory has been tested for Swedish conditions (Zakrisson, 2010). Internal consistency of the Swedish version showed Cronbach's alpha-coefficient .73 for Agreeableness, .78 Conscientiousness, .80 Neuroticism, .80 Openness, and .84 for Extroversion, which indicates significant reliability. Reliability of measures consistency and estimated by the split half method also showed significant results, between .72 and .85. All results were in line with those expected, which indicates that the BFI is a reliable test beneficially used in research. In the current study Cronbach's alpha coefficient's levels were .70 for Openness, .85 Extraversion, .88 Conscientiousness, .91 Agreeableness, and for .91 Neuroticism.

It should be mentioned, problems have also been found regarding the comprehensiveness of the Big Five (e.g. Becker, 1999). However, this remains an issue for debate outside the scope of this thesis, and will be disregarded in light of the instrument's proven reliability.

Procedure

The survey was sent in an electronic version by e-mail to all Swedish tennis clubs that fulfilled the eligibility criteria in the first week of March 2012. Additionally three printed paper-versions of the surveys were collected at one tennis club the last week of March 2012. The club was selected based on location. In the cover letter it was stated that all participation was anonymous and confidential, and that only the author and her supervisor could access the collected data. A reminder was sent out one week, and two weeks after the first survey was administrated. The participants was offered a copy of the final version of the study for their participation, and encouraged to contact the author, or alternatively the supervisor for the study, regarding any concerns. The data from the electronic version was automatically entered in to an Excel document, the printed versions was entered by hand. Before any data analysis toke place 24 of the items in the BFI had to be reversed.

Data analyses

The data were analyzed and treated in SPSS version 20. The analyses were completed through several steps:

Step 1: Descriptive statistics were calculated on demographic information from the self-constructed items after screening the data for errors. Extreme values were checked but remained through the whole data analysis since, even though statistical outliers, they were true values and hence a natural part of the data. Descriptive statistics for the whole sample (percentage, means and standard deviation) were calculated for seven of the items of the self-constructed questionnaire.

Step 2: Cronbach's alpha levels, mean and standard deviation were computed for all subscales in the LSS and the BFI; *Training and Instruction, Democratic Behavior, Autocratic Behavior, Social Support, and Positive Feedback; Extraversion, Conscientiousness, Agreeableness, Neuroticism, and Openness.*

Step 3: Four sets of Chi-square tests for independency were conducted to assess the association between (a), females and males as for (b) elite and amateur coaches, on their educational level measured by academic education (high or low educated), and tennis education (basic or higher education) respectively.

Step 4: A one-way between-groups multivariate analysis of variance was executed to investigate group differences on the specific leadership behaviors measured by the LSS-subscale. Academic education, tennis education, gender and coach group acted as independent variables, while the sub-scales of the LSS were set as dependent variables. No serious violation on multivariate normality, linearity, or homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices was found when controlling for preliminary assumptions. However, while checking for multicollinearity, running correlation, it was found that training and instruction, and positive feedback ($r = .900$), and training and instruction and democratic behavior ($r = .789$) were strongly correlated; hence multicollinearity existed. Nonetheless, removing one of these pairs of dependent variables would however undermine the data exploration within the frames of this study; therefore they were kept intact. After *Levene's test of equality of error variances* showed significant levels less than .05 for social support ($p = .016$), according to the suggestions made by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) the alpha level was set to .01 (CI = 99 %) to thwart violation of homogeneity.

Step 5: With the aim to investigate the relationship to perceived leadership behavior, a partial correlation was used to explore the correlation between educational level, age, job experience (i.e. years working as a tennis coach), and coach level (i.e. numbers of players coached at the elite level), and scores on the LSS-subscales, while controlling for scores on the BFI personality domains. Before conducting the partial correlation two new continuous variables were created to measure academic and tennis educational levels. Using the data on highest level of academic education, and tennis courses passed, credits were used instead of degree title for academic education, for example, one who had passed a bachelors degree was given 180 ECTS. As for tennis education the number of courses taken was calculated, for example, if one had passed TK 3 that course and all previous courses were added to get a total number of courses.

Step 6: The relationship between leadership behavior as measured by the five LSS-subcales and personality measured by the BFI dimensions was investigated using Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient.

Step 7: An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the scores on the BFI-subcales (dependent variables) for amateur and elite coaches (independent variables), to find out whether the hypothesis was supported regarding the scoring on conscientiousness, and extraversion.

Results

Differences in educational level

The tests showed very small, to small effect sizes across all variables (see table 2), indicating weak associations between the variables⁴. However, the Crosstabulations from the Chi-square test demonstrated that 7.1 % more men (50 %) than women (42.9 %) had higher levels of tennis education, but 17.4 % women (42.9 %) had higher levels of academic education than men (25.5 %). 15.7 % more elite coaches had passed higher levels of tennis education (53.8 %) than amateur coaches (38.1 %), and 8.7 % more elite coaches (32.5 %) had higher levels of academic education than amateur coaches (23.8 %).

Table 2

Chi-square test of independence

	<u>Gender</u>				<u>Coach group</u>			
	χ^2	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>	Phi	χ^2	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>	Phi
Academic education (<i>n</i> = 61)	.84	1	.32*	-.16	.17	1	.68	.10
Tennis education (<i>n</i> = 60)	.03	1	.87	.06	.80	1	.37	.15

* This pair showed 1 cell (25%) with expected count less than five (minimum expected count was 4.13), whereby Fisher's Exact Test was used

⁴ A cross check was made using an Independent-sample t-test which showed no statistical significant differences between females and males, and between amateur and elite coaches on their level of education (academic education measured by ECTS, tennis education measured by number of courses passed) even though there was a small difference in mean scores.

Differences in the exhibition of perceived leadership behavior

The independent variables were gender (i.e. woman or man), academic education (i.e. low or high educated), tennis education (i.e. basic or higher education), and coach group (i.e. amateur coach or elite coach). The subscales of the LSS were used as dependent variables (i.e. training and instruction, democratic behavior, autocratic behavior, social support, and positive feedback). No statistical significant difference between the groups was found in terms of their perceived leadership behavior (see table 3).

Table 3

Estimated marginal means (CI 95%)

	<u>Academic</u>		<u>Tennis education</u>		<u>Gender</u>		<u>Coach group</u>	
	<u>Low</u>	<u>High</u>	<u>Basic</u>	<u>Higher</u>	<u>Female</u>	<u>Male</u>	<u>Amateur</u>	<u>Elite</u>
	Training and Instruction	3.1	2.5	2.9	2.7	2.6	3.0	2.5
Democratic behavior	3.1	2.7	2.9	3.0	2.8	3.0	2.7	3.0
Autocratic ⁵ behavior	2.9	3.0	3.0	3.0	2.9	3.0	3.0	3.0
Social support	3.1	3.1	3.1	3.1	3.0	3.2	2.9	3.2
Positive feedback	3.1	2.5	2.9	2.7	2.7	2.9	2.6	3.0

The importance of the impact of the independent variables (gender, educational level, coach group) on leadership behavior (LSS-subscale scores) was evaluated using the effect size statistics. In terms of importance, academic education (*partial eta squared* = .053) had the highest effect size on training and instruction, though only approaching moderate, and on democratic behavior (*partial eta squared* = .040), small to moderate effect. While gender showed strongest effect on autocratic behavior (*partial eta squared* = .075), moderate effect, for social support (*partial eta squared* = .045) it scarcely approached moderate effect. Finally,

⁵ The reader should be reminded, that the results on autocratic behavior should be viewed with caution, since the coefficient for this subscale repeatedly has shown low and sometimes unsatisfactory values.

coach group had the strongest effect on positive feedback (*partial eta squared* = .094), approaching large effect.

However, no statistically significant differences between the independent variables and leadership behavior as measured by the LSS-subscales surfaced according to Wilk's Lambda ($p = >.05$ for all variables).

Influences on perceived actual leadership behavior

Partial correlation was used to investigate if personality influence perceived actual leader behavior to a lesser degree than educational level (see table 4). Results showed, after reviewing the zero order correlation, very small to medium strength in the correlation between leadership behavior as measured by the LSS-subscales and the independent variables; academic educational level (measured by ECTS from University), tennis educational level (measured by numbers of tennis courses taken), age, job experience (years working in the profession), and coaching level (measured by numbers of players at elite level).

Table 4

Partial correlation before and after controlling for the Big Five personality domains

Scale	<u>Academic</u>		<u>Tennis</u>		<u>Age</u>		<u>Job</u>		<u>Coaching</u>	
	<u>education</u>		<u>education</u>		<u>experience</u>		<u>experience</u>		<u>level</u>	
	<i>n</i> = 61		<i>n</i> = 60		<i>n</i> = 60		<i>n</i> = 60		<i>n</i> = 60	
	before	after	before	after	before	after	before	after	before	after
Training & Instruction	-.12	-.11	-.02	.05	.28*	.29*	.04	.08	.02	.04
Democratic behavior	-.18	-.13	-.03	.05	.13	.15	-.08	-.05	.08	.12
Autocratic behavior	-.06	-.04	.01	-.01	.07	.06	.02	.01	.03	.01
Social support	.01	.01	.11	.24	.30*	.33*	.23	.30*	.13	.16
Positive Feedback	-.11	-.10	.03	.09	.26*	.28*	.04	.08	-.05	-.02

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Slightly changes in the strength of the correlation was found when controlling for the five personality domains as seen in Table 4, suggesting that controlling for the five personality dimensions had a diminutive effect on the strength of the relationship between the explored variables overall, with the exception of social support when correlated with age $r = .33$, $n = 60$, $p = .01$, and when correlated with job experience $r = .30$, $n = 60$, $p = .03$, where medium strength was found.

Results, as shown in Table 4, indicate that training and instruction, social support, and positive feedback are statistically significant, being positively related to age, also significant before controlling for the scores on the BFI. Statistically significance was also found for social support when correlated with job experience, indicating that this behavior is positively related to years spent in the profession, not significant before controlling for the scores on the BFI.

Relationship between personality and leadership behavior

The correlation between extraversion/agreeableness and democratic behavior, social support and positive feedback, respectively was investigated using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (see table 5).

Table 5

Persons Product-moment Correlations between perceived leadership behavior and the Big Five personality dimensions

Scale	Extraversion	Conscientiousness	Agreeableness	Neuroticism	Openness
Training & Instruction	.19	.09	.11	.06	-.04
Democratic behavior	.25	.02	.12	.11	-.13
Autocratic behavior	-.04	-.02	.02	.01	-.03
Social support	.28*	.14	.17	.03	-.00
Positive Feedback	.27*	.15	.17	.19	.02

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed). $n = 61$

Statistically significant results were found for two leader behaviors; social support ($p = .03$) and positive feedback ($p = .04$), the other correlations did not reach significance. This indicates that social support and positive feedback are positively related to traits associated with the higher end of the extraversion scale.

The correlation with social support $r = .28$, $n = 61$, $p = .03$, with modest level of extraversion associated with modest social support, and with a coefficient of determination of .08, indicates that extraversion helps to explain 8 % of the variance in respondents' scores on the LSS-subscale social support. Finally, positive feedback $r = .27$, $n = 61$, $p = .04$, with modest level of extraversion associated with modest positive feedback, the coefficient of determination was .07, thus, extraversion help to explain 7 % of the variance in respondents' scores on the LSS-subscale positive feedback.

Differences in personality

It was hypothesized that elite coaches would score higher on conscientiousness and extraversion than amateur coaches, since these traits have been related to persons in professions involving high autonomy, and interpersonal skills (Barrick & Mount, 1991; 1993). The hypothesis is consequently based on the assumption that elite coaches have consciously chosen coaching as their profession, while amateur coaches have an other profession beside their coach duty. To find out whether this hypothesis was supported, an independent-sample t-test was conducted.

Results showed no statistical significance differences in scores on any of the big five personality dimensions for amateur ($n = 21$) and elite ($n = 40$) coaches. Mean of scores did not differ significantly between the dimensions. For extraversion the difference between the groups in mean scores were small; elite coaches $M = 3.6$ (SD .70), amateur coaches $M = 3.5$ (SD .64). Agreeableness was the dimension with the highest mean score for both groups; elite coaches $M = 3.95$ (SD .71), amateur coaches $M = 4.19$ (SD .71). The difference between the groups on conscientiousness was also small; elite coaches $M = 3.9$ (SD .68), amateur coaches $M = 3.9$ (SD .81), as were the results for Neuroticism; elite coaches $M = 3.9$ (SD .89), amateur coaches $M = 3.8$ (SD .68), and Openness; elite coaches $M = 3.8$ (SD .51), amateur coaches $M = 3.6$ (SD .54).

Discussion

In the light of tendencies, the results propose that education, rather than personality appears to have less influence on perceived leadership behavior, and that elite coaches exhibit a different type of leader behavior than amateur coaches. Concerning the small sample size no claims on generalizability are made.

Educational background

The first and second hypothesis anticipated that women will have higher levels of education than men in both academic, as in coach related education, and that elite junior tennis coaches have a higher level of educational background than non-elite coaches. Similar to earlier findings on elite coaches (Johansen et al. 2009a; 2009b) this study found that elite coaches have a quite solid educational background compared to non-elite coaches. A higher percentage of elite coaches had passed higher education than amateur coaches, especially in terms of higher tennis education.

When comparing women and men on educational level, this study disclose that a higher percentage of women are higher educated than men. However, this is only true when comparing men and women on academic education. In contrast to previous findings on Swedish coaches (Redelius, 2002), in this study more men than women have passed higher levels of coach education. This finding can be explained by the higher number of males being involved in elite coaching than females. Thus, it seems that elite coaching is an occupation that is more attractive to men than women, since there is no legal or formal restrictions towards women entering these positions. Previous findings support this interpretation (Dodds et al., 1991), and suggest that occupational choices may lie in the perceptions of coaching which are founded in existing gender role expectations, and that men have more role models in sports to attract them to the coach occupation.

In the light of previous findings that suggest that elite coaches tend to exhibit typical leadership behaviors (e.g. Johansen et al. 2009a; 2009b; Wolfenden & Holt, 2005), and the findings from this study that point out elite coaches as higher educated than amateur coaches, it seems intuitive that there could be some specific non-official requirements on elite coaches, thus the typical leadership behavior and educational background. Theoretically, two contradictory reasons for this is suggested.

Firstly, referring to preceding research, whereby RF (2006a) reports that the Swedish elite coach is characterized by having an academic educational background, it can be assumed that the results from this study could be a consequence of the accessible educational system in Sweden.

Secondly, it might imply that, when elite coaches are recruited, this is done primarily from the group of professional athletes that terminate their careers. The number of positions to be filled by elite coaches is limited, and so are the elite athletes that retire. Hence, the bigger group of coaches is left with education as their choice of weapon in the battle of these positions. Thus, the recruitment system, rather than that coaching itself would require advanced levels of academic education, become the reason for coaches degree of educational level. Support for this interpretation is found in several Swedish studies which reveals that a previous career as an elite athlete often is a safe card in to elite coach positions (e.g. Isberg, 1992; Fahlström 2006b; RF 2006a). However, on the other hand, it can also be a way to allocate the more experienced from the less experienced coaches, and secure that elite coaches posses necessary qualifications.

Differences in leadership behavior

The third hypothesis suggested that elite junior tennis coaches exhibit a different type of leader behavior than tennis coaches concerned with non-elite players. Results showed no statistically differences between the groups. A previous study, equally, did not find any statistically significant differences between coach groups on the five leadership dimensions (Brooks, Ziatz, Johnson, & Hollander, 2000).

Considering previous findings (RF, 2006a) which disclosed that Swedish coaches are quite unsatisfied with the sport specific education provided, and higher coach education directed towards through explicit sport related needs and skills, for example such as sport psychology, is wished for, the interpretation drawn from this study only can raise the question about the quality and control over the educations available. Bearing in mind, that 1.7 billion Swedish crowns are given to RF every year with the aim to develop Swedish sports (RF, 2011) it seem intuitive that it should benefit the development of coaches since they are prescribed such great value. From this perspective it becomes essential to look at leadership differences between educated and non-educated coaches. Because, if there is no effect, that is, no differences in coach behaviors between educated and non-educated individuals, why should money, and

time be spent on education? The lack of difference might still not define good and bad coaches, but the education, however, do not seem to bring effects on leadership behavior from what we quantitatively can measure.

In the absence of a satisfying sport specific education, the Swedish coach has to rely on personal characteristics and his/her own coach philosophy. Some of the characteristics that describe the Swedish elite coach are experience, engagement, patience/stubbornness, and self-confidence (RF, 2006a). Several of these characteristics have been found to represent what is defined as a good coach (Cassidy, Jones, & Potrac, 2004). Maybe the sport specific education provided is inefficient in changing leadership behaviors, but apparently the Swedish coaches still are decent coaches. If they don't profit from education, they would have to find the aptitude to perform in their profession somewhere else. That is, with exception from their coach philosophy, from their job experience and personality.

Determinants of perceived leader behavior

The results imply that higher age is associated with a leadership style less in training and instruction, social support, and positive feedback, and that more years of work experience is associated with less social support. This might seem confusing, but remember that high scores on the LSS-scale indicate less time involved in the behavior. Hence, the increase in the correlation with higher scores on the LSS associated with higher scores on the independent variables, explain this pattern.

However, these results don't mean that Swedish tennis coaches exhibit condemned leader behaviors, retain that the degree of the execution of a behavior will be positive or negative in terms of its congruence to athletes needs, and preferences. For example, it has been shown that the needs and preferences of athletes, who differ according to performance level, gender, and maturity, demand different types of leader behavior (e.g. Chelladurai & Carron, 1983; Riemer & Toon, 2001), specifically, in this study it was found that older and more experienced coaches give less positive feedback, which is in line with findings made by Riemer and Toon. They found that higher skilled athletes preferred less positive feedback than athletes of lower ability.

In general there were only very small changes in the strength of the relationships between variables when controlling for personality, indicating that education is not exhaustively more

important than personality on perceived actual leadership behavior. Consequently, these findings are somewhat surprising concerning the relatively high educational level displayed by the measure of elite coaches, and with the effect of previous coach training programs in mind, such as CET. The higher levels of education would assumingly be affecting leadership behavior to a higher degree.

More importantly, among the possible leader characteristics that constitute the antecedence to leader behavior, according to this research, it appears that the actual qualities that the coach education provide to a persons skills for example, is barely effecting the actual leader behavior as perceived by the coaches. In the light of the two assumptions proposed by the Multidimensional Model, the results favor personality as the determinant antecedent of perceived actual leadership behavior, even more so than situational characteristics, and conventions within the organization. The trend is thus that the education provided rather than personality, influence leader behavior as perceived by the coaches to a lesser degree. This interpretation is, surprisingly, in contrast to the fourth hypothesis.

Personality dimensions and perceived leadership behavior

The fifth hypothesis assumed a relationship between (a) extraversion, (b) agreeableness and democratic behavior, social support and positive feedback, respectively. In line with the expected correlation, extraversion had a statistically significant positive relationship with social support, and positive feedback; however, agreeableness did not live up to the expectations.

When comparing the results from this study to the extensive international research using the big five dimensions to explain different leader behaviors, it seems that leadership would be an inborn social phenomenon, since this study failed to find similar findings. Consequently, personality traits might not change remarkably between countries and continents, but leadership might be explicit distinctive across cultures. However, divers cultures can also be assumed to exist between socially constructed arenas, such as for example between “upper class”, and “working class” sports, hence attracting different types of leaders. For example, from a sociological perspective a sport like tennis does not only put entry requirements in terms of economical and cultural capital, but is also founded in hidden entry requirements, for example such as family traditions, obligatory dressing, and procedures of sociability, which make it to a sport close to the working class (Bourdieu, 1991).

Nevertheless, one should bear in mind the uniqueness of the Swedish Model, which could not be compared with, for example, the American sport system. The organizational, and governmental abnormalities found between such conventions are one of the reasons why the findings of this study, yet not all statistically significant, add important knowledge relative to coaches' contextual profiles.

Personality dimensions and the coach profession

Finally, it was hypothesized that elite coaches would score higher on conscientiousness and extraversion than amateur coaches, since these traits have been related to persons in professions involving high autonomy, and interpersonal skills. The hypothesis got support in terms of mean scores, but not in terms of statistical significance.

As has been found in previous studies, important personality characteristics to have as a Swedish coach are for example to be a good listener, to have social competence, being humble, and patient (RF, 2006a). Moreover, studies have shown that leader (i.e. supervisor) personality has a great effect on subordinates' satisfaction with the leader (Smith & Canger, 2004). Specifically, emotional stable (i.e. low scores on neuroticism) leaders have more satisfied subordinates. In terms of leadership in sport, these findings imply that, for example, in order to prevent drop out and increase athlete satisfaction, we should look for coaches who are self-secure, and calm.

Based on the preceding discussion, thus, the effect of the tennis education provided by the Swedish Tennis Federation seem to be trivial as to create coaches who exhibit a leadership behavior in line with the proclaims in the Swedish Model. Clearly, the education provided doesn't appear to create a more competent group of professionals, rather they let themselves be guided by personality and subjective philosophies. Hence, it can be interrogated how successful RF is to implement the Swedish model down through the organizations to become applied coaching excellence. Thus, the original aim of this study was achieved to the extent that the results led to a comprehensive analysis of trends on the proportion of the impact of the current education provided by the Swedish Tennis Federation on actual leader behavior as perceived by coaches, and the governing body's realization of the Swedish Model.

Methodological reflections and limitations of the study

A quantitative cross-sectional survey design was chosen for this study because it allows for a wide distribution, and access of the sample. Further it enhances the chances of a bigger sample, and thus more reliable statistical results. However, it is inherently difficult to make generalizations from the results due to the limited sample size and sampling technique that is identified by the participants' own willingness to participate. That is, it is likely that the participants who did chose to be a part of this study already had interests, and knowledge toward the area investigated such as they might be biased in terms of their concern for the development of coach education, hence, it might compose a possible threat to the internal validity. The fact that the coaches in this study get salary differentiate them from most coaches in Swedish sport clubs, who works voluntarily. The reason for coaching, especially on the amateur level can therefore be based on external motives, that is, to get paid, rather than an internal desire to acquire the role of coaching. This might be another possible reason for bias. However, no check for income compared with hours spent as a coach was done. This could have clarified this issue.

It has been pointed out, that the use of Internet surveys can cause response bias, and are object for methodological as ethical issues due to the absence of control over the research environment (Shaughnessy, Zechmeister, & Zechmeister, 2009). It cannot be overlooked that such issues might have been present in this study.

Another shortcoming of this study was the suggested time needed to complete the questionnaires in the survey package, this might explain the quite low response rate.

Strengths and applications

From the statistically significant results found, this study presents several tendencies that are of importance with regard to a better understanding of what influence coaches behaviors. From previous debating in research, it still seems to be unclear to what extent the formal education given to coaches actually gives the best applicable knowledge. Rather, if following most coaches' opinions, the work of practice itself cannot be replaced by any formal education in the process of learning how to coach (e.g. Mallett, Trudel, Lyle & Rynne, 2009), but that theoretical knowledge can be substituted by applied work (RF, 2006a). However, in the development towards professionalism within sports in general, it seem intruding to let coaches work with children and adolescents without any formal requirements that qualify

them for being their tutor, not only in the sport it-self, but following the Swedish Model, in fostering them to become civilized individuals. Hence, this study can act as guidance toward the development of coach training and education, by recognizing the fault in the current coach education paradigm.

Future directions

In the Swedish research field there is still a big hole to fill when it comes to leadership in sports. This study was limited to only one sport, and had a small sample. Further the results were limited to correlations, and assumptions about possible relationships. Future studies should try to investigate a broader population in varying sports, and apply qualitative methods, since a thorough inventory of the existing knowledge in different groups of coaches has to be the base for any further repercussions. Experimental designs comparing coaches on their theoretical leadership knowledge, and applied leadership behavior before and after education has taken place is encouraged.

However, regarding the uniqueness of the Swedish Model, research should emphasize to better understand what is possible within the frames of such a convention. As leadership doesn't exist in a void, neither do organizations, or the young athletes. It has been argued that athletic satisfaction must be seen as equally important as job satisfaction in business related organizations, not at least because the amateur athlete is the prime source of income to most sports clubs (Chelladurai & Riemer, 1997; Riemer & Chelladurai, 1998). In today's society the influences, and impressions from the outside world affect all organizations, and each and every individual, and maybe most so the youth of today. Therefore, subsequent research should try to clarify these complex structures in order to develop a coach education that will suite the needs, wants, and requirements of the future.

Conclusion

The current study aimed to investigate the proportion of importance of education on actual leader behavior as perceived by coaches. Results showed a trend in favor of personality, rather than education, as the prominent determinant of the leadership carried out. In absence of formal coaching standards (e.g. certificates), and exclusive education, the Swedish coach has to rely upon his or her own interpersonal skills and coach philosophy in delivering the facets of his or her profession. Clearly, the Swedish coach seems to have some inborn nature

that makes him/her suitable for the occupation. Although, in the prospect of an ongoing professionalization, and to ensure the quality of future sport in general, and tennis in particular, requirements such as coach licenses are probably beneficial. Now, more than ever, sport is a highly complex nature and with an equally complex culture. Evidently, it becomes important to look at facts and the prospects of the future in the construct of sports models and coach educations.

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Appendix

Bäste Tennisrepresentant,

Du blir kontaktad eftersom du är tennistränare i er verksamhet. Just nu pågår en studie vid Lunds Universitet om tennistränare och deras ledarskap. Det är väldigt viktigt att denna studie blir av, så att vi kan förbättra vår förståelse om hur ett optimalt ledarskap ser ut, och för att vidare utveckla svensk tennis. Din medverkan är därför betydelsefull, eftersom tillgången på tennistränare i Sverige är begränsad.

Denna studie vill undersöka tennistränare och deras ledarskap, detta genom att du som deltagare fyller i en enkät, du deltar anonymt. Uppgifterna som lämnas i enkäten kommer behandlas konfidentiellt, d.v.s. ingen annan än den som undertar sig studien kommer ha direkt tillgång till materialet. De uppgifter du lämnar kommer analyseras i ett datorprogram, resultatet kommer resultera i en Masteruppsats. Du som deltagare har rätten att när som helst dra tillbaka din medverkan.

Enkäten består av tre delar; (1) personuppgifter och tennisbakgrund, (2) ledarskap, och (3) personlighet. Enkäten tar ca 20 - 30 minuter att fylla i, instruktioner finns för varje del. Var vänlig att vidarebefordra enkäten till andra tränare inom din verksamhet genom att vidarebefordra detta mail. Du finner en länk till enkäten längst ner på denna sida.

Som tack för att du medverkar och för att du tar dig tid att bidra till svensk forskning, och tennisens utveckling i Sverige, kommer du att erbjudas en kopia av det slutgiltiga materialet. Vid frågor var god kontakta undertecknad. Det går även bra att kontakta studiens handledare Simon Granér.

Tack för din medverkan!

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Demografisk information

Född (år): _____

Kön:

- Man
 Kvinna

Etniskt ursprung:

- Uppvuxen i Sverige, två Svenska föräldrar
 Uppvuxen i Sverige, en utländsk och en Svensk förälder
 Uppvuxen i Sverige, två utländska föräldrar
 Uppvuxen i Utlandet, var god specificera var

Familj:

Hur många barn har du (skriv 0 om du ej har barn)? _____ barn

Bakgrund-Utbildning

1. Totalt antal år av erfarenhet som tennistränare _____ år

2. Antal år som Junior (skriv 0 om du ej tävlade aktivt som junior) _____ år

3. Antal år som professionell tennisspelare (dvs. tävlat inom ett rankingsystem) _____ år

4. Högsta uppnådda rank som junior? _____

5. Högsta uppnådda rank som professionell tennisspelare? _____

6. Utbildning (kryssa i rutan för högsta examen)

- Gymnasiaexamen från Gymnasium/Folkhögskola/Komvux
 Kandidatexamen
 Magister/Masterexamen
 Doktorandexamen
 Examen från Eftergymnasial Yrkesutbildning
 Annan examen, var god specificera _____

7. Svenska Tennisförbundets tränarutbildning (markera alla avklarade kurser). Har du gått motsvarande utbildning i annat land, markera den ruta med den svenska utbildningen som motsvarar nivån på din utbildning och specificerar din utbildning i slutet av frågan.

- TLK 1
 - TLK 2
 - TK 1
 - TK 2
 - TK 3
 - TK 4
 - Annan motsvarande utbildning utomlands, var god specificera:
-

8. Nuvarande certifiering som tennistränare (om annan än ovan, var god specificera).

9. Hur många rankade juniorspelare tränar du för tillfället?

_____ Nationellt _____ Distrikt _____ ITF _____ WTA _____ ATP

10. Hur många rankade juniorspelare har du tränat?

_____ Nationellt _____ Distrikt _____ ITF _____ WTA _____ ATP

11. Tränar du både pojkjuniorer och flickjuniorer (kryssa i den ruta som stämmer in på dig)?

- Enbart pojkar
- Enbart flickor
- Både pojkar och flickor

12. Hur väl känner du till följande konventioner? Ringa in det svar som passar in bäst på dig.

1 = känner inte till den alls

2 = hört talas om den

3 = läst den

4 = känner till den väl (du kan berätta huvuddragen ur konventionen, och känner till ett par specifika paragrafer som rör ditt arbete som tennistränare)

5 = är expert på området (du har studerat konventionen i detalj, och har fördjupad kunskap i alla de paragrafer som rör ditt arbete som tennistränare)

- | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| a) FN:s deklaration om de mänskliga rättigheterna | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| b) Barnkonventionen | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| c) FN:s internationella konvention om rättigheter för personer med funktionshinder | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

Leadership Scale For Sports

(Version: Coachens eget beteende)

Varje mening beskriver ett särskilt beteende som en coach kan uppvisa. För varje mening finns det fem alternativ:

1. **Alltid**;
2. **Ofta** (c:a 75% av tiden);
3. **Då och då** (50% av tiden);
4. **Sällan** (c:a 25% av tiden);
5. **Aldrig**

Var snäll och markera med lämpliga kryss ditt eget beteende som coach/tränares beteende. Besvara alla uppgifterna även om du är osäker på någon. Observera att du bedömer **ditt eget beteende som coach/tränare**.

Jag anser att jag som coach/tränare:

		1	2	3	4	5
1	ser till att spelarna utnyttjar hela sin förmåga					
2	frågar efter spelarnas åsikter när det gäller taktik inför matcher					
3	hjälper spelarna med deras personliga problem					
4	berömmar en spelare inför de övriga efter bra prestationer					
5	förklarar tekniken och taktiken i spelet för varje spelare					
6	planerar relativt oberoende av spelarna					
7	hjälper spelarna i laget att lösa sina konflikter					
8	ägnar särskild uppmärksamhet åt att rätta spelarnas misstag					
9	skaffar mig lagets godkännande innan jag fattar viktiga beslut					
10	talat om för en spelare när han gjort ett riktigt bra jobb					
11	försäkrat sig om att min roll har uppfattats av alla spelare					
12	inte förklarar mitt handlande för spelarna					
13	bevakar spelarnas välbefinnande					
14	instruerar mig i spelets finesser					
15	låter spelarna delta i beslutsfattandet					
16	ser till att jag belönar en bra prestation					
17	räknar ut vad som behöver göras					
18	uppmuntrar spelarna att komma med förslag på hur träningen ska bedrivs					

Jag anser att jag som coach/tränare:

	1	2	3	4	5
19	utför personliga tjänster åt spelarna				
20	förklarar för spelarna vad som skall göras och inte göras				
21	låter spelarna göra mina egna målsättningar				
22	uttrycker varje positiv känsla jag har för spelarna				
23	förväntar sig att varje spelare skall utföra sin uppgift i minsta detalj				
24	låter spelaren försöka på sitt sätt även om han gör misstag				
25	uppmuntrar spelarna att anförtro sig åt coachen				
26	pekar ut spelarens styrka och svaghet				
27	vägrar att kompromissa				
28	uttrycker uppskattning när spelaren spelar bra				
29	ger särskilda instruktioner om vad som bör göras i varje situation				
30	frågar efter spelarnas åsikt i viktiga tränarfrågor				
31	uppmuntrar förtroliga och informella relationer med spelare				
32	ser till att spelarnas ansträngningar koordineras				
33	låter spelaren arbeta i sitt eget tempo				
34	håller mig på min kant i förhållande till spelarna				
35	förklarar hur spelarens insats passar in i lagets				
36	bjuder hem spelarna				
37	ger beröm när det behövs				
38	klargör i detalj vad som väntas av varje spelare				
39	låter spelarna bestämma om vilket spelsätt som skall användas i en match				
40	uttrycker mig på ett sätt som avskräcker från frågor				

The Big Five Personality Test

Instruktioner: De följande påståendena handlar om din uppfattning om dig själv i olika situationer. Din uppgift är att indikera hur pass mycket du håller med om vart och ett av dessa påståenden, med användandet av en skala där 1 indikerar att du absolut inte håller med, 5 att du absolut håller med, och 2, 3, och 4 representerar mellanliggande ställningstaganden. I rutorna efter varje påstående, markera ett nummer från 1 till 5 från följande skala:

1 = **Håller absolut inte med**

2 = **Håller inte med**

3 = **Håller varken med eller inte med**

4 = **Håller med**

5 = **Håller absolut med**

Det finns inga ”rätt” eller ”fel” svar, så välj det nummer som närmast beskriver dig för varje påstående.

Jag ser mig själv som en person som:

	1	2	3	4	5
1. Jag har ett got hjärta					
2. Tycker om ordning					
3. Har utmärkta idéer					
4. Har ofta förekommande humörsvängningar					
5. Gör hushållsarbete					
6. Sympatiserar med andras känslor					
7. Är den som håller igång på ett party					
8. Är avslappnad för det mesta					
9. Pratar med en massa olika människor under en fest					
10. Är fantasilös					
11. Är tyst tillsammans med främlingar					
12. Är intresserad av människor					
13. Har lite att säga					
14. Förstår saker snabbt					
15. Tycker inte om att dra uppmärksamhet till mig					
16. Blir lätt irriterad					
17. Sätter igång konversationer					
18. Smiter undan mina plikter					
19. Är grundlig i mitt arbete					

Jag ser mig själv som en person som:

	1	2	3	4	5
20. Är ointresserad av abstrakta idéer					
21. Glömmer ofta att lägga tillbaka saker på sin plats					
22. Känner mig sällan nere					
23. Lämnar mina saker liggande överallt					
24. Har ett humör som svänger mycket					
25. Pratar inte mycket					
26. Blir lätt stressad					
27. Läger uppmärksamhet på detaljer					
28. Oroar mig över saker					
29. Tar mig tid för andra människor					
30. Är egentligen inte intresserad av andra					
31. Känner mig ofta nere					
32. Känner mig inte speciellt bekymrad om andra					
33. Skapar förvirring omkring mig					
34. Ägnar tid åt att fundera på saker					
35. Känner andra människors känslor					
36. Förolämpar folk					
37. Följer ett schema					
38. Har svårt att förstå abstrakta saker					
39. Blir lätt upprörd					
40. Är full av idéer					
41. Har ett rikt ordförråd					
42. Får människor att känna sig väl till mods					
43. Använder svåra ord					
44. Är ointresserad i andra människors problem					
45. Håller mig i bakgrunden					
46. Har en vild fantasi					
47. Känner mig bekväm med människor omkring mig					
48. Är alltid förberedd					
49. Blir lätt störd					
50. Har inte något emot att vara i centrum för uppmärksamheten					