

**TRANSFORMATIONAL AND TRANSACTIONAL LEADERSHIP
CHARACTERISTICS OF INTERCOLLAGIATE ATHLETES AND
NON-ATHLETES**

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ABSTRACT

TRANSFORMATIONAL AND TRANSACTIONAL LEADERSHIP CHARACTERISTICS OF INTERCOLLAGIATE ATHLETES AND NON-ATHLETES

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The main purpose of this study was to examine the transformational and transactional leadership characteristics of intercollegiate athletes and non athletes. The second purpose was to compare transformational and transactional leadership characteristics in athletes and non-athletes.

In this study, 152 subjects were selected from seven different universities. Data was collected through Turkish version of Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) - Leader Form (Form 5X-Short).

Quantitative statistical analyses using SPSS confirmed the study's first and second hypothesis through and independent samples t-test that the intercollegiate athletes scored statistically higher on the MLQ (Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire) 5X-Short than the non-athlete university students. MLQ 5X-Short scores were subjected to t-test using the athlete's gender, sport activity, team membership, weekly exercise days, exercise in yearly based time. The test variables were transformational and transactional leadership behaviors and subscales of them, the grouping variables were intercollegiate athletes and non-athletes. Two out of three Leadership behaviors were statistically significant when comparing intercollegiate athletes and non athletes.

Key Words: Leader, Transformational Leader, Transactional Leader, Intercollegiate athlete, intercollegiate non-athlete

ÖZ

ÜNİVERSİTEDE SPOR TAKIMLARINDA OLAN ÖĞRENCİLER İLE TAKIMLARDA FAALİYET GÖSTERMEYEN ÖĞRENCİLERİN DÖNÜŞÜMCÜ VE İŞLEMCİ LİDERLİK ÖZELLİKLERİNİN BELİRLENMESİ

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Bu çalışmanın başlıca amacı, üniversite takımlarında spor yapan öğrenciler ile yapmayan öğrencilerin dönüşümcü ve işlemci liderlik özelliklerini belirlemektir. Çalışmanın ikinci amacı, üniversite spor takımlarında spor yapan öğrenciler ile yapmayan öğrencilerin dönüşümcü ve işlemci liderlik özellikleri arasındaki farkı belirlemektir.

Çalışmaya İstanbul bölgesinde kurulmuş yedi ayrı özel üniversiteden 152 öğrenci katılmıştır. Verilerin toplanmasında Çok faktörlü Liderlik Anketi Lider Formu (5X- Kısa) Türkçe versiyonu kullanılmıştır. İstatistiksel analiz SPSS Programı ile gerçekleştirilmiştir.

Spor yapan öğrenciler ile spor yapmayan öğrenciler cinsiyet farklılığı, spor aktiviteleri, takım sporculuğu, haftalık antrenman sayıları ve yıllık antrenman düzeyleri kapsamında kendilerini değerlendirdiklerinde spor yapan öğrencilerin dönüşümcü liderlik alt özelliklerinin yüksek düzeyde olduğu, spor yapmayan öğrencilerin işlemci liderlik özelliklerinin yüksek düzeyde olduğu sonucu çıkmaktadır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Lider, Dönüşümcü Lider, İşlemci Lider, Spor Yapan Üniversiteli Öğrenci, Spor Yapmayan Üniversiteli öğrenci

I dedicate this master thesis to my family members.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

MLQ Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

An abundance of literature on leadership reflects the sociological impact of this phenomenon. Leadership is a concept that is not yet very well defined, and has been dissected differently by various authors (Burns, 1976). Leaders are continually charged with providing vision, ideology, and framework which a group or team of individuals follows. For example, Carless (2001) described leadership and leadership behaviors as concept explained by a number of independent behaviors that share a common, strong relationship with a higher order construct. According to Carless (2001) intercollegiate athletics fits this construct. Teams and groups gather with the goal of finding success by winning a competition, championship, or achieving some level of accomplishment within a certain sport.

Whether it is from a coach, manager, or teammate, the demand for effective leadership to increase performance is an ever-present phenomenon in the domain of sport. It would be unusual to read a sport page in the news paper or watch a sport broadcast on television without some reference to an athlete demonstrating effective leadership within the team. Weese and Nocolls (1986) specify that in any specific game, an athlete emerges as a leader and is able to motivate and organize teammates to play as a unified squad. Mosher and Roberts (1981) suggested that athletes on sport teams are not utilized to their full potential and that the realization of that potential could mark significant changes in athletic performance. These authors identified such important leadership roles as acting as a liaison, promoting communication, assisting in planning and discipline, interacting with officials and the public, and setting a good example for other players. Despite the claims, the sport literature focusing specifically on the development of athlete leadership is limited.

High education plays a vital role in the development of numerous social, economic, and other sectors of society. Several researchers discussed a shift in the thinking and behavior of students within higher education. Astin and Antonio (2000) found that while students in previous decades showed concern for social and humanitarian issues, students in more recent years are increasingly concerned with their own careers and financial security. In real meaning, there is a growing trend enlightening individualism among college students. As a result, many higher education institutions have implemented leadership development programs.

Anderson, Karuza, and Blanchart (1977) argued that an assumption exists in leadership researchers have argued that leadership roles are desirable and are, therefore, required by all group of members. Yet in sport, group members actively avoid many leadership roles due to the higher degree of analysis and pressure to perform (Smoll & Smith, 2006). Participation in intercollegiate athletics can foster leadership skills as a result of the student-athlete's experience.

According to Bass (1981), there are many questions in the minds of the people like how leaders are created, what are the criteria that important in developing achievement? or who makes them leaders? Due to insufficient research and information about transformational leadership in intercollegiate athletes and non athletes, it is needed to determine if sport activities have an effect on leadership styles in university students.

An investigation of the effects of leader characteristics in high education student athletes on leader behaviors improves understanding of what behaviors development in sport management. University Athletics have been a breeding ground for many leaders, not only in education, but many of sectors of our society. It is obvious that academic achievement is highly correlated with success beyond life as a student (Judge, Cable, Boudreau, Bretz, 1995). However the role of athletics facilitate the

development of our leaders has not been made clear? Moreover the studies about transformational leadership characteristics in intercollegiate athletes and non athletes are not widespread. Research concerning athlete's leadership behavior from the athlete's perspective seems limited. Some researchers have examined characteristics of team leaders that differentiates them from non- leaders. Kim (1992) explored four types of leadership by team captains and the effect on performance norms in high school at university athletic teams. She found that performance norms were highest when the team captain was rated high on goal achievement and group orientation (Kim, 1992). A study by Pascarella and Smart (1991) described the impact of collegiate athletic participation on a wide array of variables including leadership behavior. They concluded that athletic participation in collage had positive impact on leadership behavior and interpersonal skills (Pascarella & Smart, 1991). Leadership is a vital component of organizational success at all levels (Bass, 1990). As collegiate athletics continues to grow as an industry, the need for leadership at the team level becomes more important. Not only is the coach's leadership central to the success of the team, but also leadership provided by players can enhance team performance (Loughead & Hardy, 2005). Since leadership is important for team success, leadership development should be an integral part of a team's winning philosophy. Unfortunately, leadership development programs are rare within university athletic departments.

Developing leadership skills is crucial aspect in the success of an organization in the corporate realm. Within the realm of education, specific to athletics exists, what factors contribute to the development of leaders? More precisely, outside of providing formal instructions of leadership, team building, problem solving, and decision making skills in education settings, does involvement in of university athletics contribute the development of leadership skills?

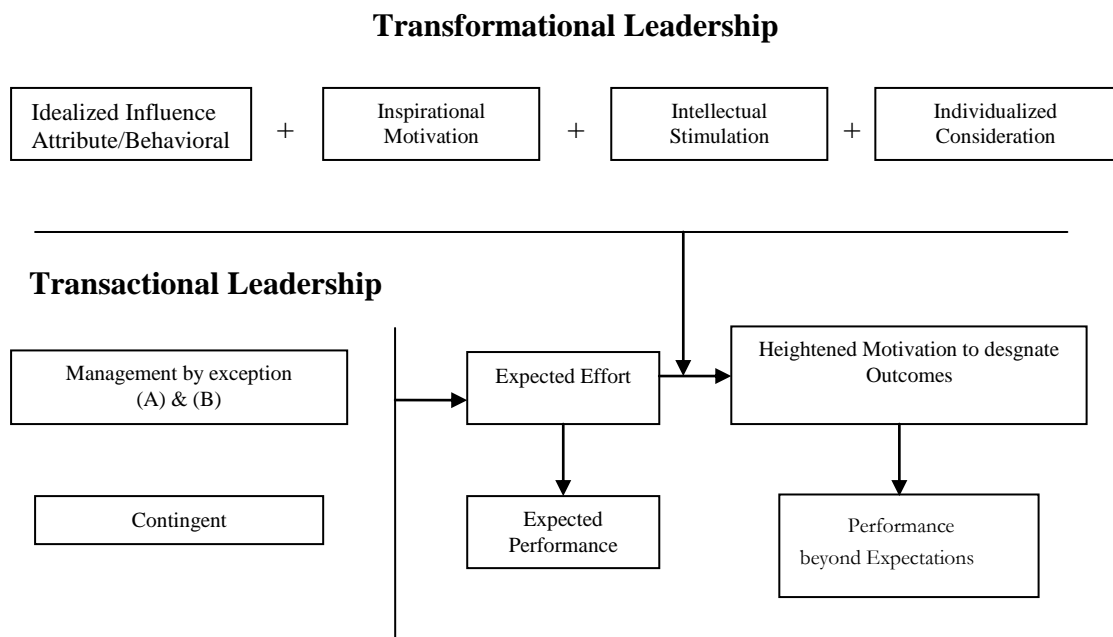


Figure 1: The Augmentation of Transactional and Transformational Leadership
Source: Bass & Avolio, 2004.

A few numbers of transformational leadership studies were made to consider the leadership behaviors in educational settings in Turkey. Despite of improvements and developments in education and sports, unfortunately there is no study to explain the transformational leadership characteristics in intercollegiate athletes and non athletes.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

Purpose of the study is twofold; determine the transformational and transactional leadership characteristics of intercollegiate athletes and non athletes, and examine the differences of leadership characteristics of intercollegiate athletes and non athletes.

1.2 Significance of the Study

In many instances, leadership skills may not fully develop by practice alone; therefore organizational implement leadership training programs in order to meet the

essential skills necessary in developing the leadership capabilities of employees (Field & Herold, 1997). This is also true in athletics. Coaches are seen as formal leaders, but many fail to recognize the mostly informal development of leaders within a team (Charbonneay, Barling, Keloway, 2006). Additionally, many universities have underestimated the leadership potential of student athletes, and power that lies within this specific peer group.

According to Roberts and Ullom (1989) the quality of life in any organization that provides programs for young adults is enhanced when young people who employ strong leadership skills are involved. The student athlete's leadership skills represent an important component of athletics, but has been largely ignored in past research efforts.

Athletics have been breeding ground for many leaders, not only in education, but many sectors of societies. It is obvious that academic achievement is highly correlated with success beyond life as a student (Judge, Cable, Boudreau, 2006). However role of athletics facilitate the development of transformational leaders has not been made clear? There is no study to explain the transformational leadership characteristics of intercollegiate athletes and non athletes in Turkey. This brought the need of studying this subject in universities. Therefore, this study helps to understand the state of leadership and the transformational and transactional leadership features and characteristics of intercollegiate athletes and non athletes.

1.3 Hypothesis

- 1- Intercollegiate athletes have more transformational leadership characteristics than non athletes in universities.
- 2- Intercollegiate athletes have more transactional leadership characteristics than non athletes in universities.

3- Intercollegiate athletes have more leadership outcomes than non athletes in universities.

1.4 Definitions of Terms

Leader: Leader is a person or thing that leads; directing, commanding, or guiding head, as of a group or activity (Stenerson, 1995, Webster's New World Dictionary).

Leadership: Leadership is the ability of one person to influence a group of persons toward the achievement of common goals (Yukl, 1994).

Transformational Leader: Transformational Leaders are proactive. They encourage subordinates to aspire to higher levels of performance for the good of organization, seek to optimize individual, group and organizational development and innovation, not just achieve performance at expectations. They convince their associates to strive for higher levels of potential as well as higher levels of moral and ethical standards (Bass, 1985).

Transformational Leadership: Transformational leadership is a process of influencing in which leaders change their associate's awareness of what is important, and move them to see themselves and the opportunities and challenges of their environment in anew way (Bass & Avolio, 2004).

Transactional Leader: Transactional Leaders display behaviors associated with constructive and corrective transactions. The constructive style is labeled contingent reward and the corrective style is labeled management by exceptions (Bass & Avolio, 2004).

Transactional Leadership: Transactional Leadership defines expectations and promotes performance to achieve these levels. Contingent reward and management

by exception are two core behaviors associated with management functions in organizations. Full range leaders do this and more.

Intercollegiate athlete: University student athlete who competes in sport activities between universities as a university team member

Intercollegiate non-athlete: University student who continues his/her education but does not competes in sport activities between universities as a university team member

1.5 Assumptions

1. It was assumed that the participants answered the surveys honestly and truthfully.
2. It was assumed that the subjects completed Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) unabashedly and truthfully.

1.6 Limitations

1. This study was limited with students of seven different University of Istanbul who are intercollegiate athletes and non athletes.
2. Results of the study were limited with the answers of the subjects to the MLQ applied.

1.7 Delimitations

The study was delimited with the seven different first, second, third, and fourth class intercollegiate athletes and non athletes who are students from seven different special universities in Istanbul.

In this study, MLQ (Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire) which measures transformational and transactional leadership characteristics of students is used. Data collection period was completed in three months.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 Leadership Development

Most empirical research concerning leadership has come from organizational and social psychology (Fielder, 1967; Selznik, 1957; Katz & Khan, 1978). In the 1950's and 1960's various critical underlying dimensions to leadership construct were investigated. Leadership is typically defined as the process by which one individual is able to guide a group of other individuals toward a collective goal, action, or accomplishment (Chemers, 1997). Interpersonal influence exercised in a situation and directed through the communication process toward the attainment of a specific goal or goals has also been used to define leadership (Tannenbaum, Wesheler & Massarik, 1961). Leaders inspire others to do something. Northouse (2001) argued that although leadership has been conceptualized in numerous ways, several components have remained constant at the core of this phenomenon. Leadership is a process, leadership involves influence; leadership occurs within a group of context; and leadership involves goal attainment.

There is large number of ways to finish the sentence "Leadership is....." In fact, as Stogdill (1974) pointed out in a review of leadership research, there almost as many different definitions of leadership as there are people who have tried to define it. It is much like the words democracy, love, and peace. Although it is known what he or she means by such words, the words can have different meanings for different people.

In the past 50 years, there have been as many as 65 different classification systems developed to define the dimensions of leadership (Fleishman et al., 1991). One such classification system, directly related to our discussion, is the scheme proposed by Bass (1990). He suggested that some definitions view leadership as the focus of group processes. From this perspective, the leader is at the center of group change and activity and embodies the will of the group. Another group of definitions conceptualizes leadership from personality perspective, which suggests that leadership is a combination of special traits or characteristics that individuals own and that enable them to make others to accomplish tasks. Other approaches to leadership have defined it as an act or behavior, the things leaders do to bring about change in a group (Northouse, 2003).

Leadership has been defined in terms of the power relationship that exists between leaders and followers. From this viewpoint, leaders have power and wield it to effect change others. Others view leadership as an instrument of goal achievement in helping group members achieve their goals and meet their needs. This view includes leadership that transforms followers through vision setting, role modeling, and individualized attention.

Defining leadership as a process means that is not a trait or characteristic that exists in the leader, but is a transactional event that occurs between the leader and his or her followers. Process implies that a leader affects and is affected by followers. It emphasizes that leadership is defined in this manner, it becomes available to everyone. It is not restricted to only the formally designated leader in a group.

Leadership involves influence; it is concerned with how the leader affects followers. Influence is the sine qua non of leadership. Without influence, leadership does not exist.

Leadership occurs in groups. Groups are the context in which leadership takes place. Leadership involves influencing a group of individuals who have a common purpose. This can be a small task group, a community group, or a large group surrounding an entire organization. Leadership training programs that teach people to lead themselves are not considered a part of leadership within the definition that is set forth in this discussion.

Leadership includes attention to goals. This means that leadership has to do with directing a group of individuals toward accomplishing some task or end. Leaders direct their energies toward individuals who are trying to achieve something together. Therefore, leadership occurs and has its effects in contexts where individuals are moving toward a goal.

In sport, the leadership role of the coach is clearly defined. However, the leadership role of the athletes, in which one athlete leads a group of teammates, is not as well understood. Research has not clearly defined what variables are associated with being a student athlete and its relation to the acquisition of leadership qualities (Eiche, Sedlack & Adams-Gaston, 1997). Leadership is a role that is understood in terms of the social and cultural context within which it is embedded (Kellerman, 1984). Leadership within intercollegiate athletics can be described as an interpersonal process with a situational premise and is contingent on the tasks and relationship's that exists within the sport.

2.2 Trait Approach

Of interest to scholars throughout the 20th century, the trait approach was one of the first systematic attempts to study leadership. In the early part of the 20th century, leadership traits were studied to determine what made certain people great leaders. The theories that were developed were called “great man” theories because they focused on identifying the innate qualities and characteristics possessed by great

social, political, and military leaders. It was believed that people were born with these traits and only the great people possessed them. During this time, research concentrated on determining the specific traits that clearly differentiated leaders from followers (Bass, 1990; Jago, 1982)

In the mid-20th century, the trait approach was challenged by research that questioned the universality of leadership traits. In a major review in 1948, Stogdill suggested that no consistent set of traits differentiated leaders from non-leaders across a variety of situations. An individual with leadership traits who was a leader in one situation might not be a leader in another situation. Rather than being a quality that individuals possessed, leadership was re-conceptualized as a relationship between people in a social situation (Stogdill, 1948). Personal factors related to leadership continued to be important, but researchers contended that these factors were to be considered as relative to the requirements of the situation.

In recent years, there has been a renaissance in interest in the trait approach in explaining how traits influence leadership (Bryman, 1992). Based on a new analysis of much of the previous trait research, Lord, DeVader, and Alliger (1986) found that personality traits were strongly associated with individual's perceptions of leadership. Similarly, Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991) have gone so far as to claim that effective leaders are actually distinct types of people in several key respects. Further evidence of renewed interest in the trait approach can be seen in the current emphasis given by many researchers to visionary charismatic leadership.

The trait approach began with an emphasis on identifying the qualities of great persons; next, it shifted to include the impact of situations on leadership; and most currently, it has shifted back to reemphasize the critical role of traits in effective leadership.

2.3 Skills Approach

The skills approach takes a leaders centered perspective on leadership. However, in the skills approach we shift our thinking from a focus on personality characteristics, which are usually viewed as innate and relatively fixed, to an emphasis on skills and abilities that can be learned and developed. While personality certainly plays an integral role in leadership, the skills approach suggests that knowledge and abilities are needed for effective leadership.

Researchers have studied leadership skills directly or indirectly for a number of years. However, the impetus for research on skills was a classic article published by Robert Katz in the Harvard Business Review in 1955, titled “Skills of an Effective Administrator”. Katz’s article appeared at a time when researchers were trying to identify a definitive set of leadership traits. Katz approach was an attempt to transcend the trait problem by addressing leadership as a set of developable skills. More recently, a renewed interest in the skills approach has emerged. Beginning in the early 1990s, a multitude of studies has been published that contend that leader effectiveness depends on the leader’s ability to solve complex organizational problems. This research has resulted in a comprehensive skills-based model of leadership that was advanced by Mumford and his colleagues (Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, Jacobs, & Fleishman, 2000; Yammarino, 2000).

The skills approach contributes positively to our understanding about leadership in several ways. First, it is a leader-centered model that stresses the importance of developing particular leadership skills .It is the first approach to conceptualized and create a structure of the process of leadership around skills. While the early research on skills highlighted the importance of the skills and the value of the skills across different management levels, the late work placed learned skills at the center of effective leadership performance at all management levels.

Second, the skills approach is spontaneously attractive. To describe leadership in terms of skills makes leadership available to everyone. Unlike personality traits, skills are competencies that individuals can learn or develop. Its like playing a sport such as tennis or golf. Even without natural ability in these sports, individuals can improve their games with practice and instruction. The same is true with leadership. When leadership is framed as a set of skills, it becomes a process that people can study and practice to become better at performing their jobs.

Third, the skills approach provides an expansive view of leadership that incorporates a wide variety of components, including problem-solving skills, social judgment skills, knowledge, individual attributes, career experiences, and environmental influences. Each of these components can further subdivided into several subcomponents. The result is a picture of leadership that encompasses a multitude of factors. Because it includes so many variables, the skills approach can capture many of the details and complexities of leadership not found in other models.

Last, the skills approach provides a structure that is very consistent with the curricula of most leadership education programs. Leadership education programs throughout the country have traditionally taught classes in creative problem solving, conflict resolution, listening, and team work, to name a few. The content of these classes closely mirrors many of the components in the skills model. Clearly, the skills approach provides a structure that helps to frame the curricula of leadership education and development programs.

2.4 Style Approach

The style approach emphasizes the behavior of the leader. This distinguishes it from the trait approach, which emphasizes the personality characteristics of the leader, and the skills approach, which emphasizes the leader's capabilities. The style approach focuses exclusively on what leaders do and how they act. In shifting the

study of leadership to leader's style or behaviors, the style approach expanded the study of leadership to include the actions of leaders toward subordinates in various contexts.

Many studies have been conducted to investigate the style approach. Some of the first studies to be done were conducted at Ohio State University in the late 1940s, based on the findings of Stogdill's (1948) work, which pointed to the importance of considering more than leader's traits in leadership research. At about the same time, another group of researchers at the University of Michigan was conducting a series of studies that explored how leadership functioned in small groups. A third line of research was begun by Blake and Mouton in the early 1960s; it explored how managers used task and relationship behaviors in the organizational setting (Northouse, 2003).

The style approach provides a framework for assessing leadership in a broad way, as behavior with a task and relationship dimension. The style approach works not by telling leaders how to behave, but by describing the major components of their behavior.

The style approach reminds leaders that their actions toward others occur on a task level and a relationship level. In some situations, leaders need to be more task oriented, whereas others, they need to be more relationship oriented. Similarly, some subordinates need leaders who provide a lot of direction, whereas others need leaders who can show them a great deal of nurturance and support.

The style approach makes several positive contributions to our understanding of the leadership process. First, the style approach marked a major shift in the general focus of leadership research. Prior to the inception of the style approach, researchers treated leadership exclusively as a personality trait. The style approach broadened the scope of leadership research to include the behaviors of leaders and what they do

various situations. No longer was the focus of leadership on the personal characteristics of leaders; it was expanded to include what leaders did and how they acted.

Second, a wide range of studies on leadership style validates and gives credibility to the basic tenets of the approach. First formulated and reported by researchers from Ohio State University and the University of Michigan and subsequently in the work of Blake and Mouton (1964, 1978, 1985) and Blake and McCanse (1991), the style approach is substantiated by a multitude of research studies that offer a viable approach to understanding the leadership process.

Third, on a conceptual level, researchers from the style approach have ascertained that a leader's style is composed of primarily two major types of behaviors: task and relationship. The significance of this idea is not to be understated. Whenever leadership occurs, the leader is acting out both task and relationship behaviors; the key to being an effective leader often rests on how the leader balances these two behaviors. Together they form the core of the leadership process.

Fourth, the style approach is heuristic. It provides us with a broad conceptual map that is worthwhile to use in our attempts to understand the complexities of leadership. Leaders can learn a lot about themselves and how they come across to others by trying to see their behaviors in light of the task and relationship dimensions. Based on the style approach, leaders can assess their actions and determine how they may wish to change to improve their leadership style.

2.5 Fiedler's Contingency Theory

Although several approaches to leadership could be called contingency theories, the most widely recognized is Fiedler's (1964, 1967; Fiedler & Gracia, 1987) contingency theory. Contingency theory is a leader match theory (Fiedler &

Chemers, 1974), which means it tries to match leaders to appropriate situations. It is called contingency because it suggests that a leader's effectiveness depends on how well the leader's style fits the context. To understand the performance of leaders, it is essential to understand the situations in which they lead. Effective leadership is contingent on matching a leader's style to the right setting.

Fiedler developed contingency theory by studying the styles of many different leaders who worked in different context, primarily military organizations. He assessed leader's styles, the situations in which they worked, and whether or not they were effective.

Fiedler's (1971) interactionist perspective contended that the only reasonable model of leadership behavior is not based on general dimensions but on situational factors and their interaction with leader's characteristics. Other interactional models of leadership have argued that within a group, many dyadic relationships between the leader and the follower exists. However, Fiedler's (1971) theory best exemplifies this person-environment interactional perspective has been well supported.

Fiedler's (1967) contingency theory hypothesizes that effective group performance was dependent upon the appropriate match of the leader's personality and the situation. According to Fiedler an effective leader has a personality orientation that is centered on a task or interpersonal style that matches the context. Situational factors that influence leader's effectiveness includes leader member relations, degree of task structure, and power position of the leader. Leader member relations were defined as the quality of the relationship between the leader members. The leaders influence over the members was enhanced through a strong relationship.

Contingency theory suggests that situations can be characterized by assessing three factors: leader-member relations, task structure, and position power. Leader's member relations refer to the group atmosphere and to the degree of confidence,

loyalty, and attraction that followers feel for their leader. If group atmosphere is positive and subordinates trust, like, and get along with their leader, the leader – member relations are defined as good; on the other hand, if the atmosphere is unfriendly and friction exists within the group, the leader-member relations are defined as poor.

Task structure was defined as to how clearly the goals and methods to achieve the goals were stated and understood. As the complexity of tasks increases for the groups, so should the leaders influence over the members. Power position of the leader was defined as control over rewards and sanctions, authority over group members, and support provided from the organization. The leaders influence over the members was directly proportional to the power possessed by the leader over the members.

Contingency theory is concerned with styles and situations. It provides the framework for effectively matching the leader and the situation.

2.6 Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Theory

The situational approach has been refined and revised several times since its beginning, and it has been used extensively in organizational leadership training and development

As the name of the approach means, situational leadership focuses on leadership in situations. The basic premise of the theory is that different situations demand different kinds of leadership. From this perspective, to be an effective leader requires that an individual adapt his or her style to the demands of different situations.

Situational leadership stresses that leadership is composed of both directive and a supportive dimension, and each has to be applied appropriately in a given situation.

To determine what is needed in a particular situation, a leader must evaluate her or his employees and assess how competent and committed they are to perform a given task. Based on the assumption that employee's skills and motivation vary over time, situational leadership suggests that leaders should change the degree to which they are directive or supportive to meet the changing needs of subordinates.

Hersey and Blanchard's (1977) situational leadership theory proposed that leaders should vary their behaviors according to the member's maturity. Hersey and Blanchard (1977) classified leader behaviors along two dimensions: initiating structure and consideration. Initiating structure, termed task behavior was described as one-way directional communication from the leader to the member. Consideration, termed relationship behavior was described as two-way directional communication from the leader when providing social-emotional support for the member. Member maturity or readiness was defined as the ability and willingness of members to take responsibility for directing their behavior in relation to a specific task.

Maturity level ranged from low to moderately low to moderately high to high. Hersey and Blanchard (1977) suggested that the orientation of leaders behavior should change based on the maturity level of the member. A low maturity level prompted a high task/low relationship response from the leader. High task/low relationship leader behavior refers to one-way communication, or telling, to define the roles of members. A member with a moderately low maturity level required a high task/high relationship behavior from the leader. High task/high relationship leader behavior included defining member roles and allowing two-way communication to provide social-emotional support to get members to believe in decisions. A low task/high relationship leader behavior was necessary for members with moderately high maturity levels. Low task/high relationship leader behavior referred to a sharing of the decision making between the leader and member, which allowed members to participate with facilitating leader behavior. Finally, members

with high maturity levels dictate a low task/low relationship leader behavior. Low task/low relationship leader behavior referred to the leader delegating responsibilities to members. Burns (1976) described leadership as a process where in an individual with certain motives and purposes were mobilized, in competition or conflict with others, engage and satisfy the motives of followers. Supporting that notion, Carless (2001) described leadership and leadership behaviors as concepts explained by a number of independent behaviors that share a common, strong relationship with a higher order construct. This construct holds true being part of the intercollegiate athletics program and member of an academic community. In team sports, group members have well defined goals share. Athletics provides a unique content, process, and structure in the development of leadership. Leadership skills developed through athletic participation later transfer and become valuable to life-long pursuits.

Mumford et al (2000) used an organizational based skill development model which proved to be effective in fostering leadership behaviors and potential. Their study used a cohort sequential design in order to assess organizational leadership. They found that a progressive and systematic skill acquisition of leadership development will serve to enhance a skill based leadership model. Their model argued that an understanding of how leadership skills are acquired would lead to the solution of problems with an organization. In essence, when understanding the structure of leadership skill acquisition, a direct link to solving appropriate organizational problems occurs. Furthermore, student athletes would thus benefit from a framework in order to create requisite leadership skills through appropriate training measures. Such a framework could be developed and tailored within an institution to bolster leadership development within an athletics program. Identifying evidence that participation in athletics provides a framework in which leadership skill development should result in an increase in resources for those programs and thus greatly increase student success.

In many instances, leadership skills may not fully develop naturally; therefore, organizations implement leadership training programs in order to meet the requisite skills necessary in developing the leadership capabilities of employees. (Fields, 1997). This premise is no different in athletics. Coaches are seen as formalized leaders, but many fail to recognize the mostly informal development of leaders within a team. On an institutional level the leadership potential of student athletes as whole have been underestimated.

Often a trait factor type approach has assumed that leadership effectiveness and leadership development was associated with certain personality characteristics of the leader (Geier, 1967). However, the assertion that general leadership dimensions can be isolated has been abandoned due to the complex nature of this construct. Conversely, other theorists hypothesized that leadership was a function of the environment (Fiedler, Chemers, & Mahar, 1977). This situational viewpoint understood leadership as a function of environmental characteristics and needs and motivations of the group leadership skills are the skills and strategies that athletes may use in leadership situations, such as, solving performance-related problems, or resolving interpersonal conflicts among teammates. For example as Ryan (1990) indicated, cognitive skills may include a substantial knowledge of the sport, having confidence in ones ability to lead others, or the ability to comprehend team goals and vision. He argued that many behavioral skills involve the demonstration of hard work and dedication in training and competition, ability to control ones emotions, and display of respect towards others. Affective skills may reflect an athlete's ability to facilitate satisfaction among teammates or foster a sense of togetherness among the team.

The situational approach is constructed around the idea that employees move forward and backward along the developmental continuum-a continuum that represents the relative competence and commitment of subordinates. For leaders to be effective, it is essential that they diagnose where subordinates are on the developmental

continuum and adapt their leadership styles so they directly match their style to the development level of subordinates.

Personality and leadership behavior have received attention within the realm of leadership development (Bryman, 1992; Conger, 1989; Yukl & Yukl, 2002). While a large amount of research has gone into the relationship between fixed personality and leadership behaviors, many researchers have actively sought alternative techniques in which to relate human phenomena to leadership development. For instance, Striker and Rock (1998) examined the relationship between biographical measures, personality and interest inventories. This was done to reduce the amount of misinterpretation, resistance, and distortion. For example, most personality inventories are empirically keyed to predict a particular criterion. Furthermore, Holmes, Sholley, and Walker (1980) reinforced this notion by saying that “predicting leadership from personality variables has long been an imprecise and tenuous endeavor.” Stricker and Rock (1998) contended that producing a homogenous biographical instrument from items that are factual and fair would reflect the unique of the assessment measure relevant personality traits, should be able to assess leadership traits.

Clearly, intercollegiate athletics is an arena in which transformational leadership is evident. Participants usually engage with others in such a way that leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of motivation in order to achieve individual and group goals.

2.7 Path-Goal Theory

Path-Goal theory is about how leaders motivate subordinates to accomplish designated goals. Drawing heavily from research on what motivates employees, path-goal theory first appeared in the leadership literature in the early 1970s in the works of Evans (1970), House (1971), House and Dessler (1974), and House and

Mitchell (1974). The stated goal of this leadership theory is to enhance employee performance and employee satisfaction by focusing on employee motivation.

In contrast to the situational approach, which suggests that a leader must adapt to the development level of subordinates, and unlike contingency theory, which emphasizes the match between the leader's style and specific situational variables, path-goal theory emphasizes the relationship between the leader's style and characteristics of the subordinates and the work setting. The underlying assumption of path goal theory derived from expectancy theory, which suggests that subordinates will be motivated if they think they are capable of performing their work, if they believe their efforts will result in a certain outcome, and if they believe that payoffs for doing their work are worthwhile.

For the leader, the challenge is to use a leadership style that best meets subordinate's motivational needs. This is done by choosing behaviors that complement or supplement what is missing in the work setting. Leaders try to enhance subordinate's goal attainment by providing information or rewards in the work environment (Indvik, 1986); leaders provide subordinates with the elements they think their subordinates need to reach their goals.

Theoretically, the path-goal approach suggests that leaders need to choose a leadership style that best fits the needs of subordinates and the work they are doing. The theory predicts that a directive style of leadership is best in situations in which subordinates are dogmatic and authoritarian, the task demands are ambiguous, and the organizational rules and procedures are unclear. In these situations, directive leadership complements the work by providing guidance and psychological structure for subordinates (House & Mitchell, 1974).

According to House and Mitchell (1974), leadership generates motivation when it increases the number and kinds of payoffs that subordinates receive from their work.

Leadership also motivates when it makes the path to the goal clear and easy to travel through coaching and direction, when it removes obstacles and road blocks to attaining the goal, and when it makes the work itself more personally satisfying.

Path-goal theory has three major strengths. First, it provides a theoretical framework that is useful for understanding how directive, supportive, participative, and achievement oriented styles of leadership affect the productivity and satisfaction of the subordinates. Second, path-goal theory is unique in that integrates the motivation principles of expectancy theory into a theory of leadership. Third, it provides a practical model that underscores the important ways that leaders help subordinates.

The principles of path-goal theory can be employed by leaders at all levels within the organization as well as for all types of tasks. To apply path-goal theory, a leader must carefully assess his or her subordinates and their tasks and then choose an appropriate leadership style to match those characteristics. If subordinates feel insecure about doing a task, the leader needs to adopt a style that builds subordinate confidence.

In brief, path-goal theory is designed to explain how leaders can help subordinates along the path to their goals by selecting specific behaviors that are best suited to subordinate's needs and to the situations in which subordinates are working.

2.8 Leadership and Intercollegiate Athletics

The National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) has within the past several years implemented leadership programs to bolster student athlete problem-solving skills, decision making abilities, and career achievement (Champs/Life Skills, 2003). Unfortunately these programs have typically failed to gather appropriate data necessary for educated endeavors. Much of the NCAA 's research is anecdotal in nature, and lacks quantifiable empirical data in which inferences can be ascertained

with regard to leadership and academic success. Nevertheless, several researchers have investigated leadership parameters and their impacts on athletes.

Shield's, Gardner, Bredemeir, and Bostro (1997) examined the relationship between leadership behaviors and group cohesion in intercollegiate team sports. Their findings indicated a strong relationship between high task association and group cohesion. As a result, an argument can be made for the development of leadership qualities within an environment comprised of athletes.

Two factors have delayed understanding the development of leadership within higher education intercollegiate athletics. First, there is nor a clear, precise, theoretical framework or model in which leadership development is determined, and secondly there is no systematic approach to the study of leadership development in athletics. (Mumford, Marks, Connelley, Zaccaro & Reiter-Palmon, 2000). One area in which this is the case is athletics and academics within the setting of higher education. Lathrop (1990) stated that leadership in higher education, from a development standpoint, is situational and contingent upon the nature of the environment. To date, there are no clearly defined components and/or framework that strengthens leadership qualities through intercollegiate athletic participation.

Certain individuals may earn the respect and support from teammates and naturally come out or develop into an informal leadership position. In contrast, the coach and teammates may choose a specific athlete as the formal team leader typically referred to as the team captain. Electing, or appointing, a team captain may be the extend of leadership development of leadership skills in either the captain, or any of the athletes on the team. One misconception among adults who are in leadership position is the belief that student athletes are not capable of taking on responsibility for others (Kallusky, 2000). As a result of this attitude, coaches and sport educators may miss opportunities to develop leadership in student athletes utilizing physical activity and participation in sport.

2.9 Intercollegiate Student-Athletes and Leadership

Various researchers have attempted to translate leadership concepts in the area of athletics (Chelladurai and Saleh, 1980; Smoll and Smith, 1989). Smoll and Smith (1989) created a cognitive behavioral model of leadership incorporating individual difference variables, situational factors, and cognitive process that mediate the relations between athletes and coaches. Challedurai (1980) proposed a Multidimensional Model of Leadership in which the characteristics of the leader and group members relate with situational factors such as the athletic program philosophy. The specific characteristics of an effective leader are hypothesized to vary as a function of context. Therefore, the sport leader characteristics that are the most effective for male tennis players may be different than the characteristics of effective leaders on a woman's volleyball team.

In an empirical study by Dobosz and Beaty (1999) high school athletes scored higher in a leadership ability measure compared to non-athletes. Although their research sample was limited, Dobotsz and Beaty's findings provide evidence that the types of personal and social behavior associated with athletic training and participation may increase, or at least strengthen, student's leadership potential.

Athletics covers a wide array of tasks, different group designs, and various climates that are situational. Glenn and Horn (1993) recommended that various samples of athletes should be studied in order to gain a clearer picture of effective sport leadership. In the sport research literature, leadership has been studied mainly in terms of coaching leadership from the coaching side. In particular, coaching leadership has been explored from the coach's point of view or from how the players see coach's leadership. In addition, some work has explored in the impact of women's role modeling in increasing participation by females in athletics (Thorngren & Eisenbarth, 1994). Developing leadership in student- athletes is as rough as it is complex, and may be dependent on a number of attributes including, the age, ability

level, experience, and overall maturity of the athlete. A skills-based approach, while accounting for task variability allows all members of the group to experience the learning and development of the skills that influence leadership rather than focusing only on the behavior or outcome of one person in charge of the whole group.

Research concerning athlete's leadership behavior from the athlete's perspective is limited. Various researchers have examined characteristics of team leaders that differentiate them from non-leaders. Kim (1992) explored four types of leadership by team captains and the effect on team performance norms in high school and university athletic teams. She found that performance norms were highest when the team captain was rated high on goal achievement and group orientation (Kim, 1992).

A study by Pascarella and Smart (1991) described the impact of collegiate athletic participation on a wide array of variables including leadership behavior. They concluded that athletic participation in college had a positive impact on leadership behavior and interpersonal skills (Pascarella & Smart, 1991).

Glenn and Horn (1993) examined predictors of leadership behavior in female soccer players. The athletes who rated high in competence, femininity, and masculinity rated themselves higher in leadership ability. Participants who rated high in leadership ability by their peers also exhibited high levels of competitive trait anxiety, masculinity, skill, and perceived competence.

2.10 Transformational Leadership

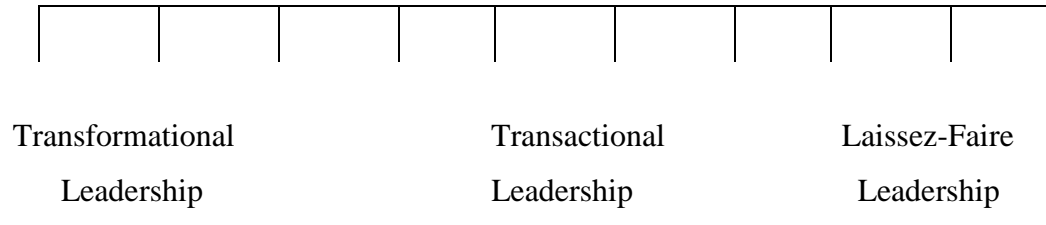
Transformational leadership is part of the "New Leadership" paradigm (Bryman, 1992), which gives more attention to the charismatic and affective elements of leadership. As its name implies, transformational leadership is a process that changes and transforms individuals. It is concerned with emotions, values, ethics, standards, and long term goals, and includes assessing follower's motives, satisfying their

needs, and threatening them as full human beings. Transformational leadership involves an exceptional form of influence that moves followers to accomplish more than what is usually expected of them. It is a process that often incorporates charismatic and visionary leadership.

In mid-1980s, Bass (1985) provided a more expanded and refined version of transformational leadership that was based on, but not fully consistent with, the prior works of Burns (1978) and House (1976). According to Bass (1985) Bass gives more attention to followers rather than leaders needs, by suggesting that transformational leadership could apply to situations in which the outcomes were not positive, and described transactional and transformational leadership as a single continuum (Figure1) rather than mutually independent continua (Yammarino, 1993). Bass gives more attention to the emotional elements and origins of charisma and by suggesting that charisma is a necessary but not sufficient condition for transformational leadership (Yammarino, 1993).

Bass (1985) argues that transformational leadership motivates followers to do more than the expected by doing the following: (a) raising follower's level of consciousness about the importance and value of specific and idealized goals, (b) getting followers to transcend their own self interest for the sake of the team or organization, and (c) moving followers to address higher level needs.

Figure 2: Leadership Continuum from Transformational to Laissez faire Leadership



Source: Leadership: Theory and practice, Northhouse, P.G., 3rd ed., 2003.

An encircling approach, transformational leadership can be used to describe a wide range of leadership, from very specific attempts to influence followers on a one to one level to very broad attempts to influence whole organization and even entire cultures. Although the transformational leader plays a pivotal role in precipitating change, followers and leaders are inextricably bound together in the transformation process.

Burns distinguished between two types of leadership: transactional and transformational. Transactional leadership refers to the bulk of leadership models, which focus on the exchanges that occur between leaders and their followers. Politicians who win votes by promising no new taxes are demonstrating transactional leadership. Similarly, managers who offer promotions to employees who beat their goals are showing transactional leadership. In the classroom, teachers are being transactional when they give students a grade for work completed. The exchange dimensions of transactional leadership are very common and can be observed at many levels throughout all organizations.

In contrast to transactional leadership, transformational leadership refers to the process whereby an individual engages with others and creates a connection that raises the level of motivation and morality in both the leader and the follower. This

type of leader is dutiful to the needs and motives of followers and tries to help followers reach their fullest potential. Burns points to Mohandas Ghandi as a classic example of transformational leadership. Ghandi raised the hopes and demands of millions of his people and in the process was changed himself.

Transformational leadership is associated with motivating associates to do more than they originally thought possible. The original expectation for performance is linked to an initial level of confidence in the associate's perceived ability and motivation. Thus, associates perceptions of self confidence, as well as their developmental potential, are enhanced through the transformational leadership process.

According to studies in which associates described the behavior of their immediate military and business supervisors (using standardized questionnaires to extract leader behavior descriptions), transformational leaders achieve their results in one or more of several ways (Avolio & Bass, 1988; Bass & Avolio, 1993, 1994; Yammarino & Bass, 1990).

Through transformational leadership, goals and objectives are established to develop others into leaders and a collective leadership group, such as in self directed teams (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1996). It is said that because of developmental orientation individuals were shifted from being purely transactional to being transformational.

The higher-order changes that arise from transacting to transforming leader associate relationships show that the transaction based changes in associates represent small, but significant, improvements in their effort and performance.

Transformational leaders are characterized by Burns (1978) as raising associates consciousness levels about the importance and value of designated outcomes and ways of achieving them. They also motivate associates to transcend their own immediate self interest for the sake of the mission and vision of the organization.

Rather than being a model that tells leaders what to do, transformational leadership provides a broad set of generalization of what is typical of leaders who are transforming or who work in transforming context. Unlike other leadership approaches, such as contingency theory and situational leadership, transformational leadership does not provide a clearly defined set of assumptions about how leaders should act in a particular situation to be successful. Rather, it provides a general way of thinking about leadership that emphasizes ideals, inspiration, innovations, and individual concerns. Transformational leadership requires that leaders be aware of how their own behavior relates to the needs of their subordinates and the changing dynamics within their organization.

Bass and Avolio (1990) suggested that transformational leadership can be thought to individuals at all levels within an organization and that it can positively affect a firm's performance. It can be used in recruitment, selection and promotion, and training and development. It can also be used in improving team development, decision making groups, quality initiatives, and reorganizations (Bass & Avolio, 1994).

In the organizational world, an example of transformational leadership would be a manager who attempts to change his or her company's corporate values to reflect a more human standard of fairness and justice. In the process, both manager and followers may appear with a strong and higher set of moral values.

2.10.1 Idealized Influence

These leaders are admired, respected, and trusted. Followers identify with and want to follow their leaders. Among the things the leader does to earn credit with followers is to consider follower's needs over his or her own needs. The leader

shares risks with followers and is consistent in conduct with underlying ethics, principles, and values.

According to Bass (1994) transformational leaders are genuinely respected by their followers. Followers believe that the leader has the competence and character to make the vision a reality. Followers are influenced by the leader to strive harder to reach their full potential so that both the member and the organization can reap the benefits. The leaders set a role example for the followers who want to identify with the leader.

Idealized influence relates very close to charisma. There is more to being a leader than being a charismatic person. Specifically transformational leaders instill confidence and commitment to a vision in followers who, through their contributions and efforts, validate a charismatic presence. Once charisma spreads throughout an organization that is focused on a shared vision or mission, immense possibilities occur. There is an excitement within the organization. For too long, charisma has been held as a mystical gift that people possessed. Charismatic behavior can be learned (Howell & Frost).

2.10.2 Intellectual Stimulation

These leaders stimulate their follower's effort to be innovative and creative by questioning assumption, reframing problems, and approaching old situation in new ways. There is no public criticism of individual member's mistake. New ideas and creative solutions to problems are solicited from followers, who are included in the process of addressing problems and finding solutions.

Bass stated that intellectual stimulation refers to the capacity of leaders to awaken and excite the intellectual curiosities of followers. He has determined that transformational leaders inspire and challenge followers on an intellectual basis. This

was a component of leadership which was overlooked by leadership theorists (Weese, 1994). Transformational leaders get their followers to shift their paradigm and begin to look at problems in more creative ways. Problem is not the appropriate word in the context of these leaders. They view problems as challenges or opportunities.

By the transformational leader's intellectual stimulation, it's meant that the arousal and change in followers of problem awareness and problem solving, of thought and imagination, and of beliefs and values, rather than arousal and change in immediate action. The intellectual stimulation of the transformational leader is seen in the discrete jump in the follower's conceptualization, comprehension, and discernment of the nature of the problems they face and their solutions. This is in contrast to the arousal of the followers of immediate increases in action rather than in ideas, contemplation, and thought prior to taking such actions. Intellectual in the sense of scholarly is not necessarily implied.

Instead of their focus on short term operations, Wortman (1982) argues that executive at and near the top of organization must increase their concentration on strategic thinking and on intellectual activities engaging themselves and their subordinates in the tasks of analysis, formulation, implementation, interpretation, and evaluation. In this way, executive will play a role in transforming leaders to the degree they can discern, comprehend, visualize, conceptualize, and articulate to their colleagues to opportunities and treats facing the organization and the organization's strengths, weaknesses, and comparative advantages. Leading in the locating and innovating of alternative strategies and their evaluation also may contribute to the transformation of the organization and its management.

2.10.3 Individual Consideration

These leaders pay attention to each individual's need for achievement and growth by acting as a coach or mentor. Followers are developed to successively higher levels of potential. New learning opportunities are created along with supportive climate in which to grow. Individual's differences in terms of needs and desires are recognized.

It deals with the relationship between leaders and their followers on two important tangents. The first component is that each member of the group is treated as an individual, not as a number. Each situation has to be reviewed individually due to differing circumstances. This factor measures the leader's willingness and ability to deal with matters on this basis. Leaders who are individual considerate are active listeners and attempt to understand the perspective offered by their followers.

The second part of this factor is the personal development of these individuals. Transformational leaders help identify weaknesses in followers as well as help them secure the resources and assistance they need to improve and to attain their goals.

2.11 Transactional Leadership

Transactional leadership departs from transformational leadership in that the transactional leader does not individualize the needs of subordinates nor focus on their personal development. Transactional leaders exchange things of value with subordinates to advance their own as well as their subordinate's agenda (Kuhnert, 1994). Transactional leaders are influential because it is in the best interest of subordinates to do what the leader wants.

Transactional leaders display behavior associated with constructive and corrective transaction. Transactional leadership defines expectations and promotes performance to achieve higher levels.

In its more constructive form, it is supplemented by working with individuals or groups, setting up and defining agreements or contracts to achieve specific work objective, discovering individual's capabilities, and specifying the compensation and rewards that can be expected upon successful completion of the tasks.

In its corrective form, it focuses on actively setting standards. In its passive form, it involves waiting for mistakes to occur before taking action. In its active form, there is closely monitoring for the occurrence of mistakes. In either its passive or active form, it focuses on identifying mistakes.

2.11.1 Contingent Reward

Transactional leadership is contingent reinforcement. The leader and follower agree on what the follower needs to do to be rewarded or to avoid punishment. "This constructive transaction has been found to be reasonably effective in motivating others to achieve higher levels of development and performance, although not as much as any of the transformational components. Contingent reward leadership involves the leader assigning or obtaining follower agreement on what needs to be done with promised or actual rewards offered in exchange for satisfactorily carrying out the assignment. A sample contingent reward item is " The leader makes clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved." Contingent reward is transactional when the reward is a material one, such as a bonus. Contingent reward can be transformational, however, when the reward is psychological, such as praise (Antonakis, Avolio, & Sivasubramaniam, 2003)" (Transformational Leadership, B.M.Bass, R.E.Riggio, 2nd Ed. 2006).

Numerous experiment and field studies attest to the efficacy of leadership by contingent reinforcement. In a laboratory experiment, Spector and Suttell (1957) contrasted what they called reinforcement leadership with authoritarian and democratic leadership. The reinforcement leader maximized positive reinforcement

for correct plans produced by teams of subjects. He specifically expressed approval every time good problem solutions were reached by them. When incorrect planning performance appeared, reinforcement leader suggested how it could be improved. He also encouraged subjects to keep trying. The authoritarian leader made the groups decisions and did its planning. Under the democratic leader, responsibility was shared for planning and decision making. The teams under reinforcement leadership did best. Members of low ability appeared to profit most from such leadership. (Bass, 1985).

Ordinarily, in service and production, contingent reward takes two forms; praise for work well done and recommendations for pay increases, bonuses, and promotion (Sims, 1977). In addition, it can be seen commendations for praiseworthy effort including public recognition and honors for outstanding service.

Both contingent reward and contingent penalization are characteristics of transaction-oriented managers because such managers, unlike transforming leaders, are more concerned with efficient processes than with substantive ideas. They are more interested in what will work rather than in what is true. They display their flexible tactics by suitable use of their power to reward or punish to maintain or improve what they see are satisfactory processes and organizational arrangements (Zaleznik, 1967).

In transactional exchanges, leaders specify requirements, the conditions and rewards for fulfilling those requirements. These are rewards provided or punishment is withheld in return of performance. According to the paradigm, such exchanges can have positive effects for generating subordinate performance.

2.11.2 Management-by-Exception (Active-Passive)

Management by exception refers to leadership that involves corrective criticism, negative feedback, and negative reinforcement. Management by exception takes two forms: active and passive. A leader using the active form of management by exception watches followers closely for mistakes or rule violations and then takes corrective action. A leader using the passive form intervenes only after standards have not been met or problems have arisen (Northouse, 2003).

Leaders who primarily or exclusively practice management by exception, negative feedback, or contingent aversive reinforcement intervene only when something goes wrong. As long as subordinates are meeting performance standards, the servo control mechanism remains quiet. But if a subordinate's performance falls below some threshold, the mechanism is triggered. At the emotional mildest level, the leader feeds back information to the subordinates that the threshold has been crossed. The negative feedback may be accompanied by clarification and encouragement if the leader is someone who also values use of contingent reward. At the other extreme, it may be accompanied by disapproval, warning, or worse.

Negative feedback, particularly if impersonal and strengthened with positive support, can provide the novice subordinate with needed advice on what not to do. But when supervisors manage by exception and negative feedback forms the exclusive contribution of the supervisors to their leadership relations with their subordinates, it is likely to be relatively ineffective in contrast to contingent reward. When the intervention is that of reproof or penalization, it can be counterproductive.

This corrective transaction tends to be more ineffective than contingent reward on the components of transformational leadership. The corrective transaction may be active or passive. In active, the leader arranges to actively monitor deviances from standards, mistakes, and errors in the follower's assignments and to take corrective

action as necessary. Management by exception passive implies waiting passively for deviances, mistakes, and errors to occur and then taking corrective action. Active management by exception may be required and effective in some situations, such as when safety is paramount in importance. Leaders sometimes must practice passive management by exception when required to supervise a large number of subordinates who report directly to the leaders. Sample MLQ items for management by exception are “The leader directs attention toward failures to meet standards” (active) and “The leader takes no action until complaints are received” (passive)” (Transformational Leadership, B.M.Bass, R.E.Riggio, 2nd Ed. 2006).

Transactional leadership involves exchanges between leaders and followers who reflect more traditional forms of management by objectives. This factor is identified as being either passive or active (Yammarino & Bass 1990). The leader exhibits this transactional behavior as being reactive, intervening only when something goes wrong and when standards for performance are not being met. When people are not putting expected effort about their work this intervention is called as active management by exception (Prujin and Boucher, 1994). Specifically an active leader keeps an eye out of differences.

On the other hand, passive dimensions of management by exception is used by leaders who only interfere in the employee’s work if the desired goals are not met. The passive leader waits to see what happens and differences to occur (Bass, 1995; Doherty & Danylchuk, 1996; Doherty, 1997).

2.11.3 Laissez – faire

This factor represents the absence of leadership. This leader gives up responsibility, delays decisions, gives no feedback, and makes a little effort to help followers satisfy their needs. There is no exchange with followers or any attempt to help them grow.

The comprehensive range of leader behaviors also consist a non leadership behavior called laissez – faire (Bass, 1985). In this behavior frame leader does not encourage or take any initiative behavior, makes no attempt or action to recognize subordinates needs. Moreover leader is unlikely to have any transaction with subordinates, and is likely to withdraw when differences occur (Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 1990).

As mentioned, laissez-faire leadership is the avoidance or absence of leadership and is, by definition, most inactive, as well as most ineffective according to almost all research on style.

As opposed to transactional leadership, laissez-faire represents a non-transaction. Necessary decisions are not made. Actions are delayed. Responsibilities of leadership are ignored. Authority remains unused. A sample laissez-faire item is “The leader avoids getting involved when important issues arise.”

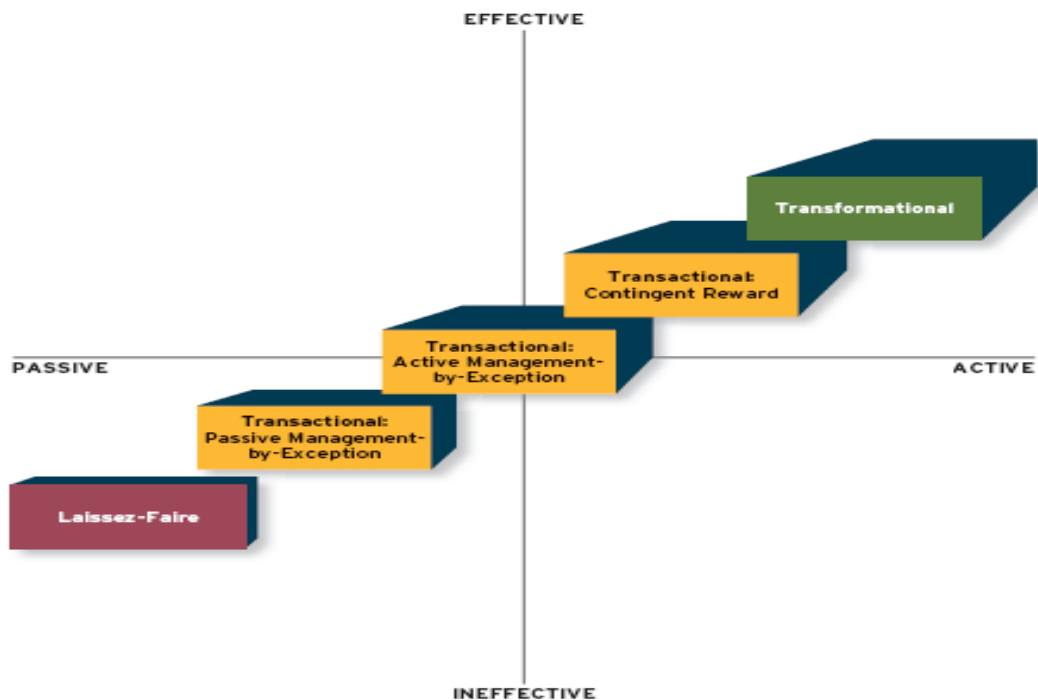


Figure 3: The model of the full range leadership suboptimal profile

Source: Transformational Leadership, Bass, B.M. Riggio, R.E 2nd Ed. 2006.

CHAPTER III

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

The purpose of the study was to assess the transformational and transactional leadership characteristics of intercollegiate athletes and non-athletes. Students currently active in seven different private universities in Istanbul were voluntarily participants in this study.

This chapter outlines the methods and procedures used for examining the leadership characteristics of intercollegiate athletes and non-athletes.

3.1 Selection of the Participants

In order to represent university student athletes and non athlete's seven different universities were selected in Istanbul. The participants were full time students who take 12 or more academic credit hours during the academic semester. The intercollegiate athlete sample population was attending TUSF (Turkish University Sport Federation) activities non athlete population was not, during semester. Participants ranged from first year to fourth year status as non athlete and athlete. The study examined 152 subjects. Each subject was administered a 45 item questionnaire. Subjects were told that no write or wrong answer existed, and that they should independently answer each question based on their own feelings of leadership believes. The participants were told to not put their name onto the questionnaire, that their response remains anonymous.

Athletes from various sport teams were used. In order to reach the athlete participants, permissions to attend the trainings were taken from the coaches of the

university teams. Participants who are athletes were 70 participants from different branches of sport which are all included TUSF (Turkish University Sport Federation) activities. They all attended voluntarily. In order to achieve maximum participant turn out, questionnaires were given handout and collected.

The 82 participant who were non-athlete student groups consist of students enrolled in general education classes at the universities. Students that are no intercollegiate athletes attended this study voluntarily while their daily brakes. The data collection was for both of the student group, was collected in February 2010.

3.2 Instrument

The multifactor leadership questionnaire (MLQ) Leader Form (Form 5X-Short) developed by Bass and Avolio (1995) was used in this study to measure transformational and transactional leadership characteristics. Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ Form 5R) was developed first by Bass in 1985. This primary survey instrument has been used to assess the extend to which leaders exhibit transformational and transactional leadership characteristics and extend to which followers are satisfied with their leader and believe their leader is effective (Hughes, Ginnet, & Curphy, 1993).The original MLQ consist of 73 items, measuring five factors. Responding to criticism about the incorporation of items that did not focus directly on leader behaviours (Hunt, 1991; Yukl, 1998) and concerns about the factor and subscales, the MLQ was substantially revised.

In order to reach the full range concept the much revision has occurred in the MLQ since 1985. It has been criticized by several authors for its lack of discriminate validity among the factors comprising the survey, for including behavioral and impact items in the same survey scales. Also the factor structure initially proposed by Bass (1985) has not always been replicated in subsequent empirical research (Hunt, 1991; Smith & Peterson, 1988; Yukl, 1994). The initial conceptualization of the

transactional and transformational leadership model presented by Bass (1985) included six leadership factors: Charisma, inspirational, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, contingent reward, management by exception, and one non-leadership factor, laissez-faire.

Since Bass (1985) proposed the original 6 factor model, several additional factors have been uncovered through subsequent research using revised versions of the MLQ (Bass & Avolio, 1993; 1994). One of these factors provides for attributions regarding the leader's transformational style, and is based on distinguishing between charismatic behaviors and attributions. Management by Exception is divided into Management by Exception Active (MBEA) and Management by Exception Passive (MBEP). Thus, nine factor scores were obtained for MLQ Form 5X and the analyses for the report. Six had been used previously in MLQ Form 5R and three were newly created.

Based on a summary analysis of a series of studies that used the MLQ to predict how transformational leadership relates to outcomes such as effectiveness, Bryman (1992) and Bass and Avolio (1994) have suggested that the charisma and motivation factors on the MLQ are the most likely to be related to positive effects. Individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation, and contingent reward are the next most important factors. Management by exception in its passive form has been found to be somewhat related to outcomes, and in its active form it has been found to be negatively related to outcomes. Generally, laissez-faire leadership has been found to be negatively related to outcomes such as effectiveness and satisfaction in organization (Northouse, 2003).

3.3 Data Analysis

In data analysis all subscales means were calculated in SPSS and using those scores completed all processes. Means were reflection of leadership characteristics of

intercollegiate athletes and non-athletes in each subscale. Respondents rated the frequency of behavior on 5 point liker type scale of 0 "Not at all", 1 "Once in awhile", 2 "Sometimes", 3 "Fairly Often", 4 "Frequently, if not always".

Data analysis was performed by performing independent sample t-test to test differences in transformational and transactional leadership differences between intercollegiate athletes and non-athletes. By using independent sample t-test scores of transformational and transactional leadership subscale differences was tested.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The purpose of this chapter is to report the results of this study. The chapter is represented in three sections which include (a) Demographic Variables (b) Leadership Scores (c) Transformational and transactional Sub-Scales Score.

4.1 Demographic Variables

Table 1: Demographic Profile of Intercollegiate athlete and non-athlete

| Variables | Category | n | % | Cumulative |
|-------------------|---------------------|-----|------|------------|
| Gender | Male | 108 | 71 | 100 |
| | Female | 48 | 28.5 | 28.5 |
| Team Member | Athlete | 70 | 46.1 | 46.1 |
| | Non-athlete | 82 | 53.9 | 100 |
| Weekly Exercise | Once a week | 21 | 15.4 | 15.4 |
| | Twice a week | 27 | 19.9 | 35.3 |
| | Three times a week | 32 | 23.5 | 58.8 |
| | More than three | 56 | 41.2 | 100 |
| Yearly Based Time | Less than six month | 16 | 11.7 | 11.7 |
| | One year | 6 | 4.4 | 16.1 |
| | Two Years | 7 | 5.1 | 21.2 |
| | More than three y. | 108 | 71.1 | 100 |

Among 152 university students from seven different special universities in Istanbul were included in this study, 43 (28.5%) of them were females and 108 (71.5%) of

them were males. In relation with the university teams 70 (46.1%) of them were intercollegiate athlete, 82 (53.9%) were non athletes.

When physical exercise in university students is considered 21 (15.4%) of them were exercising once a week, 27 (19.9%) were exercising twice a week, 32 (23.5%) were exercising three times a week, 56 (41.2%) students were exercising more than 3 times a week. When the exercise continuity is considered 16 (11.7%) of the students were doing exercise less than six months, 6 (4.4%) of them were doing exercise for one year, 7 (5.1%) of them were doing exercise for two years and 108 (90.1%) were doing more than three years.

One sample t-test was conducted to examine the transformational and transactional leadership characteristics in intercollegiate athletes and non athletes.

4.2 Leadership Scores

As indicated in Table 2 intercollegiate athletes and non athletes were placed into three leadership behaviors, transformational leadership, transactional leadership and outcomes of leadership. Independent sample t-test was conducted to examine whether there is significant mean difference between intercollegiate athletes and non-athletes. There was statistically significant differences at the $p = .05$ level between intercollegiate athletes and non-athletes in terms of mean differences.

The average score of in transformational leadership behavior in intercollegiate athletes was $M = 4.07$ and the standard deviation (2 tailed) was $s = 0.034$. The average score of in transformational leadership behavior in intercollegiate non-athletes was $M = 3.91$ and the standard deviation (2 tailed) was $s = 0.035$

The average score of in transactional leadership behavior in intercollegiate athletes was $M = 2.76$ and the standard deviation (2 tailed) was $s = 0.003$. The average score

of in transactional leadership behavior in intercollegiate non-athletes was $M = 2.93$ and the standard deviation (2 tailed) was $s = 0.003$.

The average score of in outcomes of leadership behavior in intercollegiate athletes was $M = 3.95$ and the standard deviation (2 tailed) was $s = 0.48$. The average score of in transactional leadership behavior in intercollegiate non-athletes was $M = 2.93$ and the standard deviation (2 tailed) was $s = 0.489$.

Table 2

Independent Sample t-test scores of Transformational and Transactional Leadership differences between intercollegiate athletes and non-athletes

| Leadership | Athletes | | Non-athletes | | <i>t</i> (150) |
|------------------|----------|-------|--------------|-------|----------------|
| | M | SD | M | SD | |
| Transformational | 4.07 | 0.034 | 3.91 | 0.035 | 2.13 |
| Transactional | 2.76 | 0.003 | 2.93 | 0.003 | - 2.99 |
| Outcomes of L. | 3.95 | 0.48 | 3.88 | 0.489 | .709 |

4.3 Transformational and Transactional Sub-scale Score

Specifically Table 3 indicates statistically significant subscales of transformational and transactional leadership behavior at the $p = .05$ level in individual consideration, management by exception (passive) and laissez fair.

The average score of in individual consideration in intercollegiate athletes was $M = 4.03$ and the standard deviation (2 tailed) was $s = 0.36$ in intercollegiate non-athletes was $M = 3.28$ and the standard deviation (2 tailed) was $s = 0.36$

When the subscale of transactional leadership, management by exception and laissez fair was considered the average score of athletes in management by exception

(passive) was $M = 2.19$ and the standard deviation was $s = 0,019$. The average score of non-athletes was $M = 2.44$ and the standard deviation was $s = 0.021$. The result of the second subscale of transactional leadership, the laissez fair, indicates that the average score of athletes was $M = 1.69$ the standard deviation was $s = 0.00$. When the non-athlete were considered the average score was $M = 0.00$ the standard deviation was $s = 2.13$.

Table 3

Independent Sample t-test scores of Transformational and Transactional Leadership Subscale differences between intercollegiate athletes and non-athletes

| Leadership | Athletes | | Non-athletes | | $t (150)$ |
|---|----------|-----------|--------------|-----------|-----------|
| | <u>M</u> | <u>SD</u> | <u>M</u> | <u>SD</u> | |
| Transformational Individual Consideration | 4.03 | 0.36 | 3.82 | 0.36 | 2.11 |
| Transactional Management By Exception (Passive) | 2.19 | 0.019 | 2.44 | 0.021 | - 2.36 |
| Laissez fair | 1.69 | 0.00 | 0.00 | 2.13 | -3.96 |

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

This study was designed to examine and show the leadership characteristics of college students. Transformational and Transactional Leadership characteristics in intercollegiate athletes were examined with regular students that are not athletes. The major findings of these intercollegiate athlete's did, in fact, outscore their non-athlete counterparts on the MLQ 5X-Short Leader Form. This is consistent with other research on the positive effects of adolescent's sport participation (Goldberg & Chandler, 1989; Snyder & Spreitzer, 1992). It adds further evidence to the theory that the type of personal and social behavior associated with athletic training and participation may indeed increase, or at least strengthen, university student's leadership potential.

Findings show that 46.1% of the participants were participating in intercollegiate organizations but 53.9 % were neither in a team nor competing. Total results reflected that the intercollegiate athletes have more transformational characteristics than non-athlete. In specific intercollegiate researches, Snyder & Spreitzer (1991) found that scholar athletes showed high level of self esteem, internal focus of control, and leadership experience. Athletics have been a significant developmental area for many leaders not only in education, bur also throughout every sector society. Colleges evaluate many factors in order to determine if a student will be successful in completing a program and, ultimately graduate from the school. Rice and Dark (2000) stated that it is necessary to further address the influence of being involved in extracurricular university activities and how this effect success, and leadership development of students.

According to a series of studies in which associates described the behavior of their immediate military and business supervisors, transformational leaders achieve their results in one or more several ways (Avolio & Bass, 1988; Bass&Avolio, 1993; Bass, 1985; Hater & Bass, 1988; Howell & Avolio, 1993Lowe et al., 1996, Yammarino & Bass, 1990).

Transformational leaders set out to empower followers and nurture them in change. They attempt to raise the consciousness in individuals and to get them to transcend their own self interest for the sake of others.

To create change, transformational leaders become strong role models for their followers. They have highly developed set of moral values and a self determinant sense of identity (Avolio & Gibbons, 1988). They are confident, competent, and articulate, and they express strong ideals. They listen to followers and are not intolerant of opposing viewpoints. A spirit of cooperation often develops between these leaders and their followers. Followers want to imitate transformational leaders because they learn to trust them and believe in the ideas for which they stand (Northouse, 2003).

Like in intercollegiate athletic teams the vision emerges from the collective interests of various individuals and units within an organization. The vision is a focal point for transformational leadership. It gives the leader and the organization a conceptual map for where the organization is headed; it gives followers a sense of identity within the organization and also a sense of self efficacy (Shamir, 1993).

Transformational leaders also act as change agents who initiate and implement new directions within organizations. They listen to opposing viewpoints within the organization as well as treats to the organization that may arise from the outside the organization.

Transformational leaders become sources of inspiration to others through their commitment to those who work with them, their insistence to a mission, their willingness to take risk, and their strong desire to achieve.

Transformational leaders diagnose, meet and elevate the needs of each their associates through individualized consideration. They believe in promoting continuous people improvement.

Transformational leaders stimulate their associates to view the world from new perspectives, angles, and informational sources. They question even the most successful strategies to improve them over time.

Associates trust their transformational leaders to overcome any obstacle, because of their hard work, their willingness to sacrifice their self interest and their prior interest.

The findings of the study also indicated that intercollegiate athletes have higher scores in individual consideration than in non athletes. According to Bass individualized consideration is an important element of transformational leadership. It deals with the relationship between leaders and their followers on two important tangents. The first component is that each member of the group is treated as an individual, nor as a number. Each situation has to be reviewed individually due to differing circumstances. This factor measures the leader's willingness and ability to deal with matters on this basis. Leaders who are individually considerate are active listeners and attempt to understand the perspectives offered by their followers.

When examining the transactional leadership subscale the current study found that Non athletes have more score according to intercollegiate athletes. Their first score of management by exception (passive) score was higher than their counterparts. On the other hand, passive dimensions of management by exception are used by leaders who only interfere in the employee's work if the desired goals are not met. The

passive leader waits to see what happens and differences to occur (Bass, 1995; Doherty & Danylchuk, 1996; Doherty, 1997). Their second score Laissez Fair scores higher than the intercollegiate athletes. Leader is unlikely to have any transaction with subordinates, and is likely to withdraw when differences occur (Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 1990).

Transactional leadership is the traditional form of leadership existing in organizational settings, whereby managers clearly outline tasks and how they might be performed. Followers agree to complete the assignments in exchange for appropriate material or psychological compensation or to avoid being disciplined (Avolio, Waldman, & Yammarino, 1991) Avolio (1991) suggested that the two way exchange between the leader and the follower (goal clarification and goal acceptance) is crucial to the success of this type of leadership. Bass (1985) offered that if leaders only intervene to correct mistakes, their leadership is dissatisfying to followers. This type of leadership has its limits and does not align with the image that most people hold for leadership

Bass & Avolio (1990) noted that transactional leadership does not adequately fit the description that people participating in leadership workshops offer when asked to describe their vision of the ideal leader (Bass & Avolio, 1990). The leaders most represent as ideal appear to carry a higher level of influence. These leaders have the ability to inspire followers to go beyond acceptable levels of commitment and contributions. These leaders move followers to envision an anticipated future for the organization. Followers think in futuristic terms and aspire to a higher of performance, because their personal actualization needs are met. Consequently, their own self interest is superseded by the interests of the group and/or classified in today's literature as a transformational leader.

Above all Bass and Avolio (1997) suggested that transactional and transformational leadership do not have to be seen as opposing approaches or styles to leadership, as

they were often conceptualized early on by Burns and others. Instead, Bass and Avolio noted that transformational and transactional leadership could be seen together in a model called the full range model. Transformational and transactional leadership are distinct but not equally exclusive processes and the full range model recognizes that the same leader may use both types of leadership at different times, in different situations. The full range leadership model also includes laissez-fair leadership, which is through avoiding decision-making and giving up responsibility. This is only conceptualized as a leadership style in that a person in authority may choose to avoid taking action rather than lead. Few researchers spend time on laissez fair.

Within the higher education several researchers have explored the role and importance transactional and transformational leadership styles. As in the finding in this study, individual consideration which is a subscale of transformational leadership and measures the leader willingness and ability to deal with matters, and identifies as active listeners and understand the perspective offered by their followers was examined in intercollegiate athletes but not in non athletes. In addition to this, findings related with non athletes supported that subscales of transactional leadership which are management by exception (passive) scale and laissez fair scale were higher in score than in athletes.

Summarizing the psychological literature Howgan (1978) stated that leaders generally can be found to be very social, intelligent, self confident, and dominant. Furthermore, their knowledge and skills must be adequate to justify others following them. Hohmann, Hawker, and Howmann (1982) identified sensitivity to other's needs, acceptance and use of others contributions, tolerance for personal differences, and confidence in skills and knowledge as characteristics of strong leaders. Graustrom (1986) found that adolescent leaders, as compared with non leaders, were dominant on both physical and physiological dimensions. Gaustrom also noted that adolescent leaders were more active and aggressive, received more positive feedback

from adults, and were dealt with peers in amore positive manner. The findings of this study indicated that there are differences within subscales of transformational and transactional leadership characteristics. The non-athlete student fail to interfere until problems become serious and wait for things to wrong before taking action. They prefer not to get involved when important issues arise and delay responding to urgent questions. However according to the findings, intercollegiate athletes pay attention to each individual's needs and help others to develop their strength.

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

The field of leadership has been much studied but there is still little known about it. The study represents the first attempt to assess Bass's (2004) model of transformational and transactional leadership with data collected in intercollegiate athletes and non-athletes.

The differences between intercollegiate athletes and non-athletes about transformational and transactional leadership characteristics were reflecting change according to sport activities.

Differences between ratings of intercollegiate athletes and non-athletes for transactional leadership characteristics were contradictory. Non-athletes students were higher in scores of transactional leadership subscales.

Intercollegiate athletes were dominant in subscale of transformational leadership individual consideration. According to the findings non-athlete students fail to interfere until problems become serious and wait for things to go wrong before taking action, they avoid decision making and give up responsibilities in relation with transactional subscales, management by exception (passive) and laissez-fair.

The further research should attempt to replicate the findings of this study in governmental universities. Perhaps the mentioned leadership characteristics based on this study will bring about a deeper understanding in different socio-economic levels and different kind of intercollegiate team and individual sports.

Also further research should obtain additional information in team and individual sport activities in gender differences.

In addition to subordinate's characteristics, task characteristics also have a major impact on the way a leader's behavior influences the motivation of subordinate's task. Task characteristics include the design of the subordinate's task, the formal authority. Collectively, these characteristics in and of themselves scan provide motivation for subordinates. When a situation provides clearly structured strong group norms, and an established authority system then subordinates will find the path to desired goals apparent and will not have a lead for a leader to clarify goals or to coach subordinates in how to reach these goals. Subordinates will feel as if they can accomplish their work and that their work is of value. Leadership in these types of context could be seen as unnecessary, unempatic and excessively.

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