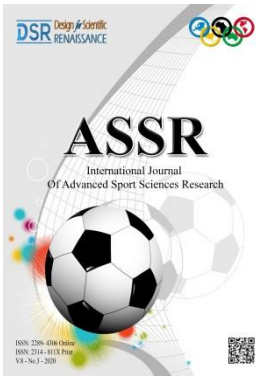
Article Info.
Received: Nov. 05, 2020
Accepted: Nov. 15, 2020
Published online: Dec. 1, 2020



"The Case of Iraqi and Malaysian University Football Athletes with Sport Leadership Styles of Coaches"
A comparative study

HAYDER NAZAR JAWOOSH[1], MAZIN HADI KZAR[2]
MOHD RADZANI ABDUL RAZAK[3]
[1, 2] Physical Education and Sport Sciences Department, Al-Mustaqbal University College, 51001 Hillah, Babil, Iraq
[3] Faculty of Education, The National University of Malaysia (UKM), 43600 Bangi, Selangor, MALAYSIA

Abstract

The aim of this study was to investigate the relationship between athletes' satisfaction with their coaches' leadership styles. The study explored the differences between Iraqi (n = 100) and Malaysian (n = 100) university-level male athletes in their leader style preferred. Methodologically, this research used the Multidimensional Model of Leadership (MML) to identify the relationship between five leadership styles (training and instruction, autocratic leadership, democratic leadership, social support and positive feedback) and athletic satisfaction, as depicted by two instruments, namely, the Leadership Scale for Sports (LSS) and the Athlete Satisfaction Questionnaire (ASQ). A MANOVA analyses was used to test the differences between three composite satisfaction categories of 'low satisfied, moderate satisfied, and highly satisfied'. The results showed that the Iraqi athletes preferred more positive feedback style and social support while the Malaysian athletes preferred significantly more training and instruction style. Iraqi and Malaysian athletes negatively related to autocratic leadership style. By contrast, the satisfaction of athletes is positively related to democratic leadership, social support and positive feedback. Overall, the results of the study emphasized the importance of the relationship between preferred leadership styles of coaches and athletes' satisfaction in two different countries.

Keywords: Coach, Leadership style, Athlete, Sport, Football.

Introduction

Philosophers and thinkers have been interested in the subject of leadership since a long time ago and this interest has continued to grow until the present age. The dominant approach towards the analysis of leadership in the both context of sports and a management science consisted of attempts to identify the characteristic traits, decision styles, and/or behaviors of leaders (Chelladurai & Carron, 1983). The leadership factor is considered one of the most important factors underlying the social interaction process, cohesion of the group, and the development process until the highest possible degree of efficiency, effectiveness and achievement. Hence, a successful coach can affect the behavior and activities of individuals to achieve the desired goals directly through positive interaction and communication with the individuals.

Coaching behavior can be classified as the actual leader behavior, required leader behavior and preferred leader behavior. From the perspective of Smith, Kendall, and Hulin (1969), the concern of the administrators and coaches should be making the players' experiences satisfying and enjoyable. The athlete's satisfaction is considering an important factor in determining the behavior to be adopted by the coach and the relationship between the athletes and their coach (Nazarudin, Fauzee, Jamalis, Geok, & Din, 2009). Although the field of study in the relationship between the coach and players still requires more investigation and development, recent research studies show a clear vision and understanding of important features of successful coach-athlete relationship. Jowett and Cockerill (2002) and Jowett and Ntoumanis (2004) explored the complementary nature of this relationship with particular emphasis on behavioral cognitive and affective factors.

The leadership styles of coaches are regarded as a critical point of satisfaction in football teams (Saybani, Yusof, Soon, Hassan, & Zardoshtian, 2013). Unsuitable leadership styles of the coaches lead to stress, lack of harmony, and the failure to achieve the goals of the team. Furthermore, coaches are required to possess a range of leadership styles, training, evaluation, and humanity skills that qualify him/her to correctly do the job. Therefore, identifying the correct leadership style is expected to improve the performance of the athletes, and subsequently, team. The purpose of this study was twofold. First, this research tries to identify which type of leadership styles do Iraqi and Malaysian coaches adopt regards to universities football player' to determine and compare the actual coaches' style between two countries. Second, this study examined the differences of leadership styles of football coaches among levels of athletes' satisfaction to identify the levels of satisfaction with coaches' styles. As such, the following research question were proposed: what type of leadership styles of Iraqi and Malaysian coaches preferred by universities football player? And are there any significant differences of leadership styles of football coaches among levels of athletes' satisfaction in Iraqi and Malaysian universities?

Literature review

The concept of leadership has yet to be clearly defined. It has been defined differently from author to author (Islam, Aamir, Ahmed, & Muhammad, 2012). However, leadership is essential to the working of organizations within societies. Leadership has been, and still is, one of the most important subjects in management. According to House, Dorfman, Javidan, Hanges, and de Luque (2013), although the word "leadership" was added to the English language approximately 200 years ago, the symbol to “leader” was found in the Iraqi Sumerian language and the Egyptian Hieroglyphics language from ~5,000 years ago. It is clear from history that leadership practices have been in existence for quite some time. It is probably safe to assume that without leadership practices; it would have been difficult, if not impossible, for the Iraqis to build the Rockeries Outstanding, the Egyptians to build the Pyramids, and the Chinese to build the Great Wall of China.

Leadership is commonly defined as the process by which one individual skillfully guide a group of other individuals towards a collective goal, accomplishment, or action. Interpersonal influence exercised in an orientation and situation via communication towards fulfilling a specific goal or goals has also been utilized to define the concept of leadership. Leaders are able to inspire others. On top of the aforementioned definitions, leadership has been also defined in terms of the strength of relationship between the leaders and their followers. From this perspective, leaders have power and wield it to bring about changes in others. Others view leadership as an instrument of goal fulfilment by helping group members achieve their goals and meet their needs. Successful leadership is a process that includes influence and it occurs within a group of contexts. It is also responsible for realizing the goals of a group (Loughead & Hardy, 2005). These terms provide a formal definition of Leadership and Leader, where "Leadership is the ability of one person to influence a group of persons toward the achievement of common goals", and "Leader is a person or thing that leads; directing, commanding, or guiding head, as of a group or activity" (Yukl, 2013).

This part will clarify the style of leadership, where we exclusively emphasize what leaders do and how they act. The style works not by informing leaders how to behave, but through describing the essential components of their style. The leadership style adopted by leaders reminds them that their actions toward others occur on relationship and task levels. Leaders can find out a lot about themselves and how to get close to others by trying to see their styles in light of the relationship and task elements. In general, leaders can assess their actions and determine how they may desire to change to ameliorate their leadership styles (Naidoo, Coopoo, & Surujlal, 2015).

The first few studies on sports leadership are concentrated on investigating the personality traits of coaches. Later attempts are more focused on determining specific leadership styles of coaches. In contrast to previous studies, situational coaching leadership attempted to incorporate each situational and behavioral factors of leadership (Kim & Cruz, 2016).

Coaches show different coaching styles, which might not be preferred by the athletes. When the players are unhappy with the coach’s training method, the team

will not be a cohesive unit, and some athletes might even quit the team (Kim & Cruz, 2016). Styles of coaching keeps the team intact. The coach, as the center, leader, and teacher of the team, must find a proper way to manage the team and keep it united. The coach's role is important to the success of the team (Stein, Bloom, & Sabiston, 2012).

The interactions between coaches and athletes would be satisfactory if there was an agreement between the athlete's goal and beliefs with that of the coach (Lafrenière, Jowett, Vallerand, & Carbonneau, 2011). Burns, Jasinski, Dunn, and Fletcher (2012) considers satisfaction as an integral part of sport participation and enjoyment. Losing satisfaction can lead athletes turning towards other resources for potential success and enjoyment. The factor of satisfaction in sport has been widely studied in the context of several variables, mostly leadership.

One assumption of the Contingency theory is there no correct leadership style. The Contingency theory depends on some factors such as situation, quality of the followers or the number of other variables in determining leadership style. Also, this theory cannot determine which is the right way to lead because the internal and external factors of the environment require the leader to adjust to a particular status. A very classic example is the case where the leader is so successful in a specific organization but when the leader is shifted to another organization he may experience failure in the new organization. The cause for the failure does not lie with the leader. Rather, it is the changes in personnel, dynamics and the environment within the now organization that have caused the failure. Therefore, the Contingency theory which is a class of behavioral theory confirms there is no one best way of leading/ organizing an organization and a leadership/ organizational style that is successful in one case may not be effective in another (Yukl, 2013).

One of the strengths of the contingency theory in terms of leadership is that it draws attention to the importance of matching specific leadership styles to specific situations and the need for leaders to adapt their styles according to subordinates' characteristics and the nature of the task. Moreover, some contingency theories received significant empirical support (Glendon, Clarke, & McKenna, 2016). Leaders styles' can affect subordinate performance and satisfaction. Yukl (2013) detailed the influence of democratic leader style on subordinates and the factors influencing individual decisions on exerting effort upon a task. The amount of effort that an individual will expend on a task depends on the likelihood that the effort will lead to desired results (such as wage increases or promotion), while negative styles are represented by autocratic avoidance (such as layoffs or reprimands) (Yukl, 2013).

Chelladurai (2007) recognized in the sport domain and developed the multidimensional model of leadership (MML) based on contingency theory the (Fiedler, 2015). This model stated that effective leaders can adapt their leadership style based on the needs of the group (Riemer & Harenberg, 2014; Solomon, 2016).

The multidimensional model of leadership focuses onto three statuses of coaching leadership style: the first coaching is the actual leader style, the second is the required leader style, and the final type of coaching style is the preferred leader style by athlete. Antecedents of the three types of styles that influence the styles, includes leader, member characteristics, and situations. The basic idea of

multidimensional model stipulates that athlete performance and satisfaction are functions of the harmony between actual and required leader styles and the preferred leader style by athlete (Chelladurai, 2007; Solomon, 2016).

This research adapts The Multidimensional Model of Leadership where regards leadership style as an independent variable, while the satisfaction of athletes is regarded as a dependent variable. The relationship between leadership style and athletes' satisfaction that provided by the model make it possible to measure one branch of leadership style (actual leadership style) from the three of styles with athletes' satisfaction. Leadership style and athletes' satisfaction and show the relationship between them according to two questionnaires Leadership Scale foe Sport (LSS) and Athlete Satisfaction Questionnaire (ASQ) (Khalaj, Khabiri, & Sajjadi, 2011; Riemer & Toon, 2001).

By using multidimensional model of leadership (Chelladurai, 2007), (P Chelladurai & Saleh, 1980) developed the leadership scale for sport (LSS). The scale included five elements of leader style in three versions (Actual Leader Style is what the leader really does, Required Leader Style is how the organization demands that a leader behaves – following the rules, discipline system and traditions, and Preferred Leader Style is how the team members would like their leader to behave) (Kao, Chen, Watson, & Halbrook, 2015).

Actual leadership style, one of styles, used by coach and can affect directly on athletes' performance and satisfaction. This style divided into five sub-leadership styles based on Leadership Scale for Sports (LSS) (training and instruction: how the coach improves players' performances, autocratic style: how the coach asserts his own authority, democratic style: how the coach encourages collective decision-making, social support: the concern the coach shows for others' wellbeing, and positive feedback: the positive reinforcement the coach provides). Athletes' satisfaction effected by these five styles that used by coach (Chelladurai, 2012; Chelladurai & Saleh, 1980).

The Leadership Scale of Sport (LSS) has been used in a variety of contexts to measure leadership in sport and the relationship between leadership and other variables. Chelladurai (2007) determined three main purposes for which the Leadership Scale for Sport (LSS) has been used. This scale has been utilized to study athletes' preference for specific leadership style (Chia, Pyun, & Kwon, 2015; Horn, Bloom, Berglund, & Packard, 2011) and the athletes' perception of their coaches' style (Aoyagi, Cox, & McGuire, 2008; Sullivan, Paquette, Holt, & Bloom, 2012). This scale has also been used to study the coaches' perceptions of their own respective style (Sullivan et al., 2012; P. J. Sullivan & Kent, 2003). Preferred leader style refers to actual styles favored by athletes, while athletes' perceptions of leadership styles are similar to the required style of leadership, and coaches' perception of their own style is linked to actual coach style. The two factors of leader's personal characteristics, preferred leader style, and required leader style underlie the actual leader style (Chelladurai, 2007). and athletes' perception of leadership style is linked to actual coach style.

Riemer and Chelladurai (1998) noted some of the reasons, such as the link between satisfaction and performance, the importance of the athlete to athletic programs, and the relationship between satisfaction and other constructs in the group dynamics framework (e.g., leadership and cohesion). Athlete satisfaction questionnaire (ASQ) was developed to measure aspects of athletes' satisfaction that was been set by (Riemer & Chelladurai, 1998). Athlete satisfaction questionnaire (ASQ) is a total of 56 items that included 15 elements of athlete satisfaction. These elements contain as following: (a) individual performance, (b) the team's performance, (c) ability utilization, (d) strategy, (e) personal treatment, (f) training and instruction, (g) team task contribution, (h) team social contribution, (i) ethics, (j) team integration, (k) personal dedication, (l) budget, (m) medical personnel, (n) academic support service, and (o) external agents (Onağ & Tepeci, 2014).

Method

Respondent

The participants taking part in this study consisted of athletes from five public universities. They include males selected from the athletic rosters in football, who come from different universities scattered around Iraq and Malaysia. The total sample include (100) athletes between (18-26) years old who are full time students.

Data collection

This research is a quantitative research. According to (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016), in quantitative research, a questionnaire usually used to collect the data. A questionnaire is an efficient data collection mechanism when the researcher knows exactly what is required and how to measure the variables of interest (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). This study used a self-administered questionnaire. With a self-administered questionnaire, the researcher or a member of the research team can collect the completed responses within a short period of time, as well as clarify on the spot any doubts that the respondents might have concerning any question. The collected data in this study using the questionnaire model, because the instruments used in this research are (LSS) and (ASQ). There was no need for the teams' coaches to be present during data collection. This study provided one copy to the participant, and it took ~30-40 minutes for an athlete to complete the questionnaires. The completed copies were then collected from the athletes.

Measurement

Leadership Scale for Sport

One of the most popular scales foe measuring coaching styles (offered in five elements) is Leadership Scale for Sports (LSS), as reported by Chelladurai and Saleh (1980). This instrument has been widely used and employed in sports leadership research for more than 30 years. Its reliability and validity have also been re-evaluated several times.

The Leadership Scale for Sports (LSS) is a questionnaire model, consisting of 40 items, divided into 5 subscales. These items are distributed on a subscale in the following manner; training and instruction take 13 items, autocratic style takes 5 items, democratic style takes 9 items, social support takes 8 items, and positive feedback takes 5 items. Chelladurai defined five elements of leadership style (Sarı & Bayazıt, 2017).

According to five elements of leadership scale for sports that developed by P Chelladurai and Saleh (1980), the first element is called Training and instruction refers to the coach's style being directed towards improving athletic performance. These styles include organizing and coordinating activities, instruction athletes in the skills, tactics, and techniques. The second element is autocratic style of the coach refers to the authority and independent decision making. The third element is democratic style allows athletes to participate in important coaching decisions linked to group goals, strategies, tactics of the game, and practice methods. The fourth element is social support is related to the coach's concern for the welfare of athletes, creating interpersonal relationship with athletes, and a positive environment. Finally, positive feedback refers to the coach's style to promote athletes and recognize and reward excellent performance (Kim & Cruz, 2016).

Each item is preceded with a phrase, for instance "I prefer my coach...", "In coaching...", "My coach...", "The coach should..." (Preferred Leader Style, Actual Leader Style, or Required Leader Style, respectively). The response of the five levels of the LSS are Always, Often, Occasionally, Seldom, and Never, where "Always" is equivalent to 100% of the time, "Often" is equivalent to 75% of the time, "Occasionally" is equivalent to 50% of the time, and "Seldom" is equivalent to 25% of the time (Soyer, Sarı, & Talaghir, 2014).

Athlete Satisfaction Questionnaire

Assessing Athletes Satisfaction in sport field was usually used Athlete Satisfaction Questionnaire (ASQ), reported by Riemer and Chelladurai (1998). This scale regarded as easy one to understand and respond (Riemer & Chelladurai, 1998). Athlete Satisfaction Questionnaire (ASQ) reflected a more comprehensive domain of satisfaction aspects that represents the different sides of athletic experience (Riemer & Chelladurai, 1998).

Athlete satisfaction was measured using 14 items from four dimensions of the full version of the Athletes Satisfaction Questionnaire (ASQ) contains 56 items measuring 15 dimensions Riemer and Chelladurai (1998) that were anticipated as relevant to coaching leadership style based on previous research like Khalaj et al. (2011); and Riemer and Toon (2001). They focused on their studies on Training and Instruction Satisfaction (3 items), Personal Treatment Satisfaction (5 items), Team Performance Satisfaction (3 items), and Individual Performance Satisfaction (3 items). The first two subscales focus on satisfaction with the processes of coaching style. While the latter two evaluate satisfaction with outcomes associated with the processes of leadership. These items were related to their studies and they could not apply all 15 aspects of athletes' satisfaction because the rest of the scale items are not related to their studies. From that, this study also focused on same four aspects of athletes' satisfaction that related tightly with the subject of the study.

The athletes' satisfaction questionnaire aspects are displayed on a 7-point Likert scale anchored. The 7-point Likert scale anchored is divided into 7 degrees. The degrees are as follows: 1('very dissatisfied'), 2 ('dissatisfied') 3 ('slightly dissatisfied'), 4 ('neutral'), 5 ('slightly satisfied'), 6 ('satisfied'), and 7 ('very satisfied'). Therefore, the highest scores reflect greater satisfaction (Onağ & Tepeci, 2014).

Reliability

An important factor for consideration is the reliability of the questions in the questionnaire. The more reliable are the questions, the more accurate are the results. Therefore, Cronbach's Alpha was used to determine the internal consisting estimates of the five dimensions of leadership, for the LSS. The Cronbach's Alpha is used in numerous studies; Brooks, Ziatz, Johnson, and Hollander (2000), Chelladurai and Carron (1981), Chelladurai, Imamura, Yamaguchi, Oinuma, and Miyauchi (1988), Chelladurai and Saleh (1980), Dwyer and Fischer (1988), Sherman, Fuller, and Speed (2000) to determine the reliability of the LSS. Dwyer and Fischer (1988) recommended the satisfactory value for measuring reliability using Cronbach's Alpha to be at least 0.70. In the present study, the Cronbach's alpha values for the five subscales of LSS in Iraq were acceptable at 0.983 (training and instruction), 0.98 (autocratic style), 0.982 (democratic style), 0.94 (social support) and 0.956 (positive feedback). The Cronbach's alpha values for the five subscales of LSS in Malaysia were acceptable at 0.985 (training and instruction), 0.983 (autocratic style), 0.987 (democratic style), 0.967 (social support) and 0.952 (positive feedback). Therefore, the coefficients that approximates one indicates that the questions in the questionnaire are more reliable.

Data analysis

Various software programs are applicable to the abovementioned study field, but researchers have to choose the appropriate software. In general, one has to consider the background of the model, the distributional characteristics of the data, the psychometric properties of the variables and the magnitude of the aforementioned parameters' relationships given a specific sample size (Low, Ong, & Tan, 2017). The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software is widely used for statistical analysis, especially in education and research. Here, the data were analyzed using SPSS ver. 22. The descriptive analysis of data was analyzed using means and standard deviations for the leadership styles of coaches. The Pearson's correlation will be used to correlate the data, which links the coaches' leadership styles subscales. While, the MANOVA was used to examine the differences of leadership styles among the level of athletes' satisfaction. The level of significance was set to $p < 0.05$.

Results

The description analysis for information elements are shown in table 1, each styles of coaches' leadership in terms of training and instruction, autocratic style, democratic style, social support and positive feedback. While, Pearson Correlation Test was used to examine the relationship between leadership styles of coaches.

Table 1 tabulates the results of the leadership style of Iraqi and Malaysian football coaches. The highest mean score, standard deviations and Pearson Correlation of each style is an indication made by athletes of behavior of the coaches during the training process.

Table (1) Pearson Correlation and Mean and SD for leadership style subscales in Iraq and Malaysia.

Leadership style	Countries	1	2	3	4	5
1 Training and instruction	Iraq		0.329*	0.680*	0.792*	0.689*
	Malaysia		0.158	0.667*	0.843*	0.826*
2 Autocratic style	Iraq			0.467*	0.395*	0.319*
	Malaysia			0.331*	0.226*	0.074
3 Democratic style	Iraq				0.701*	0.632*
	Malaysia				0.715*	0.583*
4 Social support	Iraq					0.729*
	Malaysia					0.766*
5 Positive feedback	Iraq					
	Malaysia					
M	Iraq	3.488	2.782	3.191	3.422	3.322
	Malaysia	3.576	2.586	3.286	3.371	3.460
SD	Iraq	1.022	0.985	0.878	1.064	0.993
	Malaysia	0.898	1.116	0.852	0.934	0.964

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level.

Pearson correlation analyses were conducted to determine the degree of association between Iraqi coaches' styles subscales from LSS. The results (table 1) indicated low, moderate and strong positively correlated between the five subscales. However, the relations between all subscales were statistically significant coefficients (significant r-values range from 0.319* to 0.792*). Thus, supporting the notion that the LSS subscales provide relatively distinct dimensions of coaching style. The one coefficient that suggests a higher correlation is the one obtained for the relationship between two LSS subscales training and instruction style and social support style (r = 0.792*).

The results of the descriptive statistical analysis showed the leadership style of Iraqi football coaches adopt the training and instruction style, due to its score of (M = 3.488, SD = 1.022), followed by social support style with (M = 3.422, SD = 1.064), and the positive feedback (M = 3.322, SD = 0.993), the democratic style (M = 3.191, SD = 0.878), and the autocratic style (M = 2.782, SD = 0.985).

Pearson correlation analyses were conducted to determine the degree of association between Malaysian coaches' styles subscales from LSS. The results (table 1) indicated low, moderate and strong positively correlated between the five subscales. Meanwhile, the results showed negative relations between some subscales were statistically significant coefficients (significant r-values range from 0.226* to 0.843*). The one coefficient that suggests a higher correlation is the one obtained for the relationship between two LSS subscales training and instruction style and social support style (r = 0.843*).

The results of the descriptive statistical analysis showed the leadership style of Iraqi football coaches adopt the training and instruction style, due to its score of (M = 3.576, SD = 0.898), followed by positive feedback (M = 3.460, SD = 0.964), and the social support style with (M = 3.371, SD = 0.934), the democratic style (M = 3.286, SD = 0.852), and the autocratic style (M = 2.586, SD = 1.116).

The total score of course athletes' satisfaction components were divided into three categories namely high, moderate and low to reflect the levels of satisfaction with leadership styles subscales (T&I, AS, DS, SS, and PF). For instance, if an athlete ticked 1 or 2 as his respond, the level of his respond will be classified as low level. Whereas, if an athlete gave the answer of strongly satisfied and very satisfied, his response is categorized in the high level of satisfaction. The categorization of the score was adopted from Venkatesh et al. (2003). This process is explained in the Table below:

Table (2) Criteria for Mean Score Level

Mean class interval	Level of agreement
<1.67	Low
1.67-3.33	Moderate
> 3.33	High

The scores were interpreted according to three levels which are, high, moderate, and low. A high level was interpreted as the coaching style was most important in influencing the satisfaction of athletes. A moderate level was interpreted as the coaching style was fairly important in influencing the satisfaction of athletes. Finally, a low level was interpreted as the coaching style was less important in influencing the satisfaction of athletes.

Table (3) Mean and SD for leadership style subscales among different level of athletes' satisfaction

Leadership style	Country	Low satisfied		Moderate satisfied		High satisfied	
		M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Training & instruction	**Iraq**	2.371	0.422	3.500	0.977	4.532	0.419
	Malaysia	2.288	0.426	3.676	0.813	4.237	0.463
Autocratic style	**Iraq**	2.566	0.370	2.652	1.012	3.816	0.535
	Malaysia	2.571	0.365	2.423	1.145	3.633	0.868
Democratic style	**Iraq**	2.527	0.246	3.112	0.833	4.351	0.395
	Malaysia	2.530	0.239	3.292	0.849	4.009	0.600
Social support	**Iraq**	2.135	0.504	3.455	0.993	4.500	0.373
	Malaysia	2.130	0.514	3.480	0.829	3.916	0.917
Positive feedback	**Iraq**	2.133	0.605	3.331	0.886	4.450	0.468
	Malaysia	2.129	0.615	3.576	0.862	4.050	0.729

* Statistically significant at the 0.05 level

To evaluate the differences of leadership style subscales among different levels of athletes' satisfaction (low, moderate and high), data were analyzed based on MANOVA since all subscales of leadership style showed a significant relationship. Prior to data analysis, all variables were subjected to normality test and the results showed that all leadership style subscales were distributed normally.

Table shows the analyzed results of the leadership style of coaches in terms of training and instruction, autocratic style, democratic style, social support and positive feedback among different levels of athletes' satisfaction.

Table (4) Summary of MANOVA of the leadership style subscales among different level of athletes' satisfaction.

Leadership styles	Country	MS	F	p value	η2
Training and instruction	**Iraq**	14.021	18.017	0.001	0.271
	Malaysia	12.950	23.243	0.001	0.324
Autocratic style	**Iraq**	7.337	8.734	0.001	0.153
	Malaysia	7.585	6.794	0.002	0.123
Democratic style	**Iraq**	10.958	19.493	0.001	0.287
	Malaysia	6.590	10.884	0.001	0.183
Social support	**Iraq**	16.947	20.981	0.001	0.302
	Malaysia	11.400	17.356	0.001	0.264
Positive feedback	**Iraq**	16.115	23.887	0.001	0.330
	Malaysia	13.163	19.430	0.001	0.286

* Statistically significant at the 0.05 level

The results of MANOVA showed that the differences of leadership style subscales of Iraqi football coaches among different levels of athletes' satisfaction was statistically significant *(Wilks Lambda = 0.537, F = 6.784, p < 0.001)*.

Table shows the results of Mean square, F, p value, and eta square for all the variables of Iraqi football coaches, where the most effective variable among the five subscales was positive feedback *(MS = 16.115, F = 23.887, p < 0.001, Eta^2 = 0.330)*, followed by social support *(MS = 16.947, F = 20.981, p < 0.001, Eta^2 = 0.302)*, democratic style *(MS = 10.958, F = 19.493, p < 0.001, Eta^2 = 0.287)*, training and instruction *(MS = 14.021, F = 18.017, p < 0.001, Eta^2 = 0.271)*, and lastly, the autocratic style *(MS = 7.337, F = 8.734, p < 0.001, Eta^2 = 0.153)*. However, there were significant differences of leadership style of Iraqi coaches among different level of athletes' satisfaction.

The results of MANOVA showed that the differences of leadership style subscales of Malaysian football coaches among different levels of athletes' satisfaction was statistically significant *(Wilks Lambda = 0.566, F = 6.127, p < 0.001)*.

Table shows the results of Mean square, F, p value, and eta square for all the variables of Malaysian football coaches, where the most effective variable among the five subscales was training and instruction *(MS = 12.950, F = 23.243, p < 0.001, Eta^2 = 0.324)*, followed by positive feedback *(MS = 13.163, F = 19.430, p < 0.001, Eta^2 = 0.286)*, social support *(MS = 11.400, F = 17.356, p < 0.001, Eta^2 = 0.264)*, democratic style *(MS = 6.590, F = 10.884, p < 0.001, Eta^2 = 0.183)*, and lastly, the autocratic style *(MS = 7.585, F = 6.794, p < 0.002, Eta^2 = 0.123)*. However, there were significant differences of leadership style of Malaysian coaches among different level of athletes' satisfaction.

Conclusion

Relevant researches in social, educational or sport psychology literature have been conducted in order to identify factors that satisfy athletes (Sarı, Soyer, & Gülle, 2014). Leadership styles of sport coaches shape the environment in which athletes carry out their responsibilities, therefore, it could be said that leadership styles could affect athletes (Sarı & Bayazıt, 2017). Researchers tried to identify the social psychological factors that could affect athletes' satisfaction (Soyer et al., 2014; Wu, Lai, & Chan, 2014). For example, coaching behavior is as one of the social factors and it could lead to a change in the satisfaction of the athletes (Ryan, 1982). Coaches have great influence on their teams, and the coach's leadership styles and behaviors have a great effect on the performance of their athletes (Kim & Cruz, 2016).

When the two sets of variables-preferred leadership and satisfactions-are viewed independent of each other, there are significant between the two groups of athletes. For instance, the Iraqi and Malaysian athletes preferred more of a training and instruction, meanwhile, the democratic and autocratic styles took the last stage among the five leadership styles of coaches. there are significant differences between the two groups of athletes. the Iraqi athletes preferred more of a social support and positive feedback leadership than did the Malaysian athletes, who preferred more of feedback leadership and social support.

The results of this study support the previous literature concerning the coaches' leadership styles. The finding of present study showed the preferred leadership styles of coaches were similar findings have been reported in other studies that looked at actual leadership style and studiers that presented the preferred leadership styles of coaches according to the satisfaction of athletes (Chia et al., 2015). While the finding of the study is not conformed to the findings of Horn et al. (2011). By looking to the players' choices in this study, the results indicated that the coaches of universities football teams tend to use their skills to develop athletes' and team performance and create a positive atmosphere inside the team by establishing sincere relationships. When the preferred leadership style close to the athletes, satisfaction can rise higher.

There is a growing need for knowledge on human relations in sports. The most recent, intense examinations of the athlete–coach in its sole focus reinvigorated the field of interpersonal relationships in sports. A deeper understanding of the foundations and contexts of human relationships and a clearer appreciation of methodological, conceptual, and ethical issues are necessary to advance an interpersonal theory of the athlete–coach. Coaches are considering one of the important factors that facilitate athletes' quest for excellence. The nature of relationship that connect between coach and athletes in sport field make both of coach and athlete essential branches in sport process (Kim & Cruz, 2016).

This section covers the second research question which the differences of the leadership style subscales of Iraqi and Malaysian coaches among different level of athletes' satisfaction is (low, moderate, and high). In this research, it was found that satisfaction of the athletes significantly and positively correlated with training and instruction style, autocratic style, democratic style, social support style and positive feedback style. This result shows that satisfaction levels of athletes increase while these coaching styles are suitable. Furthermore, in line with the aim of the research,

we tried to discover which coaching styles contribute to an athlete's satisfaction. The finding that the Iraqi athletes preferred positive feedback and socially supportive leadership, On the other hand, the Malaysian athletes' significantly greater preferences for a preferred leadership emphasizing training and instruction and providing positive feedback. Beta values in the MANOVA model showed that positive feedback and training and instruction styles positively affects athletes' satisfaction whereas autocratic style negatively affects it.

As can be seen in results, the evaluated found that Iraqi athletes prefer positive feedback style. Positive feedback indicates coach style that reinforces an athlete by recognizing and rewarding progress and performance. Ericsson, Krampe, and Tesch-Römer (1993) argued that deliberate practice is not intrinsically satisfying and can be both mentally and physically boring and tiring. Previous studies had shown that giving positive feedback in a constructive manner enhances athletes' ability and promotes their self-efficacy, which in turn results in several positive outcomes (e.g. increased effort, persistence, reduced stress and anxiety, higher goals), or factors that positively influence athletes' satisfaction (Moen, Høigaard, & Peters, 2014). According to Din, Rashid, and Noh (2016), positive feedback that reinforces an athlete's satisfaction is the most predictive factor for predicting a high level of athletic achievement.

In this research, the training and instruction style of coaches among Malaysian athletes was highly statistically significant. The LSS subscale for Training and Instruction is related to developing sport-specific skills that aimed directly to improve athletic performance. Therefore, Training and Instruction style had significant contributors on athletes' performance and their subsequent satisfaction with their own performance progress. Previous researchers had found that the LSS subscale Training and Instruction is the most preferred coach leadership style among athletes (Chiu, Rodriguez, & Won, 2016; Din et al., 2016). According to (Andrew, 2009; Chelladurai, 1984) studies, they had also indicated that congruence between preferred and actual leadership style on the subscale training and instruction influence athlete satisfaction.

previous studies argued that authoritarian leadership style makes coach the only one who responsible to make-decisions, put training plans and impose his authority without taking into account the opinions and ideas of the players (Din et al., 2016). It is interesting to note that both the Iraqi and Malaysian athletes were similar in not prefer autocratic leadership style. This is similar to Khalaj et al. (2011) in their study support the results of this study and they found that the athletes do not prefer the autocratic leadership style. While other studies presented by Moen et al. (2014) and Ignacio III, Montecalbo-Ignacio, and Cardenas (2017) showed the athletes preferred the autocratic style and these studies were mismatched to the results of this study.

In general, these patterns of preferences indicate to divergent emphases on positive feedback and supportive leadership by Iraqis, and on training and instruction and feedback leadership by Malaysian. However, there is no indication how these paradoxical styles of leadership affect team performance in a multinational context. In the North American context, coaches' supportive behavior has been reported to be

negatively associated with team performance (Weiss & Friedrichs, 1986). As for the Iraqis, it has been suggested that the positive feedback leadership is in line with the traditional Iraqi focus on coherent and harmonious groups. Although this study did not use any performance measures per se, an attempt was made to measure satisfaction. It is important that future research efforts be directed towards linking leadership styles to objective and / or subjective measures of performance of the two countries' teams.

In summary, this study concerned with comparing Iraqi and Malaysian soccer players in terms of their preferred leadership style and their satisfaction. While the results of several analyzes were supportive of the culture effect (difference) hypothesis, some of the findings indicate support for the athletic-imperatives (convergence) hypothesis. Future iterations of this study or similar studies should provide additional insights in this regard.

Reference

- Andrew, D. P. (2009). The impact of leadership behavior on satisfaction of college tennis players: A test of the leadership behavior congruency hypothesis of the multidimensional model of leadership. *Journal of Sport Behavior, 32*(3), 261.
- Aoyagi, M. W., Cox, R. H., & McGuire, R. T. (2008). Organizational citizenship behavior in sport: Relationships with leadership, team cohesion, and athlete satisfaction. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology, 20*(1), 25-41.
- Brooks, D. D., Ziatz, D., Johnson, B., & Hollander, D. (2000). Leadership Behavior and Job Responsibilities of NCAA Division 1A Strength and Conditioning Coaches. *The Journal of Strength & Conditioning Research, 14*(4), 483-492.
- Burns, G. N., Jasinski, D., Dunn, S. C., & Fletcher, D. (2012). Athlete identity and athlete satisfaction: The nonconformity of exclusivity. *Personality and Individual Differences, 52*(3), 280-284. doi:10.1016/j.paid.2011.10.020
- Chelladurai, P. (1984). Discrepancy between preferences and perceptions of leadership behavior and satisfaction of athletes in varying sports. *Journal of Sport Psychology, 6*(1), 27-41.
- Chelladurai, P. (2007). Leadership in sports. *Handbook of Sport Psychology, Third Edition*, 111-135.
- Chelladurai, P. (2012). Leadership and manifestations of Sport. In S. Murphy (Ed.), *The Oxford handbook of sport and performance psychology* (pp. 328-341). New York: Oxford University Press.
- Chelladurai, P., & Carron, A. (1981). Applicability to youth sports of the Leadership Scale for Sports. *Perceptual and Motor Skills*.
- Chelladurai, P., & Carron, A. (1983). Athletic maturity and preferred leadership. *Journal of Sport Psychology, 5*(4), 371-380.
- Chelladurai, P., Imamura, H., Yamaguchi, Y., Oinuma, Y., & Miyauchi, T. (1988). Sport leadership in a cross-national setting: The case of Japanese and Canadian university athletes. *Journal of Sport & Exercise Psychology, 10*(4), 374-389.

- Chelladurai, P., & Saleh, S. (1980). Dimensions of leader behavior in sports: Development of a leadership scale. *Journal of Sport Psychology, 2*(1), 34-45.
- Chia, J. S., Pyun, D. Y., & Kwon, H. H. (2015). The impact of congruence between perceived and preferred leadership on satisfaction among college student-athletes in Singapore. *Asia Pacific Journal of Education, 35*(4), 498-513.
- Chiu, W., Rodriguez, F. M., & Won, D. (2016). Revisiting the Leadership Scale for Sport Examining Factor Structure Through Exploratory Structural Equation Modeling. *Psychological reports, 119*(2), 435-449.
- Din, A., Rashid, S. A., & Noh, S. A. M. (2016). The Relationship and Influence of Coaching Leadership Style in Training Program towards Student Athletes' Satisfaction. *SIPATAHOENAN, 1*(1).
- Dwyer, J. J., & Fischer, D. G. (1988). Psychometric properties of the coach's version of Leadership Scale for Sports. *Perceptual and Motor Skills, 67*(3), 795-798.
- Ericsson, K. A., Krampe, R. T., & Tesch-Römer, C. (1993). The role of deliberate practice in the acquisition of expert performance. *Psychological review, 100*(3), 363.
- Fiedler, F. (2015). Contingency theory of leadership. In J. B. Miner (Ed.), *Organizational behavior 1. Essential theories of motivation and leadership* (1 edition ed., pp. 232 - 255 Pages). New York, USA: Routledge.
- Glendon, A. I., Clarke, S., & McKenna, E. (2016). *Human safety and risk management* (2nd Edition ed.): CRC Press.
- Horn, T. S., Bloom, P., Berglund, K. M., & Packard, S. (2011). Relationship between collegiate athletes' psychological characteristics and their preferences for different types of coaching behavior. *The Sport Psychologist, 25*(2), 190-211.
- House, R. J., Dorfman, P. W., Javidan, M., Hanges, P. J., & de Luque, M. F. S. (2013). *Strategic leadership across cultures: GLOBE study of CEO leadership behavior and effectiveness in 24 countries*: Sage Publications.
- Ignacio III, R. A., Montecalbo-Ignacio, R. C., & Cardenas, R. C. (2017). The Relationship between Perceived Coach Leadership Behaviors and Athletes Satisfaction. *International Journal of Sports Science, 7*(5), 196-202.
- Islam, T., Aamir, M., Ahmed, I., & Muhammad, S. K. (2012). The Impact of Transformational and Transactional Leadership Styles on the Motivation and Academic Performance of Students at University Level. *Journal of Educational and Social Research, 2*(2), 237-240.
- Jowett, S., & Cockerill, I. (2002). Incompatibility in the coach–athlete relationship. *Solutions in sport psychology*, 16-31.
- Jowett, S., & Ntoumanis, N. (2004). The coach–athlete relationship questionnaire (CART-Q): Development and initial validation. *Scandinavian Journal of Medicine & Science in Sports, 14*(4), 245-257.
- Kao, S.-F., Chen, Y.-F., Watson, J. C., & Halbrook, M. (2015). Relationships between the Congruence of Required and Perceived Leadership Behavior and Satisfaction in Athletes. *Psychological reports, 117*(2), 391-405.

- Khalaj, G., Khabiri, M., & Sajjadi, N. (2011). The relationship between coaches leadership styles & player satisfaction in women skate championship. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences, 15*, 3596-3601. doi:10.1016/j.sbspro.2011.04.341
- Kim, H.-D., & Cruz, A. B. (2016). The influence of coaches' leadership styles on athletes' satisfaction and team cohesion: A meta-analytic approach. *International journal of sports science & coaching, 11*(6), 900-909.
- Lafrenière, M.-A. K., Jowett, S., Vallerand, R. J., & Carbonneau, N. (2011). Passion for coaching and the quality of the coach–athlete relationship: The mediating role of coaching behaviors. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise, 12*(2), 144-152.
- Loughead, T. M., & Hardy, J. (2005). An examination of coach and peer leader behaviors in sport. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise, 6*(3), 303-312.
- Low, M. P., Ong, S. F., & Tan, P. M. (2017). Would Internal Corporate Social Responsibility Make a Difference in Professional Service Industry Employees' Turnover Intention? A Two-Stage Approach Using PLS-SEM. *Global Business and Management Research, 9*(1), 24.
- Moen, F., Høigaard, R., & Peters, D. M. (2014). Performance progress and leadership behavior. *International Journal of Coaching Science, 8*(1), 69-81.
- Naidoo, P., Coopoo, P., & Surujlal, J. (2015). Perceived leadership styles of sport administrators and the relationship with organizational effectiveness. *African Journal for Physical, Health Education, Recreation*, 167-181.
- Nazarudin, M., Fauzee, M. S. O., Jamalis, M., Geok, S. K., & Din, A. (2009). Coaching leadership styles and athlete satisfaction among Malaysian University Basketball team. *Research journal of international studies, 9*(1), 4-11.
- Onağ, Z., & Tepeci, M. (2014). Team Effectiveness in Sport Teams: The Effects of Team Cohesion, Intra Team Communication and Team Norms on Team Member Satisfaction and Intent to Remain. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences, 150*, 420-428. doi:10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.09.042
- Riemer, H. A., & Chelladurai, P. (1998). Development of the athlete satisfaction questionnaire (ASQ). *Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology, 20*, 127-156.
- Riemer, H. A., & Harenberg, S. (2014). Leadership in a team sport context: Implications for coaches. In A. Rui Gomes, Rui Resende, & A. Albuquerque (Eds.), *Positive human functioning from a multidimensional perspective* (Vol. 3, pp. 133-156). New York, United States: Nova Science Publishers, Inc.
- Riemer, H. A., & Toon, K. (2001). Leadership and satisfaction in tennis: Examination of congruence, gender, and ability. *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport, 72*(3), 243-256.
- Sarı, İ., & Bayazıt, B. (2017). The relationship between perceived coaching behaviours, motivation and self-efficacy in wrestlers. *Journal of human kinetics, 57*(1), 239-251.
- Sarı, İ., Soyer, F., & Gülle, M. (2014). The role of perceived leadership behaviors as predictor of assertiveness levels in individual sport athletes. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences, 152*, 446-450.

- Saybani, H., Yusof, A., Soon, C., Hassan, A., & Zardoshtian, S. (2013). Athletes' Satisfaction as Mediator of Transformational Leadership Behaviors of Coaches and Football Players' Sport Commitment Relationship. *World Applied Sciences Journal, 21*(10), 1475-1483.
- Sekaran, U., & Bougie, R. (2016). *Research methods for business: A skill building approach* (7th Edition ed.). Chichester, West Sussex, United Kingdom: John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.
- Sherman, C., Fuller, R., & Speed, H. (2000). Gender comparisons of preferred coaching behaviors in Australian sports. *Journal of Sport Behavior, 23*(4), 389.
- Smith, P. C., Kendall, L., & Hulin, C. (1969). The measurement of satisfaction in work and behavior. *Chicago: Raud McNally*.
- Solomon, G. B. (2016). Improving Performance by Means of Action–Cognition Coupling in Athletes and Coaches. In *Performance Psychology* (pp. 87-101): Elsevier.
- Soyer, F., Sarı, İ., & Talaghir, L.-G. (2014). The relationship between perceived coaching behaviour and achievement motivation: a research in football players. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences, 152*, 421-425.
- Stein, J., Bloom, G. A., & Sabiston, C. M. (2012). Influence of perceived and preferred coach feedback on youth athletes' perceptions of team motivational climate. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise, 13*(4), 484-490.
- Sullivan, P., Paquette, K. J., Holt, N. L., & Bloom, G. A. (2012). The relation of coaching context and coach education to coaching efficacy and perceived leadership behaviors in youth sport. *The Sport Psychologist, 26*(1), 122-134.
- Sullivan, P. J., & Kent, A. (2003). Coaching efficacy as a predictor of leadership style in intercollegiate athletics. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology, 15*(1), 1-11.
- Weiss, M. R., & Friedrichs, W. D. (1986). The influence of leader behaviors, coach attributes, and institutional variables on performance and satisfaction of collegiate basketball teams. *Journal of Sport Psychology, 8*(4), 332-346.
- Wu, A. M., Lai, M. H., & Chan, I. T. (2014). Coaching behaviors, satisfaction of needs, and intrinsic motivation among Chinese university athletes. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology, 26*(3), 334-348.
- Yukl, G. A. (2013). *Leadership in organizations* (8th Edition ed.): Prentice Hall.