AN ANALYSIS OF PERCEIVED LEADERSHIP STYLES AND LEVELS OF JOB SATISFACTION OF SPORT ADMINISTRATORS EMPLOYED AT TERTIARY INSTITUTIONS IN SOUTH AFRICA

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DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this dissertation, unless otherwise indicated in the text, is my own original work. This research has also not been submitted to any other institution for degree purposes.

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ABSTRACT

The leadership role of sport administrators in South Africa is of prime importance as the local sports industry in South Africa is worth in excess of R2 billion annually. The most important variable in explaining sport administrators' success becomes leadership style. Sport administrators' roles are vital to the sporting industry and therefore the degree of job satisfaction they experience is of prime importance.

The key objectives of the study were to determine the different styles of leadership available in sport administration departments, to identify factors affecting the progress and status of transformation in sport administration departments, to examine the factors affecting the progress of gender equity at tertiary institutions, to identify factors which influence job satisfaction or lack of it among sport administrators and coaches employed at tertiary institutions and to determine the organizational effectiveness of tertiary institution sport departments. The questionnaire was administered to 300 coaches who had to rate their sport administrators' leadership style and 140 sport administrators. A response rate of 78% (n=109) was obtained from sport administrators and 76% (n=227) were received from coaches. The data were analysed using the computer package SPSS.

From the research the following conclusions can be drawn with respect to job satisfaction and leadership among sport administrators and coaches. The overall majority of the tertiary institution sport administrators adopted a transformational style of leadership. There was a lack of transformation in the industry and gender equity in the industry. There were reasonable degrees of satisfaction in the profession, however certain variables were more pronounced than others.

The study proposed the following recommendations: Those sport administrators that are still practising a more transactional and laissez-faire approach to leadership should start adopting a more transformational approach to leadership. More females need to be placed in leadership positions at tertiary institution sport departments. With regard to transformation higher management at tertiary institutions should strive to create diversity by employing individuals from other race groups to ensure transformation at institutions of higher learning. This will also serve to rectify the imbalances of our past. Management at tertiary institutions should also strike a balance with regard to gender equity.

With regard to improving coaches and sport administrators' job satisfaction higher management needs to adopt a policy of open communication between staff employed at the tertiary institution sport departments and themselves.

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DEDICATION

To my daughter Yoshna Naidoo who has brought me immense joy, and my husband Rabin Naidoo for providing me with unbounded happiness always.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Preamble

Leadership has been defined as the process of influencing the activities of an organized group toward goal achievement. Placing this definition in the context of tertiary administration of sport, one can see its application to the sport administrator. This individual would influence the activities of the sport department towards the goals of athletic success and economic viability all within the unique atmosphere of academia (Dexter and Davis, 2002).

The leadership role of sports administrators in South Africa is of prime importance as the local sports industry in South Africa is worth in excess of R2 billion annually and the products they manage are of significant national interest, and their levels of development must be increased constantly to improve the sport industry (Kriek, 2002).

In recent decades sport has gained unprecedented prominence at both the national and international levels. The impact of sport on the educational, economic and political fields has been quite extensive. Along with this increased emphasis on sport has come greater scrutiny of sport delivery systems in South African educational institutions, various government agencies, sport governing bodies and clubs at the local level. Organizational effectiveness is the prime dependant variable in many organizational contexts (Chappelet, 2005).

Although there are many factors that affect organizational performance, the role of the leader is crucial. Nowhere is this seen more clearly than at tertiary institution sport departments, where organizational success is measured very accurately and where sport administrators are responsible for performance. Sport administrators just as leaders of other formal organizations, combine the power of their position with a particular leadership style to maximise organizational performance (Howell and Higgins, 2005).

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The importance of job satisfaction is emphasized by Robbins (2003): "Most individuals spend a large portion of their lives at work, so an understanding of factors involved in job satisfaction is relevant to improving the well being of a large number of individuals". Enhancing job satisfaction and security will result in a more effectively run tertiary institution sport department.

The issue of transformation in sport needs to be further examined. In recent times much controversy has surrounded our National teams with regard to selection policies (Quintal, 2005).

In the wake of the modern feminist movement that began in the 1960s, a number of women's roles expanded into areas traditionally occupied by men and the world of sport was no exception (Parks, 2003). After South Africa became a democracy in 1994, the new constitution called for a firm commitment to ensuring gender equity. The principle of gender equality was further enshrined in the Bill of Rights and in other key provisions through structures and policies. This research will attempt to establish the status of gender equality at tertiary institution sport administration departments.

1.2 The problem and its setting

By virtue of their formal role in sport organizations, sport administrators are responsible for empowering subordinates to establish and achieve goals. The extent of their leadership skills will largely dictate the outcome of their actions with subordinates (Herrera and Lim, 2003). One's leadership skills as a sport administrator are important in influencing people and outcomes in sport organizations. In fact the leadership role pervades all the managerial activities of the sport administrator.

According to Chelladurai (1999), the relevance of effective leadership is high for skill related, excellence related, sustenance related, and curative related service organizations in sport and physical activity. After nearly a century of research on leadership the question still remains as to what constitutes an effective leader, and there still exists a lot of controversy about concepts and methods of leadership research.

Furthermore, many questions are still unanswered about why and how leaders are able to influence followers and accomplish group goals. Many leadership theorists have found that ineffective leadership in any organization seems to be the major cause of diminishing the organization's productivity and the decline of sporting success (Irwin, 2002).

It seems that there is a tendency to focus at field level when thinking about performance and success in sport while neglecting aspects of management and leadership. The impact that off the field administrative and leadership difficulties have on players on the field is often understated (Kuhnert and Lewis, 2003). This study will therefore investigate leadership theories to produce knowledge which will assist our sport managers in their tasks to lead their sport organizations more effectively.

Sport and the administration of sport at tertiary level are undergoing a continual metamorphorphosis. No longer is it seen as recreation for the entertainment of fans. Nor can it be considered only big business, making large amounts of money for the sponsoring institutions. It has become a combination of the two, entertainment and business, all within the structure and mission of higher education (Dexter and Davis, 2002).

Out of necessity, this metamorphosis is also evident in those who manage these programs. The essence of this change has been captured in the following statement by King (2002), "The sport administrator of the coming decades will be asked to amalgamate the demands of the business with the constraints of politics, all within the unique parameters of academia. It is a far cry from what it was 20 years ago when many tertiary institutions ceded control of the department to the most powerful coach on campus".

As this change continues, leadership ability will continue to increase in importance as a determinant of success for the sport administrator. Previously leadership ability was assumed because of sporting success (Lim, 2001). However in modern day sport this assumption has proved unfounded. Today those in administrative positions are receiving

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much more training and formal education in the business of sport. Part of this education includes instruction in the nuances of leadership (Dexter and Davis, 2002).

In the United States of America the tertiary institution with its high visibility programs and emphasis on the business aspect of intercollegiate sport, is an inviting subject for research. Extensive research has been conducted in the field to assist sport administrators with leadership styles to secure sporting success (Herrera and Lim, 2003).

Sport administrators in South Africa face many of the same issues as their counterparts in America. These individuals need to be concerned about their leadership abilities, and levels of job satisfaction. It is hoped that this study will help fill the void in the current research at this level of tertiary institution sport administration in South Africa and provide sport professionals insight into how better to lead their organizations. In order for South Africa to compete in the sporting world success has to originate from within the organization. If an organization is run efficiently athletes will be more confident to perform at higher levels in the international arena (Kriek, 2002).

Herrera and Lim (2003) state that leadership is perhaps the most important skill the sport administrator should possess in achieving organizational effectiveness. Sport administrators, or athletic directors are perceived to be the causal agents for success or failure of the organization. Therefore the leadership they provide will determine the level of success of the organizations and impact directly on organizational effectiveness as well as levels of job satisfaction.

Sport administrators' roles are vitally important to the sport industry and therefore the degree of job satisfaction they experience is of prime importance. At tertiary institutions budgetary constraints limit the hiring of additional staff which places an extra work load on the existing staff (Armstrong, 2003). With these added demands placed on sport administrators it is necessary to study the effects of how sport administrators are coping with the added stress. Recently in South Africa the merging of higher education institutions took place. This has led to the amalgamation of departments. Even in a

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thriving economy, mergers and acquisitions cause change in business direction, and staff realignment could cause organizations to lay off employees (Leonard, 2002). Taking this into account as well as the recent mergers of tertiary institutions the findings related to the job satisfaction and job security component of this study are extremely important.

It is important that specific consideration be given to the practicalities, such as the diversity that faces tertiary institution sport departments and how they are going to cope with them. Diversity is defined as the mosaic of stakeholders who bring about a variety of backgrounds, styles, perspectives, values and beliefs as assets to the organization with which they interact (Mayikana, 2002). It is important that tertiary institutions take cognisance of diversity, when recruiting and selecting, since this is in keeping with local political realities that many progressive organizations all over the world follow to introduce multiculturalism.

Diversity in the workplace can be brought about by gender equity, disability considerations, and ethnic sensitivity (Mello, 2002). In tertiary institution sport departments there are both gender and ethnic imbalances. The gender imbalance has been brought about through the exploitation and oppression of women in society and the ethnic imbalance as a result of apartheid laws in South Africa. Sport administrators therefore face the challenge of bringing about transformation and gender equity (Surajlal, 2004).

1.3   Aim of the study
The study aims to investigate the perceived leadership styles and levels of job satisfaction of sport administrators employed at tertiary institutions in South Africa. The secondary aim is to audit the socio-political context of transformation and gender equity profiles at these tertiary institutions in South Africa.

1.4.   The need for the study
The success of professional sport stems from its sound administration. The findings of this study will assist sport administrators to lead their organizations more effectively

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indirectly leading to better performances on the playing field for a country that takes pride in its sporting success. In addition a study of this nature has not been conducted in South Africa previously therefore the findings will be beneficial to the entire sporting industry.

1.5 Objectives of the study

The current study will concentrate on the following selected objectives for the research.

1.5.1 To determine the different styles of leadership available in sport administration at tertiary institutions and to determine the organizational effectiveness of these departments.

1.5.2 To identify factors which influence job satisfaction among sport administrators and coaches employed at tertiary institutions.

1.5.3 To identify factors affecting the progress and status of transformation in sport administration departments at tertiary institutions.

1.5.4 To examine the factors affecting the progress of gender equity at tertiary institution sport administration departments.

1.5 Research questions to be answered

There are many research questions that may be investigated, however this study will attempt to answer the following.

1.6.1 What are the different styles of leadership followed by sport administrators at the various tertiary institutions?

1.6.2 What is the status of transformation relating to this field of work?

1.6.3 What progress has been made with regard to race equity in the sport administration offices of tertiary institutions?

1.6.4 What is the status of job satisfaction and security among sport administrators and coaches employed at tertiary institutions?

1.6.4 What levels of organizational effectiveness do these tertiary organizations possess?

1.6.6 What levels of training do these sport administrators possess?

1.7 Limitations and assumptions of the study

It is possible that some sport administrators and coaches will not answer all questions as some questions may be sensitive to them. However every effort will be made to avoid this situation. All questionnaire studies are limited by the design and nature of this method of research. However, attempts have been made to achieve the most accurate results possible. It is assumed that all respondents will answer the questions truthfully and with honesty. Questionnaire studies by their very nature depend on memory, and some information may have been forgotten.

1.8 Definition of terms and abbreviations

In this section terms and abbreviations, as they are used in the study, are defined for clarity.

1.8.1 Definition of terms

1.8.1.1   Organizational effectiveness: A value based concept because the whole of the evaluation process requires the application of value judgements, from the selection of constituencies and the weighing of judgements to the development of recommendations for future organizational performance (Chelladurai, 1999). Organizational effectiveness is the prime dependant variable in many organizational contexts. All sport organizations exist to achieve a goal or a set of goals. There are various models of organizational effectiveness such as the goals model, the systems resource approach, the internal process approach and the multiple-constituency

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model. For a tertiary institution sports department the multiple - constituents model is a more current means of understanding organizational effectiveness. It takes into account that organizations consists of a number of constituents.

1.8.1.2   Leadership: A process that includes influencing the task objectives and strategies of a group or organization, influencing people in the organization to implement the strategies and achieve the objectives influencing group maintenance and identification, and influencing culture of organization (Watt, 2003). There are various types of leadership. The most popular leadership theory is The Full Range Leadership Development Theory developed by Bass and Avolio, 1994 which consists of transformational leadership, transactional leadership behaviours and laissez faire. For the theoretical framework of this study the Full Range Leadership Development Theory was used. The Full Range leadership theory has been tested in many contexts. Transactional leadership involves exchanging one thing for another. It meets the individual's basic extrinsic needs (Singler, 2004). Laissez faire leadership indicates an absence of leadership or the avoidance of involvement (Bass & Avolio, 1997). A transformational leader enhances the exchange process that occurs in the practice of transactional leadership (Tepper and Percy, 1994). What is needed for effective leadership in sport is a transformational leader. These leaders facilitate creative thinking and provide inspiration to their followers. Goals of sport administration departments will be effectively met if they are led by transformational leaders.

1.8.1.4   Organizational culture: Deep rooted beliefs, values and assumptions widely shared by organization members that powerfully shape the identity and behavioural norms for the group (Howell and Higgins, 2005).

1.8.1.5   Human resource management: A managerial function that manages an organization's inventory of employee skills, knowledge and productive skills which are available to society. Specifically, it involves the productive use of people in achieving the organization's objectives and satisfying employee needs (Robbins, 2003)

1.8.1.6   Sport organization: An association of individuals who are oriented towards achieving common goals (Parks, 2003).

1.8.1.7   Schisomogenesis: A process of self reinforcement where one's action or attribute in the organization perpetuates itself until it becomes extreme and therefore dysfunctional (Coff, 2005).

1.8.1.8   Job satisfaction: A pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting in the positive appraisal of one's job or job experience (Robbins, 2003). As a multidimensional and dynamic concept, job satisfaction represents an overall attitude as well as feelings about a particular aspects of an individuals job. When an individual does not derive satisfaction from their job a state of dissatisfaction results. Job dissatisfaction is a negative attitude that employees manifests towards their jobs arising from the recognition the job that fails to meet their personal and organizatioanl needs (Luthans, 2002). There are various variables that dertermine job satisfaction such as salary, supervision, the work itself, promotions, status and recognition, utilization, renumeration, working conditions and the work group. If these variables are favourable to the employee job satisfaction is enhanced.

1.8.1.9   Job security: A positive feeling that one has towards one's job with no thoughts or negative feelings associated with being dismissed (Nigro, 2002). The main concern that an individual has upon entering a new profession is job security. The recent mergers with tertiary

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institutions in South Africa had a profound effect on job security. This led to employees experiencing lower degrees of job satisfaction. Job tenure, job longevity and job seniority refer to the length of time a person has spent in the same job capacity (Robbins, 2003). If an individual is enjoying his job he or she will stay in it longer. They will derive a sense of job satisfaction.

1.8.1.10   Motivation: The direction and persistence of action. It is concerned with why people choose a particular course of action in preference to others, and why they continue with a chosen action in preference to others, and why they continue with a chosen action, often over a long period, and in the face of difficulties and problems (Robbins, 2003).

1.8.1.11   Contract: A legally binding agreement between parties (Merriman, 2004).

1.8.1.12   Resign: To give up one's job or profession, voluntarily (Coff, 2005).

1.8.1.13   Transformation: Is a conscious, deliberate, planned and goal directed process of fundamentally changing the conditions that in the past led to the deliberate exclusion of the majority of people from meaningful participation in sport (Gouws, 2001).

1.8.1.14   Sport: Any activity that requires a significant level of physical involvement and in which participants engage in either a structured or unstructured environment for the purpose of declaring a winner, though not solely or purely for relaxation, personal satisfaction, physical health, emotional growth and development (Irwin, 2002).

1.8.1.15   Recreation: A guided process of voluntary participation in any activity which contributes to the improvement of general health, well being and skills of both the individual and society (Chappelet, 2005).

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1.8.1.16   Trade union: Any registered group or association of employees that exists in whole or in part for the purpose of collective bargaining or dealing with employers concerning terms and conditions of employment (Bendix, 2001).

1.8.1.17   Sport management: The process of working with and through others to achieve organizational objectives in an efficient and ethical manner (Parkhouse, 2001).

1.8.1.18   Stress: A condition arising from the interaction of people and their jobs and characterized by changes within people that force them to deviate from their normal functioning (Luthans, 2002). It can also be a physical condition.

1.8.1.19   Diversity: The mosaic of stakeholders who bring a variety of backgrounds, styles, perspectives, values and beliefs as assets to the organization with which they interact (Mayikana, 2002).

1.8.1.20   Volunteer work: An exchange of one's time and effort for satisfactions and emotional rewards in that work (Lambrecht, 2004).

1.8.1.21   Leisure activities - Non-obligatory and non-work activities which individuals choose to do in their free time, excluding activities that meet biological needs such as eating and sleeping (Parks, 2003).

1.8.1.22   Ethics: A set of criteria by which decisions are made about what is right and what is wrong (Merriman, 2004).

1.8.2 Abbreviations

1.8.2.1   ANC- African National Congress

1.8.2.2   TNNP- The New National Party

1.8.2.3   SACOS- South African Council on Sport

1.8.2.4   SASA- South African Sports Association

1.8.2.5   SANCROC- South African Non Racial Olympic Committee

1.8.2.6   SANOC- South African National Olympic Committee

1.8.2.7   COSAS- Congress of South African Sport

1.8.2.8   NOCS- National Olympic Committee

1.8.2.9   NOCSA- National Olympic Committee of South Africa

1.8.2.10   NSC- National Sports Congress

1.8.2.11   SASC- South African Sports Commission

1.8.2.12   SASCOC- South African Sports Confederation and Olympic Committee

1.8.2.13   SASSU- South African Students Sport Union

1.9   Division of chapters

1.9.1   Chapter one: Introduction

Chapter one is an introduction to the study. It focuses on matters such as orientation to the study, the problem statement, the demarcation of the field of study, as well as the clarification of terminology.

1.9.2   Chapter Two: Review of related literature (Leadership)

Chapter two surveys the literature surrounding leadership, organizational effectiveness as well as organizational culture. It further examines the theoretical underpinnings of these concepts.

1.9.3   Chapter Three: Review of related literature (Job satisfaction, job security, gender equity and transformation in sport)

Chapter three surveys the literature surrounding job satisfaction, job security, gender equity, transformation in sport as well as ethics in coaching.

1.9.4   Chapter Four: Research methodology

Chapter four critically examines the research methods employed to conduct this research study. It briefly discusses the nature of the study, the survey method and the research instrument employed.

1.9.5   Chapter Five: Results and discussions

Chapter five provides the findings of the study and conducts an analysis based on these findings.

1.9.6   Chapter six: Conclusions and recommendations

Chapter six draws conclusions based on these findings and thereafter proposes recommendations.

CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2. LEADERSHIP

2.1 Introduction

The review of literature will be presented in the present chapter and chapter Three. In the present chapter literature on leadership will be reviewed and in Chapter Three literature on job satisfaction will be reviewed.

In this chapter relevant literature related to leadership, organizational effectiveness and organizational culture generally and specifically related to the sporting industry will be reviewed. The first section of the review will be related to leadership followed by organizational effectiveness studies and organizational culture.

2.2 Structure of tertiary institution sport departments

To be effective a sport administration department must be structured to respond to the context in which it operates (Parkhouse, 2001). Consequently, an understanding of the different elements of structure is one of the basic tenets of organization theory. The structure of a tertiary institution sport administration department is also important as it influences the flow of information and affects collaboration, models of coordination, allocations of power and responsibility, and levels of formality and complexity.

Although organizational theorists have identified many different dimensions of organizational structure the three most commonly found in sport literature are complexity, formalization and centralization (Lim and Cromartie, 2001). The three variables have also been shown to be theoretically and empirically applicable to the study of sport organizations.

2.3 Complexity

Complexity refers to the extent to which a tertiary institution's sport administration department is divided into different divisions, departments, groups, or individual roles,

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each with its own tasks and responsibilities. The differentiation may occur horizontally, vertically or spatially (Watt, 2003).

Horizontal differentiation occurs as a result of the different parts of the sport department becoming specialized in different activities. This specialization is carried out in an attempt to increase organization efficiency and can occur in two ways. First the total work to be performed in the organization may be divided into separate, discrete and narrow tasks. Second the employment of specialists to perform a range of organizational activities can result in diversely trained individuals bringing different approaches, goals and terminology to the sport department (Lim and Cromartie, 2001).

Vertical differentiation refers to the number of hierarchical levels in a sport organization. The more levels there are, the greater become the problems of communication, coordination and supervision, and hence the more complex becomes the sport department. In tertiary institution sport departments the hierarchical structure usually consists of the head of department or director of sports, sport administrator, facility managers and coaches. Vertical differentiation is often directly proportional to the size of the sport department, and to the degree of horizontal differentiation (Watt, 2003).

Spatial differentiation refers to the degree of geographical separation of the various divisions of the same sport department. Thus a tertiary institution sport department based on one site has a very low degree of spatial differentiation. On the other hand in South Africa with the recent merging of tertiary institution sport departments, and departments being located in different campuses, these departments can be considered highly spatially differentiated. This differentiation makes the tertiary institution sport department much more difficult to coordinate and much more complex than is the case with one institution operating from one campus (Amis and O'Brien, 2001).

The more horizontally, vertically and spatially differentiated a sport administration department is the more complex it becomes. Increased complexity results in sport

departments in which coordination, communication and management are more difficult and demanding (Chelladurai, 1999).

2.3.1 Managing complexity

Complexity is managed through the use of either formalization or centralization. Formalization refers to the extent to which rules, regulations, job descriptions, policies and procedures govern the operation of an organization. In a highly formalized organization, such as one that uses production-line techniques to manufacture sports equipment, employees will have little discretion over how and when they carry out their tasks (Schein, 2000). The head coach of a tertiary institution volleyball team will by contrast find his/her job far less formalized, with the freedom to set day to day activities. Likewise because of their need to operate quickly and in the best interest of the entire tertiary institution sport department, heads of departments are subject to less formalization than are lower level sport administrators (Parkhouse, 2001).

Centralization refers to the hierarchical level of the organization at which decisions are made. In centralized tertiary institution sport departments, decisions tend to be made by upper levels of management; in more decentralized sport departments similar decisions would be delegated to a lower hierarchical level (Parkhouse, 2001).

In addition to not possessing sufficient expertise in all areas of the operation of the sport administration department (e.g. research, budgeting, marketing and finance), if one person were to take responsibility for all decisions, it would take an intolerably long time to make even minor decisions (Lim and Cromartie, 2001). Consequently, decisions that are regarded as less crucial are delegated to lower levels, allowing senior management to concentrate on strategic decisions affecting the entire sport department. By delegating authority, the head of department can maintain control of the sport department while ensuring that it functions effectively. This approach will work effectively in tertiary institution sport departments in South Africa (Martin, 2004).

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2.4   What is leadership?

Leaders have shaped history and brought about war, peace, suffering, and freedom (Bennis and Goldsmith, 1994; Vecchio, 1997). Leaders are those people who are capable of turning their beliefs and visions into reality, through the power and influence they exercise over other people (Bennis and Goldsmith, 1994). In a sport administration department leaders do the same: they influence employees and exercise their power and authority in an attempt to inspire their followers from a management perspective to achieve the overall organizational vision (Senior, 1997).

By virtue of their formal role in sport organizations, sport administrators are responsible for empowering subordinates to establish goals, and for motivating members towards achieving these goals (Mangus, 2004). The extent of one's leadership skills will largely dictate the outcome of one's actions with subordinates, an outcome that includes behaviours such as (a) enthusiastic commitment, (b) indifferent compliance, (c) reluctant obedience, (d) full resistance.

In a tertiary institution sport department the role of leadership is imperative in enabling strategic planning to take place, thereby helping the sport department to become more streamlined and efficient, by defining the vision of the organization (Parks and Parra, 2003). The central theme of most conceptual analysis describes leadership as a process, an interaction, and a personality. Leadership is a process by which the head of a sport administration department exerts influence over his subordinates in an attempt to inspire, motivate, and direct the actions of these subordinates towards a specific organizational goal (Certo, 1994; George and Jones, 2000). One definition that covers the majority of aspects concerning leadership is identified as follows:

> "Leadership has been conceived as the focus of group processes, as a matter of personality, as a matter of inducing compliance, as the exercise of influence, as particular behaviours, as a form of persuasion, as a power relation, as an instrument to achieve goals, as an effect of interaction, as a

differentiated role, as an initiation of structure, and as many combinations of this definition" (Bass, 1995).

Placing this definition in the context of tertiary institution sport, one can see its application to the sport administrator. This individual would influence the activities of an organized group, the sports department, towards the goal of sporting success and economic viability all within the unique atmosphere of academia (Dexter and Davis, 2002). A sports leader must understand the importance of employees in achieving the ultimate goals of the sport administration department, and that motivating these employees is of paramount importance in achieving these goals.

The means of measuring leadership effectiveness in tertiary institutions sport departments are as varied as the definitions of leadership itself (Parks, 2003). Sport leaders are effective when the influence they exert over their subordinates works towards achieving the organization's goals (Parks and Parra, 2003).

There are many theories of leadership that have developed over time. A brief overview of these theories will now be presented.

2.5   Traditional leadership approaches

Studies of leadership have brought about three leadership approaches that have evolved, in an attempt to establish what it is that distinguishes a leader from his followers (Du Pree, 1989). Each theory has been developed over a certain period of time, by analysing particular aspects of people in positions of power (Mintzberg, 1973; Senior, 1997). By expanding on what it is that makes a leader successful, each theory has been developed in an attempt to improve upon the one that came before it. These theories attempted to identify various leadership styles. The general manner, in which leadership is practised, is known as a leadership style (Bass, 1995).

Each of these leadership styles describes different dimensions of leadership, and has its own effect on the relationship between the leader and his followers. The three theories

that have been developed over time are known as the Trait theories, Behavioural approaches, and Situational/Contingency approaches, each of which will now be discussed.

2.5.1 Trait theories

Many earlier studies attempted to identify certain traits of leaders, and were based on the assumption that particular social, physical, and personal traits are inherent in all leaders (Hellriegel, Jackson and Slocum, 1999). The trait approach attempts to explain the leader's effectiveness in terms of the personality and psychological traits of the leader (Lim and Cromartie, 2001).

Bass (1995) indicates that the factors affecting leadership in tertiary institution sport administrators, in the context of trait theories, can probably be classified under the following five headings:

- *Capacity* - intelligence, alertness, verbal facility, originality, and judgement.
- *Achievement* - scholarship, knowledge, and athletic accomplishment.
- *Responsibility* - dependability, initiative, persistence, aggressiveness, self confidence, and the desire to excel.
- *Participation* - activity, sociability, co-operation, adaptability, and humour.
- *Situation* - mental level, status, skills, needs and interest of followers, objectives to be achieved and so on.

Although this research presented a starting point for the study of leadership, it was found that in over a hundred studies, only five per cent of the traits listed were common in four or more of the studies (Bass, 1995). This approach to leadership also suggests that leaders are born and not made. Trait research has lead to the identification of some traits that are inherent in most leaders (Bass, 1995). These traits include emotional intelligence, having an extrovert personality (charisma), dominance, masculinity, conservatism, and being better adjusted than non-leaders (Senior, 1997).

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However, as Senior (1997) observes, this conceptual framework has been completely discredited, and the belief that certain traits are absolutely imperative for successful leadership, has not been adequately proven or substantiated by many decades of trait research. A pattern of behaviour that comes as a result of these traits, and the way in which a leader goes about motivating employees, in an attempt to inspire these employees to achieve the organization's overall vision, determines the style of leadership being practised (Vecchio, 1997). Leaders who possess charisma practise charismatic leadership and it can be argued that charismatic leadership is a leadership style that forms part of transformational leadership.

2.5.1.1   Charismatic Leadership

Charismatic leaders exude great self confidence, have a strong need for power and strong convictions in their beliefs and values (Vecchio, 1997)). Their followers have high levels of satisfaction and motivation over differing periods of productivity (Fiedler and House, 1998). According to Waldman (1999), a volatile environment can heighten the effect and influence of charismatic leadership. A high level of self confidence and a great conviction in his beliefs means that the charismatic /inspirational leader has a talent for inspiring his followers and instilling in them a passion for achieving the overall vision of the organisation (Bass, 1995).

The trait approach has at least four limitations. First, there are no universal traits that predict leadership in all situations. Second traits predict behaviour more in weak situations than in strong situations (Bass, 1995). A person is more vulnerable to show is weaker trait in crisis situations. Third, the evidence is unclear in separating cause from effect. Finally, traits do a better job at predicting the appearance of leadership than in actually distinguishing between effective and ineffective leaders (Senior, 1997).

These limitations have led researchers to look in other directions. Although there has been a resurgent interest in traits during the past 20 years, a major movement away from traits began as early as the 1940s. Leadership research from the 1940s through the 1960s

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emphasized the preferred behavioural styles that have been demonstrated by formulating new approaches to the study of behaviour.

2.5.2 Behavioural approaches to the study of leadership

The behavioural approach to leadership studies suggests that it is the behaviour of the leader, rather than the personal characteristics of the leader that affects followers (Shriberg et al., 1997). Extensive research has been conducted in this area. The two most prominent and significant studies are the Ohio State University and the University of Michigan studies which define leadership in terms of behaviour that is either employee-centred or production-centred (Senior, 1997). These two studies led to the definition of leadership in the context of being either task or people centred.

McGregor (1960) developed Theory X and Theory Y, and observed similar results in leadership behaviour. This model identifies two types of leadership behaviour. Theory X represents the leadership style whereby leaders tell subordinates what is expected of them, tell them how to perform their task, insist upon certain standards being met, and ensure that all employees know their place. Theory Y represents the leadership style whereby leaders consult with their followers, seek their opinions, and make sure that their followers are involved in the decision making process (Hellriegel et al., 1999).

Therefore, the central theme that has emerged from a number of behavioural approaches is a distinction between production-centred or people-centred leadership behaviour. However Wright (1996) maintains that, apart from the two main leadership styles identified by the behavioural approaches to leadership, namely concern for task and concern for people, two other main leadership styles can also be identified. The third leadership style is identified as directive leadership and refers to the extent to which the leader makes all of the decisions concerning group activities and expects followers to follow instructions. This style of leadership is also known as authoritarian or autocratic leadership.

The fourth style of leadership is participative leadership and is defined as the extent to which the leader shares the responsibility of decision making with his followers. This leadership style is also called democratic leadership (Wright, 1996). Another definition of leadership behaviour patterns was identified by Voros (2000). He identified both autocratic and democratic leadership. However they also identified a fifth leadership style known as laissez-faire leadership. This style of leadership is said to exist when leaders attempt to avoid influencing their subordinates, and reduce their supervisory duties (Bass, 1995).

A major limitation of the behavioural theory is that it has had limited success in identifying consistent relationships between leadership behaviour and group performance. It also excludes situational factors on the level of leader effectiveness. The question still remains as to whether one particular method of leading is appropriate - irrespective of the stage of development of the organization, the environment in which the organization functions, or the people who work for the organization - or if different leadership styles and behaviour are required to suit varying situations facing the organization (Senior, 1997).

2.5.3 Situational approaches to leadership

Situational theory examines the situation as the characteristic of leadership ability. Bass (1995) recognized that, although there may be traits associated with leadership, the traits necessary for leadership differed with the situation. According to Senior (1997) the situation played an important role in understanding leadership. This situation was defined by Fiedler and House (1998) as the aspects of the environment which affect the individual. Hoy and Miskel (2002) listed four aspects of the environment: structural properties of the organization, organizational climate, role characteristics, and subordinate characteristics that impacted on a leader's performance.

Hersey (1984) developed the Situational Leadership Model to help leaders adapt their behaviours to meet the demands of their particular situation. Hersey (1984) states that his model is based on the amount of direction (task behaviour) and the amount of socio-

emotional support (relationship behaviour) a leader must provide given the situation and the level of "readiness" of the follower or "group". Hersey (1984) related, further, that these styles could be classified into three distinct categories of directive and supportive behaviours that he identified as selling, participating and delegating.

Situational approaches to leadership have come about as a result of attempts to build upon and improve the trait theories and behavioural approaches to leadership theory. The combination of various elements identified by these approaches has lead to the recognition of various patterns of conduct and as a result, the identification of different leadership styles (Vecchio, 1997). Leadership styles can therefore be defined as the behaviour of an organization's leader as influenced by the situations surrounding that leader (Senior, 1997). Therefore, it is evident that the style of leadership practised by a leader is dependent on the type of situation that surrounds the leader, and the way in which the leader chooses to behave as a response to these circumstances.

Effective leadership is therefore a function of matching the behaviour of the leader - as a result of his priorities - to the situation facing the leader (Vecchio, 1997). This raises the question of what situations and circumstances facing South African sport leaders need to be addressed and analysed, in order to establish the style of leadership required for optimum leadership.

The situational leadership approach suggested that different situations demanded different kinds of leadership (Hersey, 1984). However, the contingency model attempted to "specify the conditions or situational variable" that moderate the relationship between leader traits or behaviour and performance criteria (Hoy and Miskel, 2002).

The first comprehensive contingency model for leadership was developed by Fiedler (1964). His contingency model proposes that effective group performance depends on the proper match between the leader's style and the degree to which the situation gives control to the leader (Robbins, 2003). Fiedler (1964) found that group effectiveness was a result of the leader's style and the organizational context or situation. He asserted that

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situations could be characterized by analysing three factors: (a) leader member relations, (b) task structure, and (c) position power. The leader-member relationship was, generally, the most important variable in determining leadership effectiveness.

Fiedler (1964) believes that based on the respondents' answers to this Least Preferred Co-Worker (LCP) Questionnaire, he can determine the basic leadership style. If the Least Preferred Co-worker is described in relatively positive terms (a high LPC score), then the respondent is primarily interested in good personal relationships with this co-worker. That is, if you essentially describe the person you are least able to work with in favourable terms, Fiedler would label you relationship-oriented. In contrast, if the least preferred co-worker is seen in relatively unfavourable terms (a low LPC score), the respondent is primarily interested in productivity and thus would be labelled task-oriented. About 16 percent of respondents scored in the middle range. Such individuals cannot be classified as either relationship-oriented or task oriented and thus fall outside the theory's predictions.

However there are problems with the LPC questionaire and the practical use of the model needs to be addressed. For instance, the logic underlying the LPC is not well understood by academics and studies have shown that respondents' LPC scores are not stable.

2.6 A contemporary leadership approach

The Full Range Leadership Theory was developed by Bass and Avolio (1994) and states that the most effective form of leadership is the combination of both transformational and transactional leadership. The Full Range Leadership Development Theory has its roots in the trait and behavioural approaches of leadership theory, and draws on these approaches in order to articulate leadership in terms of transactional and transformational leadership styles. After extensive research into transformational and transactional leadership behaviours, Bass and Avolio (1997) identified seven leadership factors.

The transformational factors that emerged were identified as charisma (or idealised influence), inspirational motivation, individualized consideration, and intellectual

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stimulation. The transactional factors that emerged were labelled as contingent reward and management by exception. Laissez-faire or hands - off leadership was identified as a nontransactional factor (Bass and Avolio, 1997). At this stage, it is important to note that Management-by-Exception has both active and passive dimensions. Dimensions are twofold.

When dominant or even single leadership orientation is used by a target leader, Management-by-Exception is ineffective, with such leaders neglecting the developmental needs of employees (Bass and Avolio, 1997). The outcome factors associated with effective leadership are also assessed by the Full Range Leadership Theory, namely, extra effort by associates, individual, group, and organizational effectiveness, and satisfaction with the leader.

A number of researchers (Singer, 1985; Singer and Singer, 1989; Bass and Avolio, 1994; Ristow, Amos and Staude, 1999; Kelloway, Barling and Helleur, 2002) have tested the Full Range Leadership Development Theory for different reasons and in different contexts. These studies provide empirical support for the Full Range Leadership Development Theory as a measure for transformational and transactional leadership in different organizational circumstances.

The Full Range Leadership Development Theory has been tested in South Africa (Ackermann et al, 2000 and Ristow et al, 1999). Ackermann et al. (2000) conducted research in order to determine whether the factor structure conceptualised by Bass was largely confirmed by Cronbach Alpha coefficients of 0.944, 0736, and 0.803 for transformational, transactional, and nontransactional leadership respectively (Ackermann et al, 2000). This shows that the Full range Leadership Development Yheory is an effective and reliable means of assessing leadership styles.

2.6.1 Transactional leadership

Transactional leadership was founded on the idea that leader-follower relations were based on negotiation, exchange and contractual dimensions (Bass, 1995). Transactional

leadership involves exchanging one thing for another. In this exchange both the leader and follower were concerned primarily, with having their individual interests served. Leaders and followers did not share common objectives in the organization. Therefore, Singler (2004) asserted that transactional exchanges met only the individual's basic extrinsic needs. Further, this reliance upon contractually agreed upon goals, reward or penalty for performance resulted in mediocrity (Drucker, 2000).

In assessing transactional leadership, the Full Range Leadership Development Theory identifies the following components (Bass and Avolio, 1994):

- *Contingent reward:*   This behaviour constitutes a good relationship between the employees and the leader, due to the fact that employees feel that their work efforts are being recognised by a higher authority, and rewards are offered for their extra effort (Vecchio, 1997).

- *Management by exception (Active and Passive):* Management by exception (active) exists when the leader monitors his subordinates in such a way to ensure mistakes are not made, and allows the status quo to exist without being addressed (Bass and Avolio, 1997).   Management by exception (passive) occurs when the leader becomes involved only once mistakes are made, and attempts to make the necessary corrections (Bass and Avolio, 1997).

- *Laissez-faire:* This behaviour indicates an absence of leadership, or the avoidance of involvement, or both (Bass and Avolio, 1997). Laissez-faire leadership occurs when a leader abdicates responsibity to others and does not want to take responsibility for mistakes that are made as a result of decision making.   Although identified by many authors as a type of transactional leadership behaviour, Bass and Avolio (1997) have identified this behaviour as nontransactional leadership as a result of the lack of leadership displayed by the type of person in charge.

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2.6.2 Transformational leadership

Transformational leaders in sport achieve a level of performance that surpasses expectations by instilling self pride, and communicating with followers in an attempt to promote a feeling of personal respect amongst the followers themselves, as well as between the follower and the leader, facilitating creative thinking, and providing inspiration (Tepper and Percy, 1994). Transformational leadership enhances the exchange process that occurs in the practice of transactional leadership. According to Bass and Avolio (1997) "transformational leaders do more with colleagues and followers than set up simple exchanges or agreements. They behave in ways to achieve superior results".

Charisma (idealized influence) was found to be the most general and important component of transformational leadership (Bass, 1995). Charismatic leaders are admired and respected. Bass and Avolio (1997) analysed charisma in a similar manner in their latest Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire 5X (MLQ5x). This instrument, also, represented charisma with two components that the authors described as idealized influence (behaviour) and idealized influence (attributed). Idealized influence (attributed) was the only nonbehavioral item included in this instrument (Bass and Avolio, 1997).

As measured on the MLQ5x, charismatic leaders instilled pride, promoted the good of the group, built respect, and displayed a sense of power and confidence. They talked about values and beliefs, specified the importance of having a sense of purpose, considered the moral and ethical consequences of decisions and emphasized the sense of mission (Bass and Avolio, 1997). Inspirational motivation involved communicating values and norms and promoting open, skilful communication. The Full Range Leadership Development Theory identifies the following four components of transformational leadership: individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation, and idealised influence, each of which will now be described.

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- *Individualised consideration:* Leaders concentrate on the individual needs and capabililities of their followers and attend to each requirement separately (Bass and Avolio, 1997). A sport leader, who understands each subordinate in their own right, will be better equipped to assign different responsibilities to different subordinates in an attempt to promote learning and growth in their respective fields of interest.

- *Intellectual stimulation:* Problems are looked at from new perspectives, and mistakes are not criticised. Intellectual stimulation encourages followers to think rationally and intellectually, and careful problem solving is practised (Senior, 1997).

- *Inspirational motivation:* Transformational sport leaders indulge in behaviour that motivates and inspires their followers by providing challenging tasks and opportunities, and delegating power.

- *Idealised influence:* This leadership behaviour results in transformational leaders becoming role models for their followers (Bass and Avolio, 1994). This level of follower admiration makes it easier for transformational leaders to inspire followers to take the lead, and use their own initiative inorder to lead themselves.

Some efforts have been made to study the relationship between leadership, particularly transformational leadership, and organizational effectiveness. But there is still controversy over whether transformational leadership has a positive impact on organizational effectiveness. Weese's (1996) article studying the relationships between transformational leadership, organizational culture, and organizational effectiveness in sport organizations in Canada revealed that there was no significant relationship between transformational leadership and organizational effectiveness.

In a study conducted in America by Lim and Cromartie (2001) they found that transformational leadership was not significantly related to organizational effectiveness in sport administration departments. They suggested that subordinates play an important role in the determination of an organizations' effectiveness. This will also be applicable

in the South African context as orgainizational effectiveness is determined by both leaders and followers.

Soucie (1994) states that leadership is perhaps the most important skill the sport administrator should possess. Tertiary institution sport administrators are perceived to be the causal agents for success or failure of the organization. Therefore the leadership they provide will determine the level of success of the sport department and impact the organizational culture, which includes among other things, the perception of the level of satisfaction of the subordinates.

Transformational leadership focuses on inspiring followers to set aside personal self-interest for the betterment of the organization. This is in contrast to transactional leadership, which essentially focuses on an effort-reward exchange between the follower and the leader. In sport in general, and at the tertiary administration level specifically, transformational leadership is essential for success. As budgets and human resources diminish and the need to do more with less increases, leadership that transforms or inspires individuals to act in the organization's best interest will be vital (Herrera and Lim, 2003).

The goal of transformational leadership is to transform people and organizations in a literal sense, to change them in heart and mind, enlarge their vision, clarify purposes, make behaviour congruent with beliefs, principles, or values, and bring about changes that are permanent, self perpetuating, and momentum building. It requires vision, initiative, patience, respect, persistence, courage and faith to be a transformational leader (Lim and Cromartie, 2001). Transformational leaders not only have the vision, but also the ability to get their employees to accept that vision as their own, thus developing the commitment to bring the vision into reality.

2.6.3 Laissez-faire leadership

Laissez-faire leadership is an extremely passive style of leadership in which the leader is inactive, avoiding decision-making and supervisory responsibilities. Furthermore, laissez-faire leadership indicated a complete abdication of leadership.

Laissez-faire leadership was not favoured as group members reported little sense of purpose. Laissez-faire leaders lacked confidence in their ability to supervise, left too much responsibility with followers, and failed to make decisions (Bass, 1990). Bass (1990) found that laissez-faire leadership correlated negatively with other more active leadership styles.

The instrument used in this study, the MLQ5x, measured laissez-faire leadership with four items. These included the following: avoids getting involved when important issues arise, is absent when needed, avoids making decisions, and delays responding to urgent questions.

2.6.4 Limitations of the Full Range Leadership Development Theory

In spite of empirical support for the Full Range Leadership Development Theory (Ackermann et al, 2000; Bass and Avolio, 1994; Kelloway et al, 2000; Ristow et al, 1999; Singer, 1985; and Singer and Singer, 1989; Yammarino and Atwater, 2003) this theory does have some limitations.

Tepper and Percy (1994) conducted two studies into the latent structure of items taken from the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, and make the following statement: "... It is difficult to base behaviour constructs on questionnaire research when our knowledge of transformational behaviour is still so primitive that we cannot identify good examples to use items in a questionnaire" (Tepper and Percy, 1994).

Tepper and Percy (1994) go on to state that these deficiencies and other limitations of behaviour questionnaires, make it doubtful that research through questionnaires will provide much insight into the nature and identification of transformational leadership in

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the future. Although the knowledge of transformational behaviour might be limited, it is still necessary for sport organizations to assess, as far as possible, the leadership style being practised, in an attempt to ensure that it suits the requirements of the sport organization. The Full Range Leadership Development Theory has been tested extensively and according to these studies, does provide adequate and reliable results for leadership research.

Another limitation of the Full Range Leadership Development Theory is the fact that it focuses its attention on the trait and behavioural approaches of leadership (Bass and Avolio, 1994), and pays little attention to the situational aspects influencing the leadership style being practised. According to Flanagan and Thompson's model of managerial leadership, the most effective managerial leadership style must diagnose the organizational situation in order to understand which leadership response is appropriate (Yammarino and Atwater, 2003).

Despite its limitations the Full Range Leadership Development Theory does provide a theoretical framework, as well as an instrument for leadership, that is valid and reliable and has been used for the purpose of this study (Bass and Avolio, 1994). The following section will discuss leadership styles in perspective.

2.7 Leadership styles in perspective

Leadership researchers have summarized the behaviours and approaches of great leaders that they drew from the more modern theories and research findings as follows. (Parks, 2003).

Table 2.1   Leadership behaviours that are essential for sport leaders
(Parks, 2003:21)

Quality or characteristics	Components
1) Vision	Great leaders articulate an ideological vision that is congruent with the deeply held values of followers.
2) Passion and self sacrifice	Great leaders display a passion for the moral correctness of their vision.
3) Confidence, determination and persistence	Great leaders display a high degree of faith in themselves and in the attainment of the vision they articulate.
4) Image building	Great leaders are self conscious about their own image.
5) Role modelling	Leader image-building sets the stage for effective role modelling.
6) External representation	Great leaders act as spokesperson for their organizations.
7) Expectations and confidence in followers	Great leaders communicate high performance expectations to their followers.
8) Selective motive arousal	Great leaders selectively arouse those motives of followers that are of special relevance to the successful accomplishment of the vision and mission.
9) Frame alignment	To persuade followers to accept and implement change, great leaders engage in frame alignment.
10) Inspirational communication	Great leaders communicate their message in an inspirational way.

These ten leadership behaviours and approaches are not specific styles *per se*, but cumulatively they probably represent what is currently known about the most effective style of today's leaders. It is imperative that tertiary institution sport administrators take cognisance of these leadership approaches in order to gain success in their sporting departments (Parks, 2003).

2.8 What skills do sport leaders need

Tertiary institution sport administrators need to possess the following skills as presented in Table 2.2 in order to be successful leaders.

Table 2.2   Core skills that are essential for sport leaders (Parks, 2003)

Skills required	Description
1) Cultural flexibility	Sport leaders must have the skills not only to manage but also to recognise and celebrate the value of diversity in their organizations.
2) Communication skills	Effective sport leaders must be able to communicate in writing, orally and, non verbally.
3) Human resource and development skills	Sport leaders must have human resource development skills of developing a learning climate, designing and conducting training programs, transmitting information and experience, assessing results, providing career counselling, creating organizational change and adapting learning materials.
4) Creativity	Problem solving, innovation, and creativity provide the competitive advantage in today's global market place.
5) Self management and learning	This skill refers to the continuous learning of new knowledge and skills.

If sport administrators are equipped with the skills provided in Table 2.2 they will be effective leaders. It is vital for success that they possess the core skills such a cultural flexibility, communication skills, human resource and development skills, creativity and self management learning.

2.9   Power and leadership for sport administrators

Power corresponds to the sport leader's potential influence over the attitudes and behaviour of subordinates and groups of individuals. Parks (2003) delineated different types of power: (a) expert power (stems from expertise and knowledge), (b) referent power (stems from friendship/ loyalty of subordinates, (c) charismatic power (stems from exceptional characteristics of the person), (d) legitimate power (stems from formal

authority), and (e) reward and/coercive power (stems from control over resources to reward or punish subordinates).

Research reveals that effective sport administrators should use different forms of power to influence subordinates (Acosta, 2002) and should rely more on personal power (expertise, friendly/loyalty, and charisma) than on position power (formal authority, control over resources, rewards, punishments, and information) to enhance subordinates' satisfaction and performance.

2.10 Stress and leadership

Individuals, groups, and organizations that are confronted with threats to their steady states of well being will experience stress. Howell and Higgins (2005) noted that the burnout scores among individuals who work in the same department are similar to those of individuals who work in different departments doing similar kinds of work. In many instances available leadership makes the difference in the prevention or occurrence of stress and burnout. Kanter and Brinkerhoff (1981) found that job stress was lower when the leaders of their district program were described as higher on the Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) in both the initiation of structure and in consideration.

2.10.1 Leadership under stress

Informal leadership and temporary groups may emerge at tertiary institution sport departments if the formal authorities and emergency services cannot deal with the crisis. The direct removal of the threats and obstacles that are the source of stress may be facilitated. Drive and anxiety may be reduced by providing informal and formal leadership support and increasing sense of security (Herrera and Lim, 2003). Companies can provide this support to employees by providing ongoing workshops on leadership.

Individuals, groups and sport organizations that are frozen into inertia and disbelief when they are seriously threatened may be aroused and alerted. Faced with hasty, poorly thought out decisions, leaders may delay the premature disclosure of options and call for reconsideration of proposals. When their followers are engaged in defensive avoidance,

leaders may bring them back to reality. Panic can be reduced or avoided by strong leadership that points the way to safety.

Thus leaders can help their groups to cope in many ways, but they can also cause more stress. However groups with leaders are likely to cope better with stress than groups without leaders. Groups and sport organizations that are under stress expect and desire more directiveness from the head of the sport administration department (Raelin, 1985).

2.10.2 Stress and effectiveness as a leader

Tertiary institution sport leadership that is effective in coping with stress implies leadership that results in rationally defensible high quality decisions, the appropriate use of available information skills, and resources, and the enhanced performance of followers in reaching their goals, despite the threats and obstacles in doing so.These high quality decisions benefitboth employee and employer. Bennis and Goldsmith (1994) and Bass (1995), among others showed the importance of leaders in helping their groups cope effectively with conflict and stress. In this respect, individual differences among managers are apparent.

2.10.3 Transformational leadership and dealing with stress

Transformational leadership contributes to effective leadership under stress. These leaders are not easily frightened, disconcerted, or thrown off balance but remain calm and maintain their sense of humour in the face of the danger of a crisis. Such leadership will provide immediate satisfaction but may not be effective in the long term. What is required is a transformational sport administrator who can evoke higher-level needs, such as for the common good and who can move the group into a fully vigilant search for long term solutions.

2.10.4 Stress and mergers

Bass (1995) notes that when a firm is acquired by another, the employees in the firm that was taken over are stressed by the loss of identity, purpose, and ego ideal. Shock, anger, disbelief, depression, and helplessness are frequent responses, as is anxiety because of

loss of information. The employees see the resignations and forced departure of others as a loss of talent as well as a threat to their security. This condition is applicable to tertiary institution sport departments with the recent mergers of tertiary institutions and two sport departments from separate campuses merged into one.

Survival in the reorganization becomes crucial. Transformational leadership is needed to deal with the merger of the culture of the acquired firm culture and that of the firm that is taking over. The merger may contribute to creating a new culture in the acquired firm or to a new one that transcends both firms. The contingent-reward system for the future needs to be clearly communicated as well as feedback on how it is working. Again, support, consideration, and commitment at each level of supervision in the acquired firm are essential to cope with the subordinates' stress (Bass, 1995).

At all levels in the tertiary institution sport department, transformational leadership can help subordinates and colleagues to end their previous attachments to the institution before the takeover. Transformational leadership can help reduce the tensions of dissatisfaction (Bass, 1995). Recently in South Africa tertiary institutions have merged. It has been a slow process towards this merger. Tertiary institution sport leaders can help colleagues and subordinates work through their denial and anger and move toward acceptance of the new situation.

2.11 Women and leadership

2.11.1 Constraints on opportunities for leadership

Leadership opportunities for women in the past tended to be limited to women's suffrage, sororities, convents, all girl schools, and telephone operator supervisors. According to Smith and Hoy (1998) in a survey of senior management attitudes about women as leaders in sport organizations, most respondents in 1985, male or female, still believed that women have to be exceptional to succeed in business and sport. Moreover the women in the poll were less optimistic about their opportunities than the men who were queried. The women thought they still had to struggle more to rise in the sporting world and were likely to earn less than their male counterparts (Smith and Hoy, 1998).

Nevertheless, despite Welch (2004)) finding that in almost all of which resarched, women in sporting positions reported that they had suffered from discrimination, women who are sport managers have a higher degree of job satisfaction than do their nonsupervisory counterparts. These women appear to enjoy their positions and to hold the same expectations of them as their male supervisors.

2.11.2 Concepts of women and leadership remain antithetical

Carpeno (1976) found that for 100 professional staff members of a regional high school system, statements about female leaders indicated doubt and uneasiness about their future. Smith and Hoy (1998) concluded from a survey of 104 male and 44 female sport management students, that the men tended to stereotype the women's behaviour and to exclude them from positions of leadership.

Among 1000 male executives who were surveyed by Bowman, (1965) 44 percent expressed mildly unfavourable attitudes toward women in management; in general these men believed that women are temperamentally ill-suited for leadership positions. A survey of 2000 executive readers of the *Harvard Business Review* reported that 41 percent of the men were opposed to women in executive roles; many readers thought that women were not suitable. Both men and women in the sample believed that women's opportunities for advancement were limited.

Henderson (1996) found, in a nationwide survey of managers, that the four traits that were regarded as most important for an upper management position were deemed more likely to be found in men than in women. Consistent with both these results, in a study of German students, (Knoppers, 2002) found that in describing male leaders, the students took it for granted that the leaders would be dominant and competitive, take risks, and be able to make decisions on their own; but for women leaders, these traits had to be stated explicitly. The male leader was to be the normative leader; the female leader had to fit with the male schematic.

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When they completed self-reports, both male and female managers showed a preference for stereotypic male (task-oriented) management behaviours. Similarly 1600 students using the Bem Sex-Role Inventory (Bern, 1970) chose masculine rather than feminine traits to be sought in the 'good manager', the 'good president', and even the female political activist.

Four beliefs reinforce unfavourable attitudes toward women as prospects for managerial positions. They were revealed in a factor analysis of 176 male managers' responses to a survey of attitudes toward women in the world of work. The factors extracted were (1) women lack career orientation, (2) women lack leadership potential, (3) women are not dependable, and (4) women are emotionally less stable. The perceived lack of career orientation is linked to the stereotype that women are less concerned about their jobs. The other stereotypes are built around a mixture of fact and fancy (Acosta, 2002). Although women may benefit from some positive stereotyping, for example being expected to be more considerate than their male counterparts, Heller (1992) found that female sport administrators are stereotyped negatively at two ends of the continuum. At one extreme, as mother or sex object women are considered too submissive or emotional to be effective leaders. At the other extreme, women violate what is expected of them as women and are seen as "iron maidens", as aggressive workaholics, and as domineering and manipulative. This stereotyping of women effects the role that women play in the workplace.

The female sex-role stereotype labels women as competent but warmer emotionally than men. The stereotype of the effective manager matches the masculine stereotype of the effective manager: competent, tough and emotionally cold. Miner (1999) reflected the accepted stereotype that there are parallel role requirements for being a manager and being a man. Both a manager and a man need to be able to take charge, to make decisions, to be assertive, and to take disciplinary action, but women managers in hierarchical organizations must follow masculine behaviour patterns, according to Miner. During the early years of their managerial experience when they are recently promoted

women tend to identify with the masculine stereotype of a successful manager to overcome their perceived female inadequacies.

If a woman in a sport managerial leadership position adopts more accommodative, participative leadership behaviour, she faces criticism for being too submissive. This then translates into weak leadership. But if she adopts autocratic or task-oriented leadership behaviour or a more directive style, she may be seen as too aggressive and masculine. Males tend to emerge as leaders in sporting positions more often than females do in numerous studies of mixed-sex groups, and the females tend to differ from men in their activity and influence in small group experiments (Herrera and Lim, 2003).

Status and sex-role stereotyping handicap the promotion of women to sport leadership positions. Moreover, socialization as a female contributes to the reduced motivation to lead. There are systematic differences between men's and women's styles of conversation and communication as a consequence of their differential socialization. There are also sex differences in cultural stereotypes about communication skills (Bass, 1995).

Women tend to be seen as better communicators. Case (1995) intensively analysed tapes of mixed-sex meetings of management students and identified speech that was authorative as a male style. The female style was personal and facilitative and was characterized by intensifiers, conjunctions, passive agreement, tag questions, and proof from personal experience. Speech that combined elements of each style, which was supportive and assertive in language, was most influential.

Seifert (1989) illustrated the perverse and pervasive stereotyping of the inadequacy of females for leadership. Seifert led male and female participants to believe they were working with male and female leaders, when they were all receiving the same standardized communications from the experimenter. Those male and female participants who perceived the notes as clearer than did those participants, received notes from the supposed female leaders impying that females are strong leaders.

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A study by Howard (1997) of 422 managers showed that women were superior in one of their oral presentations and scored slightly but significantly higher than did the men on a test of verbal ability. The women assessors also had better written communication skills, but no differences were observed for other oral presentations dealing with solutions to simulated managerial problems. Howard (1997) concluded, from his intensive assessment of AT managers, that in addition to the just-mentioned slight but significant superiority of women in verbal ability, men scored higher on a test of general information, but both men and women contributed equally to the functioning of two discussion groups and did equally well in the planning, organizing, and decision making aspects of an in-basket test.

Hyde (1998) found some support for gender differences favouring men in spatial visualization. He attributed this difference to a sex-linked chromosome. Women may differ from men in how they react to obstacles and to conflicts not faced by men, and this difference may affect their potential as leaders. Wood (1998) states that women were more likely to withdraw psychologically from organizations when they faced obstacles to their promotion to higher management levels. This hinders their progress for growth.

Contrary to what may be expected from what has been said so far about male-female socialization and some of the differences uncovered in traits between the sexes, the preponderance of available evidence, particularly from field studies, is that no consistently clear pattern of differences can be discerned in the supervisory styles of female and male leaders.

2.12 The group's performance and gender of the leader

The evidence is not unequivocal. A few studies show that groups do better with female leaders; some studies show that groups do better with male leaders, and the majority have found no differences that are due to the gender of the leader.

- *Women leaders are more effective:* Contrary to what they had hypothesized, Bass (1995) found, in a study with 144 undergraduates, that female-led groups were more productive than those led more by males.

- *Women leaders are less effective:* Several studies pointed to the negative effects of women in leadership posts. In an employee attitude survey, Hansen (1999) found that women supervisors had less impact than men supervisors on the climate of their departments, as evidenced by the correlations between supervisor attitudes and the ratings of the group's climate.

- *Male and female leaders do not differ in effectiveness:* Bass (1995) concluded in a review of the results of laboratory studies, that the gender of the leader generally was not a consistent factor in determining the group's productivity.

2.13 Race and leadership

There is a rich store of biographical literature on black political, community, educational and religious leaders. In a laboratory experiment using pairs of high - and low dominant white and black coeds performing a clerical task in which one participant had to assume the role of leader and the other of the follower, Fenelion (1996) found, contrary to expectations, that black women assumed the role of leader twice as often as white women no matter what their relative scores on dominance. The white women with high scores on dominance thought it more important to show their egalitarian attitudes than to become leaders (Bass, 1995). This could be attributed to the perceptions that white women have of leadership

Despite their high performance in some types of organizations, such as labour unions, blacks continue to be underrepresented in positions of leadership. Lamm (1995) found that among 30 union locals with black members in the San Francisco Bay area, only ten had blacks in leadership positions in proportion to their number in the membership; in ten locals, blacks were proportionally underrepresented among the leadership and in the remaining ten locals, there were no black leaders. Similarly, despite their overrepresentation for excellence in track and field, blacks remain underrepresented in leadership positions, such as football quarterbacks or team managers.

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2.13.1 Performance of blacks and whites as leaders

Reddin (1997) found that among 21 black and 56 white participants in a supervisory training program, the blacks were less willing to support harsh punishment for violation of organizational rules than were the whites, especially when subordinates had a history of good performance. Otherwise, there was little difference in the way blacks and whites thought they would handle disciplinary problems and role conflict.

The importance of the race of the supervisor was shown by Richards (1998), who completed a laboratory study in which groups consisting of two white undergraduate males and a black or white supervisor played a business game. Trained observers rated the white supervisors significantly higher than the black supervisors on human relations skills and administrative-technical skills. Their ratings were based on checklists of effective and ineffective behaviours, as well as overall graphic ratings. The observers also used the Bale's Interaction Process Analysis to assess the leaders and subordinates behaviour.

The white supervisors of the all-white groups of subordinates engaged in significantly more signs of solidarity, giving suggestions, and giving orientation, which lent support to King's (1974) hypothesis that white supervisors will be more directive and less passive about relationships than will black supervisors when dealing predominantly with white supporters. The implication for the present study is that blacks need to take cognisance of this and become more directive as leaders.

2.13.2 Personal strategies for blacks

Blacks need to adopt personal strategies. They can avoid desegregating themselves in white schools to develop as much experience and comfort in working in a white world. They can seek entry into firms with good track records for developing and promoting blacks. They can seek sponsors and mentors in those firms (Bass, 1995).

Henderson (1996) suggested that individual blacks need specific strategies to anchor themselves in corporate South Africa. They must strengthen their own leadership skills

and develop a healthy and secure home life. In addition to pursuing education, they must believe that their efforts will pay off for them and they must learn to cope with the various social and organizational barriers that stand in their way.

Black leaders in the emerging middle class need to channel their political energy, talent, and imagination for constructive ends, particularly to help cope with the problems of lower class blacks. The black community must be reconstructed internally by strengthening its common resource base and its common frame of reference. Black leaders face a strong challenge in unifying the diverse sectors of their community (Henderson, 1996).

Leadership styles are affected by whether leaders and subordinates each are black or white. However, relatively little is known as yet about leaders' supervision of whites or mixed groups, although some evidence is beginning to appear.

2.14 Leadership and sport

Doherty and Danylchuk (1996) conducted a study on the leader behaviour of inter-university athletics administrators according to Bass's (1995) transformational/transactional leadership model. The impact of that behaviour on subordinates' satisfaction with leadership, perceived leader effectiveness, departmental commitment and extra effort was also examined. A sample of head coaches from Ontario universities (N=114) completed the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) form 5X (Bass and Avolio, 1994) with regard to their athletics administrators.

The resultant profile was one of predominantly transformational as opposed to transactional or nonleadership behaviour. The findings were not surprising in the light of the need, during recent times, of increasing economic, social, and political pressure in inter-university athletics for athletics administrators to be more creative and visionary in-order to ensure the success and even the maintenance of their programs. The pressure to do more with less would demand innovative management and inspiring leadership that

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encourages subordinates to share in the pursuit of organizational success (Doherty and Danylchuk, 1996).

Leader centred behaviour (idealized influence, attributed charisma) was used more often than subordinate centred behaviour (individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation). Coaches' satisfaction with leadership, perceived leader effectiveness, and extra effort was positively and strongly associated with transformational leadership and contingent reward behaviour, whereas negative relationships were observed for management-by-exception (passive) and nonleadership behaviours. Leadership behaviour was not associated with the coaches' commitment to the athletic department (Doherty and Danylchuk, 1996).

Pratt (1998) conducted a study to assess the effects of leadership (coaching) style on the organizational effectiveness (winning) of athletic teams. Coaches just as leaders of other formal organizations combine the power of their position with a particular leadership style to maximise organizational performance. A leadersip style that is transformational is essential for success. Three dimensions of coaching styles were investigated: authoritarianism, rigor and coach's intolerance for insubordination. The findings indicated that, for boys' teams, coaches high in authoritarianism and rigor and having lower tolerance for insubordination are no more effective than their more democratic counterparts. For girls' teams more rigorous coaches are more effective.

Dexter and Davis (2002) conducted a study on an analysis of perceive leadership styles and levels of satisfaction of selected junior college athletics directors (AD) and head coaches. In the study transformational leadership behaviours were found to be positively associated with high levels of satisfaction. The results indicated that the head coaches perceived the AD to have predominantly transformational leadership styles, the majority of the coaches perceived their AD leadership as satisfying, and there was a highly significant association between the perception of the AD leadership style and the perceived level of satisfaction. The results of the study indicated that other variables did not have a statistically significant association with perceived levels of satisfaction.

Weese (1995) conducted a study on leadership, organizational culture, and job satisfaction in Canadian YMCA organizations. The study was undertaken to investigate the links between transformational leadership, organizational culture, and employee job satisfaction within the 69 Canadian YMCA organizations. The leadership component was measured by the Leadership Behaviour Questionnaire. The result of the study was consistent with the theoretical positions of Bass (1995) and Sashkin (1998) who claimed that transformational leaders lead organizations that are oriented to the wants, needs, and desires of their current and potential clients. The cultures of the YMCA organizations led by high transformational leaders was more aligned to customer orientation than the cultures of YMCA organizations led by low transformational leaders.

Hsu et al. (2002) conducted a study on the transformational leadership and organizational effectiveness in recreational sports/fitness programs. He concluded that transformational leadership seems to be at least indirectly related to a higher degree of organizational effectiveness.

2.15 Organizational effectiveness

2.15.1 Introduction

In this section the emphasis will be to review literature related to organizational effectiveness and organizational culture generally, and specifically to the sporting industry.

2.15.2 Effectiveness in sport organizations

All sport organizations exist to achieve a goal or set of goals. For a tertiary institution sport department it may be pursuing a national championship, making a profit or developing sporting talent (Amis and O'Brien, 2001). The ultimate goal of most sport organizations is to win major championship in their sport. In the case of tertiary institutions it may be winning the South African Students Sports Union (SASSU) championships in the various codes of sport. Yet each season, only one team can achieve this goal (Weese, 1995). Does this mean that all the other tertiary institutions sport departments were ineffective? The answer to this question is that the teams that did not

win were not ineffective. The Kansas State University Wildcats football program did not play for the National Championships in 1998, yet season ticket and television revenues increased 249 per cent from 1990 to 1998. Although performance was highly ineffective other aspects of the team were effective. Effectiveness quite clearly is a difficult concept to define and measure (Amis and O'Brien, 2001).

Weese (1996) conducted a study to explore the relationships that exist between transformational leadership (measured by the Leadership Behaviour Questionnaire), organizational culture, (measured by the Culture Strength Assessment), and organizational effectiveness (measured by the Target Population Satisfaction Index) in the campus recreation programs of both the Big Ten and Mid-American conferences (N=19). The directors of these programs were given considerable levels of job autonomy to lead their respective programs as well as the opportunity to alter and/or imbed a desired culture in their administration.

Significant differences were uncovered in both conferences for executive transformational leadership and organizational effectiveness. However no significant relationship was uncovered between transformational leadership and organizational effectiveness. A significant relationship was discovered between organizational culture strength and organizational effectiveness (Weese, 1996). Weese (1995) conducted a study to investigate the links between transformational leadership, organizational culture, and employee job satisfaction within the 69 Canadian YMCA organizations. The researchers concluded that significant differences in organizational culture existed between the YMCA organizations led by high transformational leaders and YMCA organizations led by low transformational leaders.

In addition the YMCA organizations led by high transformational leaders carried out the culture-building activities of managing change, achieving goal, coordinated teamwork, and customer orientation to a greater degree than YMCA organizations led by low transformational leaders. No significant differences in employee job satisfaction levels

existed between the YMCA organizations led by high transformational leaders and those led by low transformational leaders (Weese, 1995).

Chelladurai (1999) conducted a study of National Sport Organizations (NSO) in Canada that investigated the interrelationships among (a) administrators' perceptions of the effectiveness of the processes of organization, decision making, and personnel relations; (b) administrators' job satisfaction; and (c) Sport Canada ratings of NSOs in high performance, domestic sport, and combined categories. The subjects, 153 volunteer and 84 professional administrators of the 51 NSOs in Ottowa, were grouped on the basis of work status (volunteer/professional) and (Olympic/non-Olympic). The four subgroups did not differ in levels of job satisfaction. Volunteer administrators viewed their respective NSOs processes more favourably than did professional administrators. Higher ratings of decision making and personnel relations related positively to higher levels of job satisfaction. There was minimal association between Sport Canada ratings and administrator's job satisfaction or their perceptions of process effectiveness.

2.15.3 Models of organizational effectiveness

A number of authors have attempted to reduce the complexity inherent in the effectiveness concept by narrowing the perspective from which effectiveness is viewed and measured. These various approaches to effectives can be subsumed under four different but widely acknowledged models of effectiveness the goals model, the systems resources model, the process model and the multiple-constituency model (Denison, 2000).

2.15.3.1 The goals model

The goal attainment approach is based on the identification of primary goals and how well an organization attains, or makes progress toward, them. An organization that achieves its goal is seen as being more effective than one that does not. It is this approach that has been used most extensively in evaluating the effectiveness of sport organizations (Chelladurai, 1999). For this approach to be workable there must be a

consensus among members of the organization on goals that are to be pursued. In addition, there must be a small enough number of goals to be manageable.

2.15.3.2　Systems resource approach

Rather than focusing on organizational outputs, as the goal attainment approach does, the systems resource approach to organizational effectiveness focuses on the inputs of an organization, specifically its ability to attract scarce or valued resources (Yuchtman and Seashore, 1967). These resources may include members, the fans attending a game or income generated from sales of licensed merchandise.

Thus a tertiary institution sport department will be considered effective based on its ability to obtain significant funds through corporate and private donations to carry out its program. It would also be considered effective if it can attract a large number of students to enrol in its sporting programs or can recruit highly qualified coaches. It is assumed that since resources are required to achieve the organization's goals, the greater resources the greater will be organizational effectiveness (Chelladurai, 1987).

2.15.3.3　Internal process approach

As opposed to outputs (goal attainment) or inputs (systems resource), the internal process approach focuses on throughputs, the internal activities by which inputs are converted into outputs. Here, indicators of effectiveness can include such things as a sport administrator's concern for her/his worker, feelings of group loyalty, good communication and the personal development of subordinates (Parkhouse, 2001).

Although the internal process approach is useful in comparing organizations with different outputs, it does have its shortcomings. First, it is often difficult to measure criteria such as group loyalty or good communication, which from this perspective are indicators of effective performance. Second, this approach takes no account of the notion of equifinality, the means by which two organizations with different internal processes could be equally effective in reaching the same point end. Third the approach is deficient

in that a sport organization can have poor communication and low morale and yet still be considered successful (Frisby, 1996).

2.15.3.4 Multiple-Constituency Model

The multiple-constituents model (Connolly et al., 1980) is a more current means of understanding organizational effectiveness. It provides an integrative approach that takes into account the political nature of organizations. It also acknowledges the fact that organizations consist of a number of constituencies, which often have differing goals and priorities (Lim, 2001).

Using the multiple-constituency model sport administrators at a tertiary institution may consider the unit effective but the athletes may rate the department as being ineffective. Both assessments are legitimate. On the other hand Miles (2000) proposed that only the orientations of the powerful constituencies should matter in the determination of effectiveness. Accordingly in a tertiary institution sport department the head of department's perceptions and evaluations would prevail (Chelladurai, 1991).

2.15.4 Leadership styles and organizational effectiveness

Traditionally, schools, the military, factories and athletic teams have, with few exceptions been characterized by the authoritarian style of leadership. Does that form of leadership lead to greater effectiveness than the democratic style? The evidence from the literature on formal organizations and more specifically for sport teams provides mixed signals (Pratt, 1998).

The mixed findings on leadership style and organizational effectiveness are exemplified by Dublin (1995), who after reviewing the relevant research found that some researchers reported that greater productivity was associated with supportive leadership, others reported no difference, and still others found autocratic leadership to be most effective.

The fundamental reason for such confounding evidence is that group performance is an exceedingly complex phenomenon. Whether a group performs well may be the result of

leadership style, the morale of subordinates which, like many of the factors mentioned here, may or may not be dependant on leadership style, group cohesiveness, the performance level, the maturity of the members, the size of the group, the type of product or service, whether the tasks require interaction or independent action, or some other variable (Pratt, 1998).

Hall (1996) states that autocratic leadership appears to be most effective in sport teams or sport administration departments where short term gains are required and when subordinates expect to be supervised in an autocratic manner.

Fiedler and House (1998) concluded that supportive leadership enhances organizational effectiveness in tertiary institution sport departments under the following conditions:

- When decisions are not routine in nature.
- When the information required for effective decision making cannot be standardised or centralized.
- When decisions allow time to involve subordinates in a participative decision making process.
- When subordinates feel a strong need for independence.
- When subordinates regard their participation in decision making as legitimate.
- When subordinates see themselves able to contribute to the decision making process.
- When subordinates are confident of their ability to work without the reassurance of close supervision.

Hall (1996) concludes that sport organizations where democratic leadership enhances organizational effectiveness will be most effective are in the less formalized organizations that must rely on the inputs of their own members if they are to be effective. Their technology is such that there is a constant search for new ideas and solutions to problems.

Hall's (1996) conclusion is supported by Lim and Cromartie (2001) who found that a strict autocratic form of leadership is most likely to be successful in stable, structured situations. He examined 64 high school head football and basketball coaches from Minnesota and Washington. The coaches were given the Rokeach Dogmatism Scale, which is designed to measure an important ingredient of authoritarianism, and found that the most successful coaches tended to be more dogmatic than the less successful. Additional support for the association between authoritarianism and success was provided by Kjeldsen (1996), who found that coaches of successful teams were highly relationship oriented.

However a number of studies examining leadership styles and organizational effectiveness provide decidedly different conclusions. Bird (1997) studied women's intercollegiate volleyball teams at two levels and found that players on winning teams in the more skilled league perceived their coaches to be task oriented. The reverse was found in the less skilled league.

Weese (1996) concluded that leadership style may vary according to the sex of the team. His findings linking leadership style and organizational effectiveness show that for athletic teams neither the authoritarian nor democratic leadership style prevails as the most successful, because the relationship between the leader and the led is so complex. For tertiary institution sport the most successful coach may be especially effective when he or she correctly adapts to the needs of particular players and situations, sometimes being demanding, or at other times supportive.

Pratt (1998) conducted a study on the contrasting leadership styles and organizational effectiveness of six hundred high schools randomly selected from a directory of public elementary and secondary school districts in the U.S department of education. His findings linking leadership style and organizational effectiveness show that for the athletic teams neither the authoritarian nor democratic leadership style prevails as the most successful. However for two reasons the answer appears tentative.

First the relationship between the leader and the led is so complex. Second, and most crucially, the dynamics of leadership are such that few coaches are consistent in their demands and relationships with their charges. The most successful coach may be especially effective when she or he correctly adapts to the needs of particular players and situations, sometimes being demanding, and at other times supportive. The unsuccessful coach may be the most unyielding or the one least adept at knowing when a change is required and what the appropriate behaviour should be (Pratt, 1998).

In this research we seek to further our understanding of this complex relationship between organizational culture and organizaional effectiveness.

2.15.5 Organizational culture and organizational effectiveness

Organizational culture can be defined as the deep rooted beliefs, values and assumptions widely shared by organizational members that powerfully shape the identity and behavioural norms for the group (Lim and Cromartie, 2001).

If there is positive organizational culture in tertiary institution sport departments it will lead to increased staff alignment resulting in enhanced organizational effectiveness, heightened consensus regarding strategic direction, increased employee productivity, and advanced levels of employee commitment (Barney, 1996). Avolio et al. (1991) state that organizational culture holds the key to increased commitment, productivity and profitability.

Schein (2000) analysed organizational cultures from the perspectives of culture strength and culture type. He concludes that the strength and type of culture are critical to the organization's success and survival. Tertiary institution sport administrators should focus their energies on developing a strong organizational culture that supports the following activities: managing change, achieving goals and co-ordinating team work in their departments. These activities will contribute to organizational effectiveness.

Denison (2000) noted that successful organizations over time are likely to possess a strong well defined culture. Golden (2002) suggests that organizational culture must support activities linked to the mission of the organization.

Weese (1995) conducted a study to investigate the concepts of transformational leadership and organizational culture with Big Ten and Mid American conference university recreation programs. He concluded that high transformational leaders possess strong organizational cultures and carry out culture building activities, especially the customer orientation function, to a greater extent than other leaders do.

Leaders have offered tempered positions relating to the impact that a leader can have on shaping and preserving the culture of an organization (Weese, 1995). He has suggested that the culture in the organization is not something that the organization possesses and consequently culture change is an arduous assignment. However the current thinking in the area of leadership is devoted to the leader's role in maintaining the organization's organizational culture or in changing it to implement a change of direction dictated by a new vision (Weese, 1995). He concludes that a leader can alter or impact the organizational culture.

According to Ostroff and Schmitt (1993) transformational leaders have not only the vision, but also the ability to get their employees to accept ownership for that vision as their own, thus developing the commitment to carry it through to completion. They actually do not need to have the vision themselves, they need only to possess the willingness and ability to draw the vision from their employees and inspire and empower them to do what it takes to bring the vision into reality.

The ability to create new organizational forms and processes innovates organizational cultures and creates stronger organizational culture, which is crucial to remaining competitive in an increasingly competitive sporting world. In order to ensure organizational effectiveness in tertiary institutions sport departments it is necessary for

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transformational leaders to develop a stronger organizational culture and carry out culture building activities (Parks, 2003).

2.16 Organizational culture

2.16.1 Introduction

There seems to be wide agreement that organizational culture refers to the deep rooted beliefs, values and assumptions shared by sport administrators and coaches that powerfully shape the identity and behavioural norms for the group (Lim and Cromartie, 2001).

Lim and Cromartie (2001) recognized the fact that there is a significant relationship between transformational leadership and organizational culture, while they rejected the argument that transformational leadership has an impact on organizational effectiveness. They also recognized that organizational culture has a great influence on organizational effectiveness (Lim and Cromartie, 2001).

2.16.2 Functions of organizational culture within a tertiary sport administration department

Culture performs a number of functions within a sport administration department. The role of culture in influencing employees' behaviour appears to be increasingly important in today's workplace. As sport administration departments have widened spans of control, flattened structures, introduced teams, reduced formalization, and empowered employees, the shared meaning provided by a strong culture ensures that everyone is pointed in the same direction (Luthans, 2002).

2.16.3 Culture as a liability

Culture enhances organizational commitment and increases the consistency of employee behaviour. These are clearly benefits to a sport organization (Robbins, 2003). However the potentially dysfunctional aspects of culture can be detrimental and can affect organizational effectiveness in a sport department. The following are dysfunctional aspects of organizational culture which effects organizational effectiveness.

2.16.3.1   Barrier to change

Culture is a liability in tertiary institution sport department when the shared values are not in agreement with those that will further the organization's effectiveness.

2.16.3.2   Barrier to diversity

Hiring new employees, who because of race, gender, disability or other differences, can be regarded a cultural liability to a sport administration department. Management wants new employees to accept the organization's core cultural values. If not, these employees are unlikely to fit in or be accepted. However at the same time, management wants openly to acknowledge and demonstrate support for the differences that these employees bring to the workplace (Luthans, 2002).

2.16.3.3   Barrier to acquisitions and mergers

Historically the key factors that management looked at in making acquisitions or merger decisions were related to financial advantages or product synergy (Schein, 2000).

2.16.4   Changing organizational culture

The clash between two cultures in a merger or acquisition of a tertiary institution sport department can be focused into three major areas (Merriman, 2004):

2.16.4.1   Structure: The different factors from the two cultures include the size, age and history of the two sport departments, the industry in which the partners come from and now reside, the geographic locations, and whether services products and services are involved.

2.16.4.2   Politics: Where does the power and managerial decision making really reside? Co-operate cultures range the extreme of autocratic power to total employee empowerment. How this plays among the partners will be important to cultural compatibility.

2.16.4.3   Emotions: These are the personal feelings, the cultural contact that individuals have bought into to guide their day-day thoughts, habits, attitudes, commitment, and patterns of daily behaviour.

2.16.5 Guidelines for change

Despite the significant barriers and resistance to change, organizational cultures can be managed and changed over time. This attempt to change culture can take on many different forms. Sport administration departments affected by the recent mergers of tertiary institutions can follow these guidelines which are extremely helpful as guidelines for change (Robbins, 2003):

- Assess the current culture of the sport department.
- Set realistic goals that impact on the bottom line of the sport department.
- Recruit outside personnel with industry experience, so that they are able to interact well with the organizational personnel.
- Make changes from top down so that a consistent message is delivered from all management team members.
- Include all sport administration employees in the culture change process, especially when making change in rules and processes.
- Take out all trappings that remind personnel of the previous culture.
- Expect to have some problems and to find people who would rather move than change with the culture, and if possible take these losses early.
- Move quickly and decisively to build momentum and defuse resistance to the new culture.
- Stay the course by being persistent.

In order to promote organizational culture in sport organizations, it is necessary for transformational leaders to subscribe to a stronger organizational culture and to carry out culture building activities. By virtue of their formal role in sport organizations, sport administrators are responsible for empowering subordinates to establish goals and vision, and for motivating members towards achieving their vision and goals. Again successful transformational leaders play a significant role in the development and maintenance of the culture of their organization.

2.17 Summary

The chapter addressed the issue of leadership, organizational effectiveness and organizational culture. The concept of leadership was defined, as well as the differences between leadership and management. Various theories of leadership have evolved over time; however for the purpose of this study the traditional leadership approaches, behavioural approaches to the study of leadership, situational approaches to leadership and the contemporary leadership approach were discussed.

The chapter looked at leadership and decision making, which is crucial in the sporting world as all leaders are engaged in making decisions about critical issues. Leadership styles and leadership skills were also looked at to give sport administrators an insight into what characteristics and skills they should possess to be successful as leaders.

The concept of power and leadership was further examined to illustrate a leader's potential influence over the attitudes and behaviour of subordinates and groups of individuals. Stress forms an integral part of our working life and this chapter further addressed how sport administrators can deal with stress. Ideological positioning of men and women and the stereotyping of women were discussed. Responses to women in leadership positions were also discussed, as well as the constraints facing women in positions of leadership.

The issue of organizational effectiveness was critically examined. Organizational effectiveness is a prime variable in many organizational contexts. When a sport department runs effectively the potential for achieving its goals and objectives is enhanced. The various models of organizational effectiveness such as the goals model, systems resource approach, internal process approach as well as the multiple-constituency model were also discussed.

The structure of tertiary institutions sport administration department was also looked at. Organizational culture, the characteristics of organizational culture, the functions of organizational culture, and types of organizational culture, as well as culture as a liability

was further discussed. The following chapter will discuss issues pertaining to job satisfaction, job security, transformation in sport and gender equity.

CHAPTER THREE: REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

3.   JOB SATISFACTION, JOB SECURITY, TRANSFORMATION IN SPORT AND GENDER EQUITY

3.1   Introduction

In this chapter the emphasis will be to review relevant literature related to job satisfaction, job security, gender equity and transformation in sport generally and specifically related to the tertiary institution sport administration departments. The first section of the review will review literature related to job satisfaction followed by job security, gender equity studies and transformation in sport.

3.1.1   Job satisfaction: Definition and correlates

Luthans (2002) defines job satisfaction as a "pleasurable positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experience". Job satisfaction is a result of employees perception of how well their job provides those things that are viewed as important.

As a multidimensional and dynamic concept, job satisfaction represents an overall attitude as well as feelings about particular aspects of an individual's job. Accordingly studies in job satisfaction should consider both factors of job content, or nature of the task, and context, or the task environment (Davis and Newstrom, 1985).

Job satisfaction is perhaps the most often studied topic in management and industrial psychology. Job satisfaction is of great significance at three different levels: humanitarian, economic and theoretical (Chelladurai, 1999). At the humanitarian level, most managers are concerned with the welfare of their workers. At the economic level, management should be interested in job satisfaction because increased satisfaction with aspects of the job may prove to be a bonus to the organization in many areas including reduced absenteeism, decreased turnover, and fewer work related accidents (Wanous and Lawler, 1972). Finally at the theory level, many theories of work motivation and work behaviour incorporate the concept of job satisfaction. Theoretical concerns relate to

satisfaction as a direct cause of increased work performance and cooperation or as a consequence of such behaviour leading to organizational rewards.

In addition, the lack of a relationship between job satisfaction and other productivity related variables may be due to measurement problems. That is although a strong relationship may exist between job satisfaction and productivity, researchers have failed to measure adequately either of these concepts and, therefore, have been unable to identify the strong link between them. Robbins (2003) pointed out that the problem may be in measuring job behaviour as a single type of act over a limited time by a single method, and job satisfaction as a general attitude. However, a strong attitude-behaviour correlation will only occur when there is correspondence between the levels of aggression represented in the attitude and behaviour measures.

Often considered a barometer of health and effectiveness of an organization, a higher level of job satisfaction is associated with a number of other factors. These include reduced turnover and absenteeism, less undesirable work related behaviour such as errors, aggression, strikes and theft, and better job performance (Davis and Newstrom, 1985).

3.2 Measurement of satisfaction

Job satisfaction for coaches and sport administrators can be measured using the Job Descriptive Index, the Job Diagnostic Survey, Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire and the Job Satisfaction Survey. Managers in sport and recreation may use any of these methods or any alternative method. What is critical is the selection of the facets or components that are relevant to the job at hand, the paid and volunteer workers in the organization, and the clients of one's organization. Wanous and Lawler (1972) outlined the following guidelines:

- Satisfaction measurements should include the principal aspects of job satisfaction.
- Satisfaction measurements should be easy to administer and complete.
- Satisfaction measurements should be easy to score and interpret.

- Satisfaction measurements should show evidence that they are measuring what they are supposed to measure in a consistent fashion.

- Satisfaction measurements should be useful for identifying problems, choosing solutions, and evaluating changes.

For the present study job satisfaction was measured using the Job Satisfaction Survey by Spector (1997). This instrument measures general job satisfaction of employees; it covers nine important job aspects like pay, promotion, supervision, benefits, rewards, working conditions, co-workers, nature of work, and communication.

Each of these nine important job aspects has four items as sub questions in the questionnaire. A good example is, items 3, 12, 21, and 30 inquire (See Appendix 3) about supervision. The Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) contains 36 items in total, with a one to six rating on each item. When all items of the JSS are combined they give a total satisfaction score of each participant. Participants are asked to circle one of the six ratings that represent their agreement or disagreement about each item (Spector, 1997).

Scoring high on the JSS indicates that an employee is satisfied with his or her job; while scoring low indicates that an employee is dissatisfied with his/her job. Individual aspects of the job can also be evaluated by combining their scores and comparing them with the score of another employee. The logic stays the same; scoring high on a certain aspect means that an employee is satisfied in the particular area of his/her job, and scoring low indicates that he/she is not satisfied with that particular area of his/her job.

3.3   Job factors: Variables that influences job satisfaction

There are a number of variables that influence job satisfaction of tertiary institution sport administrators and coaches such as salary, supervision, the work itself, promotions, status and recognition, utilization, remuneration, working conditions and the work group. A few of these variables will be discussed.

3.3.1 Salary

Salary refers to payment made by an employer to an employee. Money is vital not only in the sense that it helps people attain their basic needs but it is of utmost importance in providing upper level need satisfaction.

It appears that a perceived low salary, which leads to job dissatisfaction, is a main contributor to employee turnover (Smucker and Kent, 2004). Robbins (2003) believes that salary is a key determinant of job satisfaction because it serves as a symbol of achievement and a source of recognition, this is applicable if the pay is adequate.

It is evident that pay is an essential aspect of job satisfaction for sport administrators and coaches despite self report surveys which place pay as being of low importance to overall job satisfaction (McShane and Von Glinow, 2002). Employees often see pay as a reflection of how management views their contribution to the organization (Luthans, 2002).

Synder (2002) analysed the relationship between job characteristics and compensation satisfaction of public and private recreation managers. Public managers were more satisfied with their benefits than were private managers. The private managers were more satisfied with their pay raises, structure, and administration than were public managers. Both public and private managers perceived their jobs as meaningful. The public managers were unhappy with their compensation. In tertiary administration sport a sense of satisfaction will result if employees feel that they are being rewarded adequately.

A cause of concern amongst coaches is that there is no fixed salary, no fringe benefits and if they are sick it affects their livelihoods. This lack often creates a feeling of dissatisfaction amongst coaches. However, this is an occupational hazard that affects all private practitioners due to the nature of their profession. Their profession lends itself to making a higher salary than the average employee with a fixed salary. The harder they

work and the more codes of sport they coach the greater the earned salary. The next subheading will look at the role of supervision in job satisfaction.

3.3.2 Supervision

Supervision is another important source of job satisfaction. Robbins (2003) emphasized that a supervisor's function is to provide a link between the workers and higher management for the sole purpose of securing worker benefits.

Merriman (2004) conclude that job satisfaction in sport administrators and coaches is considerably improved when supervisors are perceived to be fair, helpful, competent and effective. This perception includes the supervisor's skill as a problem solver, coach, trainer and listener. Insensitive, incompetent and uncaring supervisors seem to have the most negative effect on employee job satisfaction. This includes unfair, biased treatment by supervisors, failure of supervisors to listen and respond to employees' problems or concerns and problems with management communication credibility.

Luthans (2002) identifies two dimensions of supervisory style that affect job satisfaction. One is employee contribution, which is measured by the degree to which a supervisor takes a personal interest and cares about the employee. The other dimension is participation or influence, demonstrated by managers who allow their employees to participate in decisions that affect their own jobs.

It is important for supervisors to acknowledge and reward good work. The goals of the tertiary institution sport department are met if the supervisors share a good working relationship.

3.3.3 The work itself

Employees in sport jobs should find their work meaningful, interesting and challenging. It is only when individuals value the objectives and goals, and if the goals are personally challenging, that the work itself is valued. People have a preference for interesting and

challenging tasks that provide opportunities for self actualization and recognition (Gerber et al., 2002).

Variety plays a crucial role in the work environment. Highly repetitive operations have no novelty, provide little stimulation and lead to psychological fatigue. Highly stimulating jobs can lead to psychological overload and sometimes burnout (Feldman and Arnold, 1983).

Koehler (1998) researched corporate fitness managers who directed fitness programs or facilities in the State of California. This group of managers experienced satisfaction with their overall employment and the work itself rather than the material gains.

Song (1993) found that managerial personnel working in commercial club corporations were more satisfied with intrinsic aspects such as variety, creativity, recognition, and independence and less satisfied with extrinsic items like pay, promotion and company policies.

3.3.4 Promotion

Promotion opportunities seem to have a varying effect on job satisfaction as they take on different forms. Lack of opportunity for promotion leads to a negative feeling of dissatisfaction as frustrated ambition can give rise to particularly intense feelings of dissatisfaction (Smucker, 2003).

A positive work environment and opportunities to grow intellectually and to broaden their skill base has for many become more important than promotion opportunities (Luthans, 2002).

Promotional opportunities exist for tertiary institution sport administrators to eventually become directors of the sport institutions where they work. Coaching is also a profession that lends itself to promotional opportunities, a 3rd division tertiary institution sport coach in soccer can eventually strive to be the first division soccer coach. If they are successful

in their applications a sense of job satisfaction arises. If they are unsuccessful dissatisfaction arises (Amis and O'Brien, 2001).

Herrera and Lim (2003) conducted a study on the job satisfaction among coaches in NCAA division 1 institutions. He concluded that the highest levels of satisfaction were seen in program directors and athletics training faculty. Lack of promotion was the most dissatisfying variable of total job satisfaction. The lower the employment position the lower the level of satisfaction. The majority of the dissatisfaction came from the younger members of the profession (specifically the certified graduate assistant).

Male respondents had a higher level of satisfaction than females. This gender difference was attributed to the lack of opportunities for females for promotion and growth (Herrera and Lim, 2003). Smucker (2003) conducted a study on female sport journalist in America. They reported overall job satisfaction in five out of the six facets tested. The one facet where job dissatisfaction was reported was in the lack of promotional opportunities. When the results regarding promotion satisfaction were analysed a common theme was uncovered concerning tenure. However a majority of the women had been employed in the same position and with the same organization for fewer than five years. This suggests that female sport journalists are somewhat transient, moving from job to job and organization to organization. Because the level of satisfaction with promotional opportunities is very low, these women may be moving to advance their careers and to achieve greater status and rank. Apparently, the key perception among these women is that the only way to advance their careers is to move to another organization (Smucker, 2003)

The finding is key because, in a recent study of women who have left the newspapers, it was revealed that over 50% of the survey respondents listed lack of career advancement as an important factor in their decisions to leave (Smucker, 2003).

3.3.5 Status and recognition

There is a causal relationship between the type of job an employee has and the status enjoyed. Status refers to the job content status, which means the relative status value linked to the job within a specific organization itself and by other employees of the organization (Donald, 2004).

Fried (2003) defines recognition as an act of showing appreciation of performance or efforts. It would appear that sport administrators and sport coaches experience a sense of satisfaction when their efforts and performance at work are recognized. Giving rewards and positive comments leads to a feeling of satisfaction. Tertiary institution sport administrators and coaches usually have a sense of job satisfaction when the department achieves major victories in South African Students Sport Union (SASSU) championships. Sport directors at tertiary institutions and even management at these institutions should acknowledge outstanding work done by sport administrators and coaches so that they receive the recognition they deserve. Giving rewards and positive comments leads to a feeling of satisfaction (Luthans, 2002).

3.3.6 Utilization

The self actualization need is represented by the opportunity people are given to utilize their capabilities (Finnemore, 2002). There are two types of utilization viz. qualitative utilization and quantitative utilization. Sport administrators and coaches are multi-skilled individuals and thrive on the opportunity to utilize their capabilities and knowledge. Their knowledge can be utilized for holding seminars, conferences and health days. Sport administrators and coaches can make a valuable contribution to society by educating people on issues such as cholesterol, high blood pressure and the importance of exercising. A sense of job satisfaction arises if their skills are utilized.

3.3.7 Remuneration

In the past adequate reward was seen as the main force of motivating employees and keeping them satisfied. This view in present times is important, however it is not the only

consideration. If remuneration is consistent with perceived effort and status it acts as a satisfier (Luthans, 2002).

Kinicki and Kreitner (2003) are of the opinion that feelings of dissatisfaction revolve around a person's evaluation of whether he or she receives adequate rewards to compensate for his or her contributive inputs. People perform these evaluations by comparing the remuneration they receive to that of relevant others. If they are remunerated adequately in comparison with others, job satisfaction results. If remuneration is not consistent with that of family and other colleagues dissatisfaction arises.

If tertiary institution sport administrators and coaches are adequately remunerated it can lead to job satisfaction. Remuneration can take many forms. If a coach wins the SASSU volleyball championships for the first time, remuneration in the form of cash, gift vouchers, a weekend away, as well as other incentives can elicit a sense of job satisfaction (Moodley and Coopoo, 2006).

Incentive pay may consist of cash bonuses for employees reaching predetermined goals. The bonus is normally tied to accounting measures and many times to the employee's job area. One way of reducing the shortcomings of each pay component is to pay the company employees with a combination of bonuses, stock pay out and salary (Coff, 2005).

An adequate basic salary allows the sport organization to compete for employees in the labor market effectively. Including stock ownership as a part of an employee's compensation package offsets the problems of accounting manipulation by company employees and may also motivate employees to focus on long term performance of the sport organization (Barney, 2003).

3.3.8   Working conditions

The perception of the working conditions under which an employee works depend on the worker (Robbins, 2003). If the working conditions are clean and attractive the employees will find it easier to carry out their jobs. If their working conditions are unpleasant employees will find it more difficult to concentrate on the job at hand (Robbins, 2003).

The working environment plays a critical role as the worker is in this environment for more than eight hours a day (Robbins, 2003). In the tertiary institution sport administration department, administrators are at their respective departments for up too nine hours a day. A poor work environment can lead to feelings of frustration and inadequacy, which ultimately can lead to poor productivity (Mobley, 1992). These feelings impact negatively on the coaches' training session. It can also lead to moodiness and feelings of distress and dissatisfaction. However, a pleasant work environment elicits feelings of satisfaction. In most tertiary institution sport departments in South Africa the physical environment is of a high standard and it is a pleasant enviroment to work in.

3.3.9   Work group

The nature of the work group will have a major effect on job satisfaction. Friendly, co-operative co-workers are a source of satisfaction to employees. The work group serves as a source of support, comfort, advice and assistance to the individual worker. A work group that is enjoyable and pleasant to be in creates positive job satisfaction. On the contrary if the work group is unpleasant to be around it will have a negative effect on job satisfaction (Luthans, 2002).

The work groups for sport administrators consists of fellow sport administrators, ground attendants, gymnasium supervisors and the director of sport. A pleasant and cohesive work group leads to a sense of satisfaction and enjoyment (Moodley and Coopoo, 2006). If the work group is un-cooperative a feeling of dissatisfaction arises. A healthy relationship with peers in the job situation goes a long way towards building a supportive and co-operative atmosphere.

3.4 Guidelines to follow to enhance job satisfaction

There are a number of other effects brought about by high job satisfaction. Luthans (2002) states that highly satisfied employees tend to have better physical health, learn new job related tasks more quickly, have fewer on the job accidents, and file fewer grievances.

Overall there is no question that employee satisfaction in jobs is desirable. It reduces stress but may also help improve performance, turnover and absenteeism (Luthans, 2002).

Luthans (2002) provides the following guidelines that management at tertiary institutions should adhere to enhance job satisfaction:

- Make jobs fun.
- Have fair pay, benefits, and promotion opportunities.
- Match people with jobs that fit their interests and skills.
- Design jobs to make them exciting and satisfying.

3.5 Theories of job satisfaction

There are various theories of job satisfaction but for the purpose of the study the theories most applicable to job satisfaction have been selected. Motivation theories can be divided into content and process theories. Content theories focus on the needs and factors that motivate behaviour while process theories focus on the origin of behaviour and the factors which influence the strength and direction of the behaviour, in other words the "how" of motivation (Luthans, 2002). For the purpose of this study the following motivation theories were selected; namely Maslow's (1954) Hierarchy of Needs, Herzberg's et al. (1959) Two Factor Motivation Theory, Lawler's (1973) Facet Model of Satisfaction, Locke's (1976) Value Based Theory of Satisfaction the Minnesota Model of Job Satisfaction and Smith's (1990) Facets of Job Satisfaction (Luthans, 2002). These theories were chosen because they are meaningful and more often used as standards in an investigation into job satisfaction.

3.5.1 Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory

Maslow's (1954) theory has a twofold basis: people continuously want things; people always want more, and what they want depends on what they already have. As soon as one need is satisfied, another takes its place. People can therefore never be fully satisfied and they behave in a particular way to satisfy a need or a combination of needs (Luthans, 2002).

Maslow (1954) suggests that human needs are arranged in a hierarchy of importance. The hierarchy ranges through five levels. These are, namely physiological needs, safety needs, love needs, self esteem needs and self actualization (Robbins, 2003).

However, Nelson and Quick (2003) criticised Maslow's hierarchy of needs in that at any particular time only one set of needs can motivate behaviour and it is not possible to skip levels.

Despite the criticisms leveled at Maslow's theory it continues to provide a useful framework for the understanding of needs and expectations. It has a significant influence on management approaches to motivation (George and Jones, 2000).

3.5.2 Frederick Herzberg's Two Factor Motivation Theory

Herzberg et al. (1959) used the critical incident technique to identify factors that made employees feel exceptionally good or exceptionally bad about their jobs. Responses were generally consistent and based on the responses. Herzberg et al. (1959) developed the two factor theory of motivation. He identified two sets of factors that influenced motivation and job satisfaction. He called one set of factors hygiene factors and the other set motivators (Kinicki and Kreitner, 2003). Hygiene factors are closely related to the working environment, and include:

- Organizational policy.
- Equipment.
- Supervision.
- Interpersonal relationships with colleagues, superiors, and subordinates.

- Salary.

- Status.

- Working conditions.

- Work security.

Hygiene factors, also called maintenance factors, do not motivate. If they are inadequately met, they cause dissatisfaction. If they are adequately met, the employee is neither dissatisfied, nor satisfied (not motivated), but feels neutral about his job. The opposite of dissatisfaction is not satisfaction but, rather, lack of dissatisfaction. A dissatisfied employee cannot be motivated (Luthans, 2002). It is therefore important that management first give attention to hygiene factors before they introduce motivators into the employee's job. Only motivators can motivate people. Motivated people exert a bigger effort than what is expected of them in achieving goals. Luthans (2002) stated that motivators, also called growth factors, are closely related to the nature and content of the work done, and include:

- Achievement (For example, successful execution of tasks).

- Recognition for what has been achieved.

- The job itself.

- Progress or growth.

- Responsibility.

- Feedback.

Robbins (2003) listed the following criticisms of the two factor theory.

- The procedure that Herzberg et al. (1959) used is limited by its methodology.

- The reliability of Herzberg's et al. (1959) methodology is questioned.

- No overall measure of satisfaction was utilized.

- The theory is inconsistent with previous research. The two factor theory ignores situational variables.

- Herzberg et al. (1959) assumed a relationship between satisfaction and productivity. To make sure research is relevant one must assume a strong relationship between satisfaction and productivity.

Regardless of criticisms, Herzberg's et al. (1959) theory has been widely used and few managers are unfamiliar with his recommendations. The popularity of vertically expanding jobs to allow workers greater responsibility in planning and controlling their work can probably be attributed largely to Herzberg's et al. (1959) findings and recommendations.

3.5.3 Lawler's Facet Model of Satisfaction

Lawler (1973) provided a good example of discrepancy theory of job satisfaction and suggested that job satisfaction is a function of the extent to which what one receives from a job matches what one thinks one should receive from the job. This simple comparison becomes more complex when several other factors come into play to determine one's perceptions of what one actually receives (Luthans, 2002).

3.5.4 Minnesota Model of Satisfaction

Researchers at the University of Minnesota have been working on the concept of job satisfaction for a long time. Their approach also emphasizes the notion of needs (Chelladurai, 1999). This instrument provides a detailed and thorough picture of the specific satisfactions and dissatisfactions of employees. It is also easy to read, only 15 minutes of the subject's time is required to complete the questionnaire and it meets the accepted standards of validity (Gerber et al., 2002).

3.5.5 Locke's Value Based Theory of Satisfaction

From a different perspective, Locke (1976) argued that individuals place more or less value on each of all possible outcomes from their jobs. The outcomes may be salary, prestige, or working conditions. Some individuals may value salary more, and others may value the prestige associated with their jobs (Chelladurai, 1999).

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3.5.6 Smith's Facets of Job Satisfaction

Smith (1990) demonstrated that the essence of job satisfaction can be captured by measuring five facets of a job: work itself, pay, promotions, co-workers and supervision. The specific instrument used to measure these five facets and the job in general is known as the Job Descriptive Index (Chelladurai, 1999).

3.6 Outcomes of job satisfaction

To society as a whole as well as from an individual employee's standpoint, job satisfaction is a desirable outcome. In examining the outcomes of job satisfaction, it is important to break down the analysis into various subsections viz: absenteeism, turnover, performance, work and non-work satisfaction and age (Herrera and Lim, 2003).

3.6.1 Absenteeism

Research shows that those employees who have less satisfaction tend to be absent more frequently. Employees who are dissatisfied do not necessarily plan to stay away, but find it easier to respond to the opportunities to do so (Moodley and Coopoo, 2006).

Merriman (2004) reported a significant relationship between job satisfaction and absenteeism of sport administrators employed at North American universities. Employees with higher levels of job satisfaction were reported to be absent less frequently than those who were dissatisfied.

Sport administrators and coaches will tend to be absent more if they are dissatisfied with their jobs. However some coaches at tertiary institutions are employed on a contract basis and if they are absent they will not get paid for the session that was supposed to be done.

3.6.2 Turnover

Turnover is the permanent withdrawal of a worker from the employing organization. Job satisfaction shows a weak to moderate negative relationship to turnover. Workers who

are satisfied with their jobs are less likely to quit than those who are dissatisfied (George and Jones, 2000).

In addition to job dissatisfaction, various factors contribute to high turnover such as workers who are young, have limited job tenure, lack commitment to the organization and who perceive their jobs to be insecure all tend to search for alternative jobs (Luthans, 2002).

The turnover rate amongst tertiary institution sport coaches is consistently high. The main reason for the high turnover in the tertiary institution environment is that coaching for many is a part time job and as soon as a full time position becomes available many coaches leave. Sport administrators and coaches, like employees in other organizations, also leave the profession when their goals and expectations are not met (Herrera and Lim, 2003).

Overall, it is fairly accurate to conclude that job satisfaction is important in contributing to employee turnover. Although no turnover is beneficial to an organization, a low turnover rate is usually desirable because of training costs and the drawback of inexperience (Haslam, 2001).

3.6.3 Performance

George and Jones (2000) conducted a study to ascertain if job satisfaction is positively associated with job performance. That is, will workers who are more satisfied with their jobs will perform at a higher level than those who are less satisfied. The results indicated that job satisfaction is not strongly related to job performance: there is a very weak positive relationship. Levels of satisfaction accounted for only about two percent of the differences in performance levels for the workers studied thus it was concluded that job satisfaction is not meaningfully associated with job performance.

The relationship between job satisfaction and performance is viewed as being weak (Kinicki and Kreitner, 2003). Coaches still have to perform well at their job even if they

have a degree of dissatisfaction. This is because their team's performance determines their job security.

3.6.4 Job satisfaction and age

Miles (2000) found a positive correlation between age and job satisfaction. In his sample he used an all female group and the career stage theory. Their findings showed a U - shaped curvilinear association between age and job satisfaction with regard to four of the job satisfaction measures used, namely pay, promotion, supervisors and co-workers. On the contrary a positive linear relationship was found between age and the job dimension of work.

The findings indicated that satisfaction is high for youthful employees immediately following employment. It then drops after the first few years and then begins to climb as individuals continue in their jobs. Newly appointed coaches and sport administrators who are young have a high degree of job satisfaction as they are eager and enthusiastic about their new jobs. As they get older and if the working environment is subject to change dissatisfaction arises (Miles, 2000).

Herrera and Lim (2003) conducted a study on the job satisfaction among athletics trainers and conclude that athletics trainers between the ages 20 and 29 had a mean of 2.11, subjects between 30 and 39 had a mean of 2.81 and subjects 50 or older had the highest mean score of 2.96. The results of the one way ANOVA test indicated that there were statistically significant differences between groups in their total job satisfaction based on the subjects' age. The results of the Scheffe post-hoc test indicate that athletics trainers between 20 and 29 had statistically significantly higher job dissatisfaction than trainers in the other age groups.

In terms of years of experience Herrera and Lim (2003) concluded that athletic trainers with one to five years of experience had a mean rating of 2.00, and subjects with 16 or more years had a mean value of 2.95. Subjects with more years of experience showed greater levels of satisfaction as opposed to their colleagues who had less than five years

of experience. This is applicable to the present study as it also investigates if years of experience had an effect on job satisfaction.

3.6.5 Physical and mental health

Physical and mental health of employees is significant for both humanitarian reasons and financial implications. This is the main reason cited for why employers are concerned with the impact of job satisfaction on employee's health. Job dissatisfaction has been linked to physical symptoms such as fatigue, shortness of breath, headaches, sweating, loss of appetite, indigestion, nausea, ulcers, arthritis, high blood pressure, alcohol and drug abuse, strokes and heart attacks (Haslam, 2001).

Kinicki and Kreitner (2003) believe that stress can have a very negative effect on organizational behaviour and on individual's health. Stress is positively related to absenteeism, turnover, coronary heart disease and viral infections. Managers can reduce the negative effects of stress by improving job satisfaction.

It can be concluded that job dissatisfaction has negative consequences for both the physical and mental health of employees while job satisfaction contributes positively to the employees' well-being.

3.7 Job satisfaction and stress

Stress is an unavoidable part of an individual's working life. Although stress can have positive effects in that the individual may feel more excited than agitated and perceive the situation positively as a form of challenge, it can also be described as posing a threat to the quality of life and to physical and psychological well-being (Kinicki and Kreitner, 2003).

Stress is a complex subject but generally it is defined as a physical, mental, or emotional reaction resulting from an individual's response to environmental tensions, conflicts pressures, and similar stimuli (Robbins, 2003).

It has been reported that coaches suffer from high levels of stress, and that excessive levels of it may lead to dissatisfaction, lower morale, and poorer work performance (Singh and Moodley, 2001). Work related stress and anxiety can not only affect the coach's health but can also have an impact on the team's overall performance. A study conducted by Moodley and Coopoo (2006) to find out the job satisfaction levels of self employed and company employed trainers revealed that stress levels were high for both sets of trainers. The main reasons cited by the personal trainers for their high levels of stress were high expectations from their clients, working on a commission structure and their long working hours.

3.8 Job satisfaction of sport administrators

Chelladurai (1999) postulates that job satisfaction is of interest to sport managers, as employees in the sport industry are often participants in the sport as well. Therefore their positive feelings about their involvement are critical measures of the effectiveness of the enterprise.

Chelladurai (1999) also makes the argument that job satisfaction should be regarded as an outcome autonomous of other organizational factors and appreciated for its own sake. Much of the previous work in sport management conducted with regard to job satisfaction has focused on a single segment of the sport industry. A study conducted by Smucker and Kent (2004) analysed job satisfaction and referent comparisons of administrators in three different segments of the sport industry.

Specifically the study examined whether these administrators in each segment made referent comparisons in formulating their job satisfaction perceptions, how many were made and to whom and/or what. Administrators (N=273) employed full time in tertiary institution sport departments in Canada responded to the Job Descriptive Index (Smucker and Kent, 2004).

The study found a significant relationship between promotion satisfaction and referent selection, and it was suggested that this relationship elevated the importance of

Herrera and Lim (2003) conducted a study to analyse job satisfaction levels of certified athletics trainers in selected NCAA division I institutions which sponsored football. The study utilized the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) to measure job satisfaction of certified athletics trainers using a rating scale of one to five.

The study revealed that there was a statistically significant difference in the levels of job satisfaction between the various employment positions including program directors, faculty, head athletics trainers, assistant athletics trainers, and graduate assistants. Graduate assistants had the lowest degrees of job satisfaction.

Male athletics trainers had a mean of 2.79 with regard to job satisfaction, while female athletics trainers had a mean of 2.27. Female athletics trainers showed statistically significantly higher dissatisfaction than their male counterparts. In terms of education the results of the Scheffe post-hoc test indicated that athletic trainers with a doctor's degree had a significantly higher satisfaction than athletics trainers with a bachelor's degree.

Koehler (1998) conducted a study on the job satisfaction of corporate fitness managers in America. Overall the corporate fitness managers were quite satisfied with their jobs. Their level of job satisfaction was reported to be an average of 79 out of a possible 100 points. However, certain satisfying aspects of the job seemed more pronounced than others. Specifically the factors shown to be significantly more satisfying than all other factors were social service, or the chance to do things for other people and moral values. Lack of opportunities for advancement and compensation were revealed to be significantly more dissatisfying.

Herrera and Lim (2003) conducted a study to examine the levels of satisfaction of elite track and field athletes in South Korea by referring to six factors; facilities, equipment, financial support, head coach's technical ability, training methods and leadership.

promotion satisfaction in a sport setting. It could be suggested that promotion is more of a status symbol and morale booster because low pay is inherent in sport (Smucker and Kent, 2004). Employees in most sport settings are aware that they are more likely to be under-compensated and, in turn may expect creativity and diversity regarding promotion (Smucker, 2001).

Koehler (1998) researched corporate fitness managers who directed fitness programs or facilities in the state of California. This group of managers experienced satisfaction with their overall employment, social services, moral values, and achievement and less satisfaction with supervision, advancement and compensation.

Weese (1995) investigated relationships among organizational culture, transformational leadership, and job satisfaction within 69 Canadian YMCA organizations. Although this endeavour more heavily emphasized leadership and organizational culture, the results did find that the administrators and employees of all YMCAs were highly satisfied with their jobs.

Song (1993) found that managerial personnel working in commercial club corporations were more satisfied with intrinsic aspects such as variety, creativity, recognition, and independence and less satisfied with extrinsic items like compensation, promotion and company policies. No difference in satisfaction was found based on age, education and work experience.

Howell and Higgins (2005) examined the job satisfaction of sport administrators employed in American and Canadian university recreation programs. The results of the study found males scored higher on job satisfaction than females and females scored higher on satisfaction with job security and autonomy than males. Additionally, the study revealed that the administrators were more satisfied with their overall employment than the general working population.

Results of the study indicated there were statistically significant differences among means of the six factors. The results of the post hoc test indicated financial support was rated significantly lower than facilities, head coach's technical ability, training methods and leadership. However, athletes were not satisfied with financial support from their club, company or school (Herrera and Lim, 2003). The results of the study are pertinent to athletes in South Africa as financial restraints often hinder them from performing against the best in the world.

A study conducted by Smucker (2003) investigating job satisfaction of female sport journalists in America revealed that female sport journalists working at daily newspapers are satisfied with their overall employment conditions. Job satisfaction was measured via six facets: long term global and overall view of the job, their fellow employees or co-workers, their supervisors, their pay, and the nature of their work, such as responsibility and autonomy and opportunities for promotion and growth.

The women were satisfied with their level of pay, and their supervision which indicates that they find their supervisors to be competent, employee centred, and considerate. The findings associated with their level of satisfaction with their co-workers indicate an admiration and mutual liking of fellow employees. The journalists were satisfied with the work itself, which demonstrates that they partake in intrinsically challenging tasks that require responsibility, creativity, and autonomy (Smucker, 2003).

The most revealing and intriguing finding relates to the facet regarding their level of satisfaction with promotional opportunities. The respondents indicated dissatisfaction with their opportunities for promotion. These findings are pertinent to the present study as the results can be compared to studies that have already been conducted in the field of sport management.

A major focus of sport management programs is preparation for a job in sports. It is logical therefore to assume that most students enrolled in such programs expect to pursue careers in the sport industry. Empirical evidence of such expectations was provided by

Parks and Sidwell (1999) in a study of 291 undergraduate sport management students. They found that 76% of the respondents indicated that they would seek sport management jobs immediately after graduation. Additionally, 69% of the respondents expected to hold jobs related to sport management five years after graduation, and 63% of them anticipated holding sport management jobs ten years after graduation.

Job placement in the sport industry has been proposed as one measure of the success of sport management programs. Brown (2000) suggested that placement in relevant positions would result in more credibility for sport management as a separate field of graduate study. Furthermore placement in the sport industry as a criterion for success is implicit in the promotional literature associated with many sport management programs. Using placement in the sport industry as a criterion for success conveys a message to students that might affect their expectations and ultimately their satisfaction with their jobs.

Most universities provide career guidance services for students. One of the major goals of such programs is assisting students in the selection of a major field of study. A fundamental principle of career guidance is that there is a direct connection between academic majors and subsequent careers (Brassie, 1999). It is relevant in the field of sport administration as you will have people in the industry who knew about their career choice in advance.

A study conducted by Ulrich (1991) used a sample of 74 alumnae of four nationally recognized sport management graduate programs in America. Ulrich used regression analysis to identify courses that would lead to increased work performance and job satisfaction. The study revealed that the respondents' assessments of their curricula were related to their satisfaction with graduate education and with employers' assessments of their work performance but were not significantly related to their job satisfaction.

Kjeldsen (1996) surveyed 60 graduates of a sport management master's program who were employed in positions related to sport. Using a one (low) to ten (high)

resource managers as employee selection, training, compensation, and motivation. Retaining employees, such as coaches and sport administrators in tertiary administration sport is critical in preventing employee turnover, maintaining a consistency in work flow, and avoiding the high cost associated with new employment recruitment and training (Inglis and Danylchuk, 1996).

Within tertiary institutions sport departments, the under representation of women has been and continues to be, an issue. While opportunities for females who participate in tertiary institution sport in Canada and the United States have grown tremendously during the past two decades, the same trend has not occurred for women in athletics coaching and management positions (Acosta, 2002).

Many studies that address the under representation of women in coaching and athletics administrative positions have focused on the entry and exit aspects of the job cycle. Findings from the studies suggest women enter coaching and athletics positions to extend involvement in competition, work with advanced or skilled athletes, serve as role models and help female athletes reach their potential (Abelson, 1996).

The reasons why females exit coaching positions and tertiary institutions administrative positions include, discriminatory practices, burnout, lack of job satisfaction, role conflict, and gender structuring that considers opportunity, power, and proportion as they affect organizational behavior (Knoppers, 2002).

Knoppers (2002) discussed individual, structural, and social relations approaches to explain coaching as a male dominated occupation. The individual approach considers one's formal qualifications, interest, abilities, and choices mostly pertaining to time, as determining access to and involvement in the organization, whereas the structural approach reflects the influence an organization has on determining individual's presence, behavior, and attitudes at work through opportunity.

measurement, Kjeldsen found a very high overall level of job satisfaction (median=9.36) and recommended additional investigation of the determinants of the high score.

A study conducted by Parks and Parra (2003) questioned whether there would be a significant difference between job satisfaction scores of alumnae employed in positions related to sport. Job satisfaction was measured by the Job Descriptive Index and the Job in General scales. The respondents were mailed the questionnaires and the research design was fair. 84 (71%) of the 118 respondents held positions related to sport and 34 (29%) were in positions unrelated to sport.

A MANOVA with follow-up ANOVAs was used to examine differences in satisfaction scores across the "jobs related to sport/jobs unrelated to sport" distinction. Except for "satisfaction with present pay", no significant differences were found. These results suggested that sport management alumnae who obtain jobs unrelated to sport may have approximately equal prospects of attaining job satisfaction as graduates who obtain jobs related to sport (Parks and Parra, 2003).

3.9   Job satisfaction of volunteer work

The study of job satisfaction in volunteer work has been sparse and sporadic because until recently, researchers believed that volunteer work was based solely on altruism, implying that volunteers had no expectations of any kind of return. Volunteer work, then is an exchange of one's time for satisfactions and psychic rewards in that work (Chelladurai, 1999). Therefore volunteer satisfaction needs to be studied and understood. Such an understanding would assist the sport administrators in recruiting and retaining the volunteers in their organizations.

Volunteer work is similar to paid work in some respect, therefore some facets of satisfaction relating to paid work may also be relevant to volunteer work. For instance, satisfaction with supervision or co-workers should be equally meaningful in both paid and volunteer work. Similarly the interactions with the clients should be the source of the same kinds of satisfactions or frustrations to both the paid and volunteer worked.

Obviously satisfactions relating to pay, fringe benefits, or promotions may not be relevant to the volunteer worker. For example, paid and volunteer workers involved in Special Olympics derive the same kind of satisfaction in serving their clients and have similar reactions to the supervision that they receive (Chelladurai, 1999).

3.10 Athlete's satisfaction

The need to discuss separately athlete satisfaction stems from two unique features of athletics. First athletes are prime beneficiaries of tertiary institution sport, that is tertiary institution sport exists for the student athletes. The second perspective is that tertiary institution sports are perceived as entertainment, that athletes become the prime producers of such entertainment. Further athletes spend an inordinate amount of time training relative to the time spent in competition. Therefore the satisfaction of an athlete over what happens during the training sessions is equally important (Chelladurai, 1999). If athletes are satisfied it will lead to greater organizational effectiveness at tertiary institution sport departments.

According to Chelladurai (1999) athlete satisfaction may indeed prove to be the ultimate measure of organizational effectiveness of an athletics programme. Thus the satisfaction of athletes gains a significant role from the perspective of management. Athletes are the prime beneficiaries of the tertiary institution sport department and the prime producers of associated entertainment. Thus their satisfaction with the involvement in the different code of sports is a major responsibility of sport administrators heading the sport department. Further athlete, satisfaction should be used in the evaluation of tertiary institution sporting programmes (Chelladurai, 1999). If athletes are satisfied it will impact positively on transformational leadership as leaders serve athletes needs.

3.11 Job Security

3.11.1 Introduction

The spectre of losing one's job as a result of corporate restructuring, mergers and acquisitions, or organizational downsizing looms in the foreground for many of today's employees (Probst and Brubaker, 2001). Fortune 500 companies alone have reduced

their total workforce from an aggregate 14.1 million employees to 11.6 million between 1983 and 1993, with approximately 500,000 U.S employees facing job loss each year as a result of these transitions (Simons, 1998).

Studies have shown that job insecurity among workers leads to job dissatisfaction, an increase in negative physical health outcomes and higher reports of psychological distress. In addition, employees with perceptions of low job security are more likely to engage in work withdrawal behaviours and report lower organizational commitment which often leads to employee turnover (Probst, 2000).

Nelson and Quick (2003) identify the following reasons that accounted for high turnover rates, viz. a feeling of inadequacy, a feeling of insecurity and companies not being loyal to employees.

Job insecurity causes negative job attitudes in the form of anxiety regarding job security and reduced satisfaction with other facets of the job, for example pay and promotion opportunities. Decreased perceptions of job security have consistently been found to be related to decrease of satisfaction in many studies (Probst, 2000).

Tertiary institution sport administrators and coaches, in times of economic recessions, mergers and uncertainty are just as worried as employees in other professions. Various professions share the same degree of uncertainty when economic conditions in a country are not stable.

3.11.2 Coaches and job security

The main concern that an individual has upon entering a new profession is job security. A study by Mangus (2004) concluded that although a team's success may be beyond the coach's control, a coach's competence is usually questioned only when the team is unsuccessful. Someone has to be blamed when the expectations of significant others are not met. As a perfect scapegoat the coach is usually relieved of his or her duties.

The coach will also serve as a scapegoat should he or she alienate himself or herself from parents, community members, administrators, or players who evaluate the coach's ability. Beyond achieving a winning record the coach is expected to include certain game strategies, use certain players and exhibit certain personal habits. Failure in any of these areas may force the coach to quit. This may be particularly true of female coaches who, as one female coach suggests, have yet to be acknowledged as experts (Mangus, 2004).

Lumpkin (2004) states that security in coaching lies in three broad areas. Firstly, coaches must rely on the ability that they have, secondly, the head coach needs to have complete faith in the players and thirdly coaches must have complete faith in their assistant coaches.

A study conducted by Singh and Moodley (2001) cited the following reasons for dismissals of coaches in South Africa: poor attitude of coach, poor team performance, political reasons and dissatisfaction of players and administrators with the coach's ability to make the team win.

Singh and Moodley (2001) concluded that it was unfair to dismiss a coach when the coach has been evaluated as an excellent instructor. Teacher/coaches, fulfilling this dual role usually perceive their primary responsibilities as coaching and winning, and sometimes perceive coaching and winning as the only real responsibilities. This perception is perpetuated by aspiring teachers/coaches who often view the two as distinct and prefer coaching because it seems to provide greater rewards (Prestus, 2001).

3.11.3 Factors in employee satisfaction and security

A worker at every level should be rewarded according to his contribution to the company. If a contribution is made by someone who has never been in a boardroom and it enables a business to flourish, he should be paid for this (Robbins, 2003).

Remuneration usually ranks third or fourth when an employee gives a reason for resigning. An employee does not know where he stands in an organization because there

is not enough feedback about his performance (Van Zyl, 2000). Van Zyl (2000) believes that most people move on because they believe they contribute little to a company and the work does not promote their experience or career growth.

These reasons point to an environment of uncertainty where people don't easily develop. An employee wants to see a clear link between the contribution he makes and the money he earns. Sport coaches fall in this category and when they believe that their work does not promote their career growth they leave the profession (McShane and Von Glinow, 2002).

Companies with policies that lead to insecurity mostly for short-term reasons will suffer more problems than average in staff turnover, morale and lack of trust and loyalty. Eventually, the outcome is weaker financial results (Van Zyl, 2000). No one escapes the uncertainty nowadays because managers worldwide fall victim as much as workers to mergers, downsizing of operations and closure of divisions. Roskom (2000) states that management needed to give urgent attention to the effects of restructuring on employee relations in companies. Structural change is a painful process in any business but with the necessary precautionary measures, a company can get back on track quickly.

The recent mergers of tertiary institutions in South Africa had a profound effect on job security and job satisfaction of tertiary institution sport administrators and coaches. Changes have an effect on the attitude, morale and performance of all employees and sport administrators and coaches are no exception.

Managers should not underestimate the demoralising effect of a merger that falters. In times of uncertainty the most productive employees usually leave the company, which places a huge burden on those left behind and can even lead to burnout (Van Zyl, 2000).

After restructuring is completed, a company must have capable people available to steer the company towards profitability as quickly as possible. Managers can cause workers to

perform poorly if processes like restructuring are not managed correctly (Van Zyl, 2000). Tertiary institutions' executive management should take cognisance of this.

To prevent a problem like this from arising, management should set sharply focused targets and make the work environment pleasant. Management has to show support for workers. Most companies usually do not have a clear strategy. They usually think it is sufficient to change continually, but there is not much talk of changing according to a carefully planned strategy (Van Zyl, 2000).

Employees of tertiary institution sport departments need to realise that company promises will be to no avail if staff realise that these have no basis. Proper investment in people makes a big difference in terms of employee satisfaction and security (Van Zyl, 2000).

The various factors involving a lack of job security include companies not retaining skilled workers at every level, not giving recognition, an uncertain work environment, and management not giving enough attention to the restructuring process. These factors which contribute to a lack of job security are pertinent to this study as they may contribute to whether coaches feel insecure about their jobs (Merriman, 2004).

3.11.4 Understanding retention factors in coaching and sport administration positions

Within tertiary institution sport departments, the retention of coaches and athletics administrators continues to be an issue. Understanding the factors considered important for retaining coaching and athletics management positions has potential significance for reversing the decline of the number of individuals, in particular women in these positions, and for increasing the attractiveness of such career pathways (Inglis and Danylchuk, 1996).

The retention function in human resource systems deals with managing and promoting constructive employee membership behaviors (Martin, 2004). This function according to Surajlal (2004) does not receive the same degree of systematic attention from human

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The social relational approach refers to power relations in the workplace and includes issues of discrimination, harassment, race and sexual orientation. Parkhouse (2001) states that women's limited progression within an organization "can be due to their gender, the organizational context and/or the larger social and institutional system in which they function".

However, limited research has identified and substantiated the use of retention strategies for staying in one's position. Schell and Rodriguez's retention model (2002) was built on employee job satisfaction and considered supervisor behavior, co-worker behavior, and working conditions in the corporate setting.

An understanding of the factors considered important to staying in coaching and athletic management positions can be useful in explaining the social conditions in the workplace for women and identifying how these experiences may differ from those of males in a dominant male culture. Understanding the factors associated with retention have potential significance for reversing the decline in the number of individuals, in particular women, from these positions and for increasing the attractiveness of such career paths (Knoppers, 2002).

Inglis and Danylchuk (1996) developed a scale that was carried out in four stages to understand the factors considered important for retaining coaching and athletics management positions. Questionnaires were administered to a population of athletics administrators (n=77) and coaches (n=760) of intercollegiate athletics programs in Canada and the United States (n=837). Specifically, the administrators and coaches represented three athletics conferences.

They concluded that 33 of the 49 initial items resulted in an empirically supported three-factor solution on importance and fulfillment scales. The factors Work balance and Conditions, Recognition and Collegial Support, and Inclusivity- provide a foundation for a model that begins to explore why intercollegiate coaches and administrators would be motivated to stay in their positions, thus adding to the understanding of the retention

function in the workplace. These factors reflect three significant aspects of athletics work environments that coaches and administrators have identified as important for staying in their positions (Inglis and Danylchuk, 1996).

3.11.5 Challenges of employee retention in the sport industry

Retention of talented employees can be a source of advantage for an organization. However there are many challenges in attempting to retain these employees (Singler, 2004). In a perfect world the productive employees are encouraged to stay within the organization and nonproductive poor performers are encouraged to leave. In fact, if it were measurable a sport organization would keep employees whose contribution produces a positive risk adjusted profit for the firm and who will also have a more positive influence on the firm than any employees hired to replace them. However it is no easy task to carry out this goal (Barney, 2003).

The loss of talented employees can be detrimental to the sport organization's future success. Outstanding employees may leave an organization because they become dissatisfied, underpaid or unmotivated. Retaining employees within the organization presents other challenges as well. They may demand higher wages, not comply to organization practices, and not interact well with their co-workers or comply with their managers' directions (Coff, 2005).

3.11.6 Retention of talented employees

Besides using compensation, retaining talented employees may also be accomplished through improving their job satisfaction. Management can ensure talented employees are given autonomy in their job functions and are given meaningful assignments, allowing them to be involved in the decision making for their areas of expertise. Pleasant working conditions can also entice productive coaches and sport administrators to stay in their sport organization and not look elsewhere (Barney, 2003).

In addition offering these talented employees training to keep them current on their job functions and allowing them to learn new skills can also be utilized to improve employee satisfaction with the organization.

3.12 Ethics in coaching

3.12.1 Introduction

Ethics means more than being honest and obeying the law; it means being morally good. Every athlete, every coach has to face the ethical dilemma of "What is ethics and what criteria do we follow". Knowing what is right and what is wrong defines the boundaries of ethics. Those involved in sport organizations need to be their own public relations experts and make decisions on what is best for them and their organization. But how many of those involved in sport know how to deal with a controversial issue? Coaches and sport administrators need to be educated in this issue of sport administration (Donald, 2004).

3.12.2 Principles of ethical behavior

Merriman (2004) defines ethics as "a set of criteria by which decisions are made about what is right and wrong". The most ethical person in any sport organization should be the sport administrator and coach. Deciding how a coach and sport administrator should develop ethical behavior begins by looking at four factors: traditional ways in which the situation has been viewed or handled in past, public currently acceptable behavior to the majority of people, law behaviors that are permissible and those that are prohibited by legislation, ethical standards set out by the profession.

The world of sports is bound by rules and is very fragile in the face of the moral quest for betterment. Those people in a position of sport leadership must possess a strong sense of priorities, purpose and ethics for themselves and their programs. The sport participants and the sport should begin with looking at the coach and the four obligations a coach should satisfy (Dulaney, 2004).

One might question if ethics in sport should have principles and values. The principles speak largely to character development, not the accumulation of victories. Four tenets have been identified and linked to modern sports. They are athletes must always be considered ends and not means, the competition must be fair, participation, leadership, resources and rewards must be based on achievement rather than ascribed characteristics, the activity must provide for the relative safety of the participants. These tenets intertwine sport's ideals and ethics. Each tenet sustains the inherent and traditional values of sports, reinforcing the goodness of the experience (Dulaney, 2004).

Increasing the professionalism in coaching can be accomplished by following a code of ethics. The role of the coach is viewed by various groups in the public. The code of ethics not only involves dealing with athletes but other groups as well (Merriman, 2004).

Coaching professionals must recognize that while decisions can be made alone, the effects of the decision may be far reaching and can reflect on the integrity of the individual who made the decision and on his/her organization. The professional must ask themselves questions to consider in order to maintain an ethically principle-centered perspective in a decision making process (Donald, 2004).

Leaders as well as followers in any group must establish the ethical tone for the organization. If leaders at all levels, junior high to college, choose to act beyond reproach, reward correct behavior, and refuse to tolerate wrong doing, there is a much greater chance that the entire organization will behave ethically (Lumpkin, 2004).

3.13 Transformation in sport

3.13.1 Introduction

Transformation in sport is a highly sensitive issue in post apartheid South Africa. It is frequently in the spotlight, with the African National Congress (ANC) government demanding representative teams while some fans say players should be chosen on merit only. In order to understand the reasons for the problems and challenges regarding

transformation in sport in many sport organizations in South Africa, it is important to understand how sport evolved in South Africa.

3.13.2 Origins

For many centuries the various "Black peoples showed very little interest in the organized sports codes of the white man" (Surajlal, 2004). They found their recreation in traditional activities such as hunting and tribal dancing, while whites engaged in target shooting, dancing, horseracing, music, card and clay games (Singh, 2002). It was the white group with its European background that played the established sports and began to participate internationally with a remarkable degree of success. During this period the people that wielded the political power were the whites, and blacks were not allowed to integrate with whites in sport participation.

3.13.3 Politics and sport

The National Party (NP) came into power in 1948, and soon experienced conflict with its handling of so-called non-white people (Gouws, 2001). During the apartheid era, sport in South Africa was governed by a dichotomous system. This comprised a white established side and a black non-established side. As a result many sports movements, for example the South African Council on Sport (SACOS), the South African Sports Association (SASA) and the South African Non-racial Olympic Committee (SANCROC), evolved parallel to the government- supported structures evolved (Surajlal, 2004).

This led to a clear demarcation between so-called "establishment" sport (also called "racist" or "white sport" and "non-establishment sport" (COSAS Activity Report, 1991-1993). Whilst the establishment side had sporting links with the apartheid government and had access to modern facilities, opportunities and sophisticated training methods, the non-established side had to be content with make-shift facilities and virtually no training opportunities (Goslin, 1996).

This had a profound impact and influence on opportunities for both coaches and athletes. The makeshift facilities diminished the scope for the development amongst coaches and athletes. Participation by South Africans of colour at various levels of competition posed a problem. During this period, virtually all codes of sport were organized for whites only (Goslin, 1996).

Furthermore the 1950s were characterized by the increasing insistence of non-white sports people on national and international participation. This gave rise to various pressure groups. In the late 1950s the South African Non Racial Olympic Committee (SANROC) was formed. Its aim was to take up the struggle against apartheid in Olympic sports. With international sport SANROC succeeded in eventually isolating South Africa from international participation (Singh, 2002).

This isolation had a negative impact on the education and training of coaches, administrators and officials. As a result of the several different sport bodies that controlled sport, many of the functions that a single body could fulfill were duplicated.

3.13.4 Transformation of sport in South Africa

Transformation in the history of South Africa has been a thorny issue. However, this process is important in order to level the playing fields in a number of professions that the black population was prevented from gaining access to. This section will review the steps taken by the government to address the transformation process in sport.

The National Department of Sport and Recreation White Paper (1997) defines transformation as a conscious, deliberate, planned and goal directed process of fundamentally changing the conditions that have in the past led to the deliberate exclusion of the majority of our people from meaningful participation in sport and recreation and from taking their rightful place in the sports movement of the world.

The entry of South Africa into the international sporting arena and the re-organization of all codes of sport in our country were made possible in the 1990s through fundamental

political changes. Sport, which played a crucial role in the isolation and eventual destruction of the apartheid regime, would now be required to play a significant role in the construction of the new non-racial, non-sexist and democratic South African nation. The National Department of Sport and Recreation White Paper of 1997 states that in order for sport to play this crucial role the basis of its social organization, administration and orientation under apartheid would have to be reconfigured rebuilt and fundamentally transformed. The tertiary institutions sport departments and all codes of sport in South Africa were also subject to transformation.

3.13.5 The political context of transformation

South Africa's first democratically elected government in 1994 presented new challenges for sport as it heralded the beginning and not the culmination of a process of change that would touch all aspects of South African society and its people. Given the racially divided history of sport in our country it was destined to be the main element of the overall transformation agenda. The National Department of Sport and Recreation White Paper (1997) states that although enormous progress has been made with the transformation process a lot still remains to be done.

3.13.6 Sport in South Africa as a nation builder

The potential of sport as a nation builder has been emphasized by many scholars over decades. Historically if this aspect is utilized in a proper manner, sport as part of civil society, can make a major contribution in uniting the fragmented groups in society. It is important to understand the core of nation building. Nation building is essentially subjective, a sense of social well-being and ultimate loyalty amongst a group of people. Naturally in South Africa, because of its inherited past this will be a very complex process and needs to be managed with care. The general feeling of goodwill and optimism among the South African public after victories in the 2005 Rugby World Cup and the African Cup of Nations brought the nation together (Gouws, 2001).

The high numbers of elite statesmen and politicians participating in the victory ceremonies were also important in highlighting the potential that sport offers as a

potential nation builder. However if sport is not utilized properly it could serve as a divider in society. After the euphoria that sport brought during the 1995-1996 period these positive feelings in South Africa quickly turned to the opposite extreme (Gouws, 2001).

It is evident that the South African government has adopted a more interventionist approach to transformation in sport. This strategy also enforced transformation and sport quotas. It is evident that there is serious discontent with the pace and process of transformation in sport. The one view is that the highly controversial system of sport quotas is undermining the nation building capacity of sport and that it is also detrimental to the ability of teams to compete successfully at international level (Gouws, 2001).

The opposite view was articulated by President Mbeki when he stated in 2003 that the representativeness of South African teams is more important than victories and that transformation should be speeded up even if this undermines their ability to be successful at international level. In essence sport quotas are aimed at rectifying past injustices in sport. It is in essence giving someone preferential treatment, because of earlier discriminating practices against people of colour (Mbatha, 2003).

Transformation in sport needs to be looked at from a different angle. Sport quotas are by nature a quick fix which creates the impression that sport development is on track. The focus of sport quotas is therefore mainly at exiting level, provincial and national level. However sport policy should be aimed at the entry level and not the exit level. Acceleration should be at primary and secondary school level where civil society, with the assistance of funding from the government should launch a major project to supply expert teaching and coaching, and develop training facilities for the youth to develop their skills (Gouws, 2001). If employers of sport administrators and coaches adhere to these regulations, transformation will be achieved in the sporting industry.

Currently in South Africa there is a very small number of black coaches and professional sport players in certain codes of sports, due to the fact that sport was not high on the list

of priorities of former black schools. Black people were not exposed to the various codes of sport at school level, so a career in the sporting industry was not an obvious choice for many blacks. South Africa's sport minister Makhenkesi Stofile stated that he wanted to see transformation completed by 2010 (Mbatha, 2003). The national cricket and rugby teams in South Africa still have a majority of white players. However, with recent transformation developments and more emphasis being placed in the sporting industry, it is only a matter of time before the number of black coaches, black players and sport administrators in the fitness industry will increase.

3.14 Gender equity in sport

3.14.1 Introduction

In the wake of the modern feminist movement that began in the early 1970s, a number of women's roles expanded into areas traditionally occupied by men; the world of sport was no exception.

3.14.2 Leadership roles in sport

In terms of leadership positions in women's sports, females have lost far more than they have gained. Before 1972 in America over 90% of all head coaches in women's athletics were female; today that figure stands at just 44%, a statistic that represents an all-time low (Acosta, 2002). And even though the overall number of head coaching jobs in women's sports has increased by approximately 1000 since the mid 1980s, Acosta (2002) found that, between 2000 and 2002, while there were 361 new head coaching jobs for women's teams, men were hired for 90% of them.

The picture of women in administrative positions is even bleaker. Whereas before Title IX women occupied the vast majority (over 90%) of all athletics director positions in women's athletics, more recent data show the figure to be approximately 18% (Acosta, 2002). It is even more troubling to see that women have not only been denied admission into leadership roles in men's sport but they have actually lost ground in their own domain.

Some researchers have suggested that this employment trend occurred because men are better qualified than women, but this belief is not supported by empirical evidence. Research studies have indicated that women are often as or more qualified than their male counterparts. In a nationwide investigation Acosta (2002) asked those responsible for recruiting and hiring college head coaches who are athletics directors to list the reasons for the dramatic decline in the number of women coaches in America. Their findings indicated that male athletics directors perceived the four most important reasons to be:

- Lack of qualified female coaches.
- Failure of women to apply for job openings.
- Lack of qualified female administrators.
- Time constraints due to family obligations.

Parks (2003) empirically tested two such beliefs - that women are less qualified and are more restricted than men because of family obligations. Parks (2003) discovered that female coaches were more qualified in terms of coaching experience with female teams, professional training and professional experience.

Parks (2003) further discovered that male coaches were more restricted due to family responsibilities. These findings suggest that harmful stereotypes can disadvantage females who want to become coaches because the beliefs were expressed by male directors and appear to be based more on a gender-stereotypic bias about female competence than on any objective data.

A study conducted by Chelladurai (1999) concluded that females who were coached by women were more likely to be interested in entering the coaching profession than were females who were coached by men.

3.14.3 Small colleges lag on sport opportunities for women

Reports submitted to the U.S department of education also show that many colleges, large and small, do not appear to have got the message of gender equity in sports. At 707

institutions, the proportion of women playing sports lagged behind the proportion of women in the student body by more than 20 percentage points (Welch, 2004).

In 2003, 120 colleges in America gave women a significantly smaller share of scholarship dollars than the amount specified by guidelines issued under Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972, the law that bans gender discrimination at institutions receiving federal funds. The education department has said that athletics scholarships should be awarded to women in exactly the same proportion as there are women on varsity teams, in the absence of nondiscriminatory circumstances (Watt, 2003).

The 120 colleges fell short in their scholarship allocations by at least five percentage points. At more than 230 institutions, women's sports received less than 30% of the operating budget for all athletics teams. Colleges outside the NCAA's Division 1 have rarely faced scrutiny under Title IX, but that is changing in some states. A report commissioned by the California Postsecondary Education Commission found that 84% of that state's community colleges were not in compliance with law, as were 43% of four year institutions (Welch, 2004).

On the whole women's teams received about 36% of operating expenses for athletic departments, on average. In Division I, that number was only 34%. In Division III, however, women's teams got 41 percent of sport budgets, and colleges in the National Association of Intercollegiate Athletics allocated 42% to women. The data come from reports filed with the Department of Education by almost 2000 institutions (Welch, 2004).

3.15 Summary
The chapter addressed the issue of job satisfaction, job security, and transformation in the sport industry as well as gender issues. Job satisfaction can be measured via the Job Descriptive Index, Job Diagnostic Survey, Minnesota Satisfaction Survey and the Job Satisfaction Survey.

It was found that various factors such as salary, supervision, the work itself, promotions, status and recognition, utilization, remuneration, working conditions and the work group have an effect on job satisfaction or dissatisfaction. It is pertinent to this study to see how sport administrators and coaches regard their levels of satisfaction or dissatisfaction with regards to the above factors.

The chapter identified other contributing factors that are linked to job satisfaction which are absenteeism, turnover, performance and age as well as physical and mental health. These all have an effect on satisfaction or dissatisfaction levels and are crucial in this study.

Various theories of job satisfaction namely Maslow's (1954) Hierarchy of Needs Theory Herzberg's et al. (1959) Two Factor Theory, Lawler's (1973) Facet Model of Satisfaction, Minnesota Model of Satisfaction and Smith's (1990) Facets of job satisfaction are pertinent to the study of job satisfaction of sport administrators and sport coaches.

It emerged that concerns about job security have been on the rise in recent years and affects not only sport coaches, but employees in other professions. The security levels experienced by sport coaches employed at tertiary institutions, determine if they stay in the coaching profession or not.

The issue of transformation in South African sport was examined. Transformation is a goal directed process of fundamentally changing the conditions that have in the past led to the deliberate exclusion of the majority of South Africans from participating in sport. It is an ongoing process and sport administrators and coaches who are also part of the fitness industry are also subject to it. If these issues are addressed and solutions found job satisfaction and security will be enhanced in the coaching profession.

In the wake of the modern feminist movement begun in the early 1970s, a number of women's roles expanded into areas traditionally occupied by men, and the world of sport

was no exception. This chapter looked at the ethics of coaching, the evolution of gender equity in sport, leadership roles of female sport administrators, media coverage of female athletes as well as small colleges lagging on sport opportunities for women.

No studies in the past have been conducted on job satisfaction, job security, transformation in sport, leadership and organizational effectiveness of tertiary institution sport administrators and coaches in South Africa. The author believes that the findings of this research will make a positive contribution to the sporting industry as a whole. The next chapter will discuss the research methodology employed in the study.

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CHAPTER FOUR: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the nature of the study, survey method and the research instrument employed. It further describes how data for the study were analysed.

4.2 The nature of the study

The research method employed for this study is the questionnaire method. After conducting in-depth interviews, questions that the researcher felt were pertinent arising from interviews were asked. McDaniel and Gates (1998) state that quantitative research uses mathematical analysis and can reveal statistically significant differences between samples.

The questionnaire has, apart from lower cost, certain other advantages. It is easy to understand. This assures anonymity of the responses which would assist in eliminating any doubts that sport administrators and coaches might have about answering questions of a contentious nature. The questionnaire was also designed for ease of completion at the respondents' own convenience.

However, the questionnaire study has inherent limitations such as the respondents may discard the questionnaires and forget to respond to them leading to a low response. Another disadvantage is that the respondents must be in literate populations. Respondents might misinterpret items, offer wrong information and the respondents might fail to answer all the questions leading to some questionnaires being discarded. It was not a problem in the present study as all heads of tertiary administration sport departments were contacted and questions pertaining to the questionnaire were explained in detail.

The researcher attempted to overcome these shortcomings by telephonically reminding respondents to complete the questionnaire. The questionnaire was worded appropriately to make it easy for the respondents to answer all questions, thus minimizing the risks of sport administrators and coaches not answering all questions.

4.3 Ethical consideration

Ethical clearance was obtained from the Research Administration at the University of KwaZulu-Natal (Appendix 9). The respondents assessed in this research requested that the names of the institutions be excluded from the study and that a policy of anonymity is adhered to. All respondents were asked to fill in an informed consent form (Appendices 3 and 4).

4.4 The research population and sample

For the purpose of this study all sport administrators and coaches employed at tertiary institutions affiliated to the South African Student Sport Union (SASSU) were used. Permission to conduct the research at the various tertiary institutions was obtained from the South African Students Sports Union (SASSU) and the sport bureaus at each of the institutions.

In this research the population consists of 41 tertiary institutions' sport departments in South Africa affiliated to the South African Student Sport Union (SASSU). A total of 140 sport administrators and 300 coaches were selected for this study and a response rate of 78% (n=109) was received from sport administrators and 76% (n=227) was received from coaches. The tertiary institution sports departments are geographically segmented throughout all provinces in South Africa. The population was further broken down into universities, tecknikons and colleges affiliated to SASSU. A list of SASSU affiliated tertiary institutions together with their phone numbers and addresses was obtained from the SASSU website. Of these 22 were universities, ten were technikons and nine were colleges.

All subjects were aware of the purpose of the study and the aims and objectives and all signed informed consent to take part in the study. Of the 41 institutions only 38 institutions returned the questionnaire sent to them.

4.5 The interview

Interviews were conducted to assist the researcher in formulating the final questionnaire. The interview schedule was organized around the following questions. These questions were asked to sport administrators and coaches employed at tertiary institutions in South Africa.

- Biographical information concerning age, number of years in the profession, and level of qualification.
- Level of job satisfaction.
- Level of job security.
- The process of transformation and gender equity in the sport administration field.
- The style of leadership implemented.
- If coaches were content with their sport administrator's leadership style.

4.6 Pilot study

The preliminary questionnaire was distributed to 20 sport administrators and 50 coaches in KwaZulu-Natal. The interview was also part of the pilot study. Prior arrangements were made to meet with each respondent and the questionnaire was completed in the presence of the researcher.

Immediate feedback was obtained with regard to:

- Clarity of the questions.
- Interpretation of the questions.
- Ambiguity.
- Identification of semantic difficulties encountered when completing the questionnaire.
- Identification of other queries and confusing aspects.

It was only after this pilot study was completed that the final corrections to the questionnaire were made and it was re-administered to a pilot group a week later, in order to attempt at least face validity of the questionnaire.

4.7 The questionnaires

Two sets of questionnaires had to be administered for the purpose of this study. Questionnaire One had to be administered to sport administrators and Questionnaire Two to coaches employed at all SASSU affiliated tertiary institutions in South Africa. There were three main research instruments used in this research namely the Multifactor Leadership Questionaire, The Job Satisfaction Survey and an Organizational Effectiveness instrument. The questionnaire was administered to 300 coaches and 140 sport administrators. Respondents were also asked to fill in an informed consent form (Appendix 3 and 4). Of the various techniques available the postal method was considered the most convenient, particularly from a cost perspective.

A six week allowance was made for the respondents to return the questionnaires. Returns were monitored and sport administrators and coaches who had not responded after four weeks were contacted telephonically in order to ascertain whether they had received the questionnaire, and also to stress the importance of their responses to the study, as well as its mutual benefit. It was encouraging to note that there was a steady increase in the response rate following these telephonic reminders. At the end of eight weeks, 78% (n=109) responses were received from sport administrators and 76% (n=300) were received from coaches. The reason why coaches were used is because they had to rate their sport administrators leadership ability.

4.7.1 Questionnaire One (For the sport administrators)

Sport administrators had to fill in Questionnaire One. Questionnaire One comprised five sections namely:

Section one: Biographical data

These questions were questions 1.1 to 1.8. Respondents were asked to place crosses next to questions related to age, number of years that they have been sport administrators, their designation, home language, race group, gender, and the province they work in and their academic qualifications.

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Section two: Occupational choice and motivation

This section comprised questions 2.1 to 2.12. It comprised open ended and close ended questions. These questions were related to sport administration as their choice of profession. Respondents were asked if they ever regretted their career choice, if they had an opportunity to start their career life again would they choose another profession, if they belonged to a trade union, and questions pertaining to the education process of sport administrators were posed. Furthermore there were questions pertaining to the number of training courses attended, levels of stress experienced in the job and if their departments adhere to meeting their goals for the year to achieve organizational effectiveness.

Section three: Job satisfaction

This section comprised questions 3.1 to 3.36. and were all likert type questions. Respondents were asked to circle the one number for each question that comes closest to reflecting their opinion about it. Permission to use the questionnaire was obtained from Professor Paul Spector. The following rating sale was used (Table 4.1):

Table 4.1   Job satisfaction rating survey (Spector, 1997).

JOB SATISFACTION SURVEY Paul E. Spector Department of Psychology University of South Florida . Copyright Paul E. Spector 1994, All rights reserved						
PLEASE CIRCLE THE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH QUESTION THAT COMES CLOSEST TO REFLECTING YOUR OPINION ABOUT IT.	Disagree very much	Disagree moderately	Disagree slightly	Agree slightly	Agree moderately	Agree very much
I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do.	1	2	3	4	5	6

* Administered with permission.

Section four: Leadership

This section comprised questions 4.1 to 4.45 and is known as the leader version of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire. These questions were designed to help respondents to describe their leadership style as they perceived it. Respondents were asked to circle the one number for each question that comes closest to reflecting their opinion about it. The following rating scale was used (Table 4.2):

Table 4.2 Multifactor leadership questionnaire rating scale (Bass, 1995).

Leader version of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Bass and Avolio Department of Management State University of New York Copyright Bass and Avolio (1995). All rights reserved.					
PLEASE CIRCLE THE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH QUESTION THAT COMES CLOSEST TO REFLECTING YOUR OPINION.	Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently if not always
I provide others with assistance in exchange for their efforts.	0	1	2	3	4

*Administered with permission.

Section five: Organizational effectiveness

This section comprised questions 5.1 to 5.14. This section was designed to help respondents rate their organizational effectiveness as they perceive it. Respondents had to circle the one number for each question that comes closest to reflecting their opinion about it. The following rating scale was used (Table 4.3):

Table 4.3   Organizational effectiveness rating scale (Chelladurai, 1991).

Organizational Effectiveness Questionnaire Chelludurai Ohio State University Copyright Chelludurai (1991). All rights reserved.				
PLEASE CIRCLE THE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH QUESTION THAT COMES CLOSEST TO REFLECTING YOUR OPINION ABOUT IT.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Job responsibilities are sensibly organized in your department.	1	2	3	4

* Administered with permission.

4.7.2   Questionnaire Two (For the coaches)

Coaches employed at tertiary institutions had to fill in Questionnaire Two.

Questionnaire Two comprised the following sections namely:

Section one: Biographical data

These questions ranged from question 1.1 to 1.8. Respondents were asked to place crosses next to questions related to age, how many years they have been coaches, their home language, their gender, their race, qualifications the province they are from and code of sport they are coaching.

Section two: Occupational choice and education

This section comprised questions 2.1 to 2.12. It comprised open-ended and close ended questions. These questions were related to coaching as their choice of profession. Respondents were asked if they ever regretted their career choice, if they thought their jobs were secure, if they were given the opportunity to start their career life again would they choose another profession, and questions regarding the education process for coaches and sport administrators.

Section three: Job satisfaction

This section comprised questions 3.1 to 3.36. These questions were intended to indicate their level of job satisfaction as they perceived it. Respondents were asked to circle the one number for each question that came closest to reflecting their opinion about it see Table 4.4.

Table 4.4   Job satisfaction rating scale (Spector, 1997).

JOB SATISFACTION SURVEY Paul E. Spector Department of Psychology University of South Florida Copyright Paul E. Spector 1994, All rights reserved.						
PLEASE CIRCLE THE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH QUESTION THAT COMES CLOSEST TO REFLECTING YOUR OPINION ABOUT IT.	Disagree very much	Disagree Moderately	Disagree slightly	Agree slightly	Agree moderately	Agree very much
The goals of this organization are not clear to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6

*Administered with permission.

Section four: Leadership

This section comprised questions 4.1 to 4.45. Coaches had to fill in the rater version of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire. This questionnaire was designed to describe the leadership style of their sport administrator as they perceived it. The following rating scale was used (see Table 4.5):

Table 4.5   Leadership questionnaire rating scale (Bass, 1995).

Leader version of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Bass and Avolio Department of Management State University of New York Copyright Bass and Avolio (1995). All rights reserved.					
PLEASE CIRCLE THE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH QUESTION THAT COMES CLOSEST TO REFLECTING YOUR OPINION.	**Not at all**	**Once in a while**	**Sometimes**	**Fairly often**	**Frequently if not always**
I provide others with assistance in exchange for their efforts.	0	1	2	3	4

* Administered with permission.

4.7.3   The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

The Multifactor leadership Questionnaire was formulated from the Full Range Leadership Development Theory (Bass and Avolio, 1997). The development of the factors of the Full Range Leadership Development Theory has lead to the development of the scales used in the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire. Initially, a total of 142 items of leadership behaviour was initially generated from a review of the theoretical literature and on the basis of responses to an open-ended survey of 70 senior executives, all of whom had experience with a transformational leader (Bass and Avolio, 1997).

A detailed definition of transformational and transactional leadership was then given to 11 students enrolled in a graduate seminar on leadership. These students were asked to read important information dealing with the distinction between transactional and transformational leadership, and each sorted the 142 items into three categories, namely: transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and "can't say". From the results of the study, 73 items were selected for inclusion in a questionnaire. After a sample of 176 military officers completed this questionnaire, a factor analysis, using varimax rotation of these 73 items was conducted.

Factor analysis conducted by Bass (1995) using varimax rotation of 73 items, yielded the seven leadership factors that constitute seven of the nine components now included in the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire form 5X (discussed in more detail in the following section). The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire has been modified and tested since 1985, with the result that various forms or versions have been developed. The latest form, Form 5X (Revised) is the most recent and the most refined form of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire and it was therefore used for the purpose of the study.

The form5X (Revised), contains 45 statements that identify and measure the key aspects of leadership and effectiveness behaviours shown in previous research to be strongly associated with both individual and organizational success (Bass and Avolio, 1997). Each statement corresponds to one of the nine components of transformational, transactional or nontransactional leadership factors.

Each respondent is required to assess and testify as to how frequently the behaviours dictated by each of the above-mentioned components, are exhibited by their leader (the sport administrator).

In order to gain a holistic view of the tertiary institutions' sport administrators leadership style, two types of respondents are required for the completion of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire. The sport administrators and coaches have to complete a specific version of this questionnaire that is tailored to the specific respondent (the leader or the subordinate). These two versions are known as the "rater version' and the 'leader version'. Coaches of the leader must complete the rater version, and the sport administrator must complete the leader version. Each version asks the candidates the same questions, but from different perspectives (Appendix 4 and 5).

For example:
On the leader version, question one of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire reads:
    1. I provide others with assistance in exchange for their efforts.

On the rater version, question one of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire reads:
The person I am rating-

1. Provides me with assistance in exchange for my efforts.

These questions establish the leader's style in terms of the transformational, transactional, and nontransactional leadership components as discussed in chapter four.

Appropriate respondents must complete both the rater versions and leader versions in an attempt to provide an objective rating of the leadership style within each tertiary institution sport department. For the final statistical analysis, the leader and rater versions for each tertiary institution sport department in the sample were combined, in order to gain a more holistic and objective view of the leadership style being practised within each tertiary institution sport department.

4.7.3.1 Reliability and Validity of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

Reliability and validity are two of the most important aspects to be considered when evaluating a particular instrument. An instrument is said to have a high reliability if it can be trusted to give an accurate and consistent measurement of an unchanging value (Welman and Kruger, 2001).

Test-retest reliability for the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire was conducted over a six month period and was computed using the data collected from 33 middle to upper level managers employed by a Fortune 500 firm and 193 of their associates (Bass and Avolio, 1997).

The group managers used in this analysis received team development and individual training during this six month interval and therefore, these reliabilities may underestimate the true test-retest reliability of the scales. It is likely that this training had a greater impact on self-rating, since there was some attention paid to the identifying and changing of specific behaviours identified by the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire between the first and second administrations (Bass and Avolio, 1997).

In order to establish the validity of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, Form 5X, Bass and Avolio (1997) conducted two confirmatory factor analyses using cross-validation studies. Cross-validation studies occur when a large sample is divided into two sub samples. The first sub-sample is tested and the results are then cross-validated by the results obtained by exposing the same sub sample to the same statistical analysis. The parameters of the first sub-sample are estimated and the other sub-sample is validated (Bass and Avolio, 1997).

This examination of construct validity of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Form (5X) contained 14 samples (Bass and Avolio, 1997). Of these 14, nine samples containing Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Form (5X) rater scores, received from researchers who had used the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire in their own research programs for the validation sample, were used (Bass and Avolio, 1997). These nine samples, used in the validation study, consisted of two samples from undergraduate students, one from a military organization, four from business organizations, one from a government research organization, and one from university deans of nursing schools. All nine samples were from English speaking countries.

The remaining five samples of data were kept separate and used for cross-validation purposes. The cross-validation samples were all United States organizations, two of which were business firms, and three were from public agencies, including a non-profit organization, several fire departments, and a political organization.

Scale scores for both the validation and cross-validation samples are based on the ratings of associates evaluating their leader. Reliability for each leadership factor and outcome scale ranged from 0.74 to 0.94 in the validation sample, and 0.73 to 0.93 in the cross validation sample. Most of the scales' ratings were acceptable and exceeded the cut-off point as recommended by the literature for internal consistency (Bass and Avolio, 1997).

The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire has also been tested in the South African context. Ackermann et al. (2000) used the questionnaire to determine whether the factor

structure of Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, as a measure of transformational leadership, could be replicated within the South African context. The reliability of the three main leadership scales of transformational, transactional, nontransactional leadership was determined by means of Cronbach's Alpha coefficient. Results yielded scores of 0.944, 0,736, and 0.803 respectively. The factor structure as developed by Bass (1995) was confirmed by the results of this study (Ackermann et al., 2000). The section on leadership is presented in Questionnaire One for sport administrators and Questionnaire Two for coaches (Appendix 1 and 2).

4.7.4   The Job Satisfaction Survey

The job satisfaction component was measured by the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) designed by Spector (1997) who also granted permission to use it in this study. This instrument measures general job satisfaction of employees. It covers nine important job aspects of pay, promotion, supervision, benefits, rewards, working conditions, co-workers, nature of work, and communication.

Each of these nine important job aspects has four items as sub questions in the questionnaire. For example, items 3, 12, 21, and 30 inquire about supervision. The Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) contains 36 items in total, with a 1 to 6 rating on each item. When all items of the JSS are combined they give a total satisfaction score of each participant. Participants are asked to circle one of the six ratings that represent their level of agreement or disagreement about each item (Spector, 1997).

Scoring high on the JSS indicates that an employee is satisfied with his or her job; while scoring low indicates that an employee is dissatisfied with his/her job. Individual aspects of the job can also be evaluated by combining their scores and comparing them with those of another employee. The logic stays the same, scoring high on a certain aspect means that an employee is satisfied in the particular area area of his/her job, and scoring low indicates that he/she is not satisfied with that particular area of his/her job.

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In terms of reliability of the Job Satisfaction Survey the instrument has two important aspects which are crucial when conducting social research. The JSS has internal consistency reliability which refers to how well its items relate to one another, as well as the consistency it reflects when the same underlying variable is assessed.

The second aspect is the test-retest reliability of the instrument over time. Spector (1997) states that the figures of job satisfaction remain stable when the same group of people were retested after a period of time.

In terms of its validity the JSS provided similar results to other instruments that are used to evaluate job satisfaction. Its results were similar to those of the Job Descriptive Index which is described by Spector (1997) as the most valid and reliable instrument when it was tested on the same sample of employees.

4.7.5   Organizational effectiveness

The organizational effectiveness component of this study will present 14 statements to assess subject's perception of organizational effectiveness.   These statements were modified from Chelladurai's (1991) study to measure organizational effectiveness of National Sport Organizations in Canada.   The validity of this instrument will be judged by a panel of experts in the field of sport management.   The reliability of this measure will be conducted by the test-retest option to be administered to a group of sport administrators and re administered to them a week later.

4.8   Reliability of the questionnaire

The reliability of a measure is its consistency (Leedy and Ormrod, 2001). A measure is reliable if the measurement does not change irrespective of the number of times it is measured. For the purpose of this study reliability was measured using a group of sport administrators and coaches. Questionnaires were administered to these trainers and re-administered a week later. The responses to both sets of questionnaires were fairly similar leading to the conclusion that the questionnaire used for the purpose of this study was

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fairly reliable. There was no statistically significant difference between test one and test two for the pilot study.

4.9   Administering the questionnaire

According to Bless and Kathuria (1993), there are three common methods of data collection: namely observation, interviews and questionnaires. For the purpose of this research, the mail questionnaire was used to gather the necessary information. This is a non-personal technique of data collection since the respondents complete the questionnaires without the interviewer being present. Such questionnaires are known as self administered questionnaires. This technique of data collection was used to overcome issues of cost, time, and geographical constraints.

The questionnaire was administered between April 2005 and August 2005. Each questionnaire was accompanied by a covering letter, which provided details of the researcher and purpose of the study and asked respondents for informed consent. The following conditions were offered to all respondents:

- Confidentiality was guaranteed.

- Results of the study would be made available to the respondents and also recommendations would be made with respect to the working conditions of the respondents.

- A reply-paid envelope was provided with each questionnaire sent in order to minimize the inconvenience to respondents.

4.10   Analysis of data

Once the questionnaires were received, they were coded, and responses were captured on computer.   The Statistical Programme for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 11 for Windows was used to conduct the statistical tests. The Microsoft Excel programme was used to generate the preliminary analysis comprising bar graphs, pie graphs and tables. Means, percentage frequencies and test of significance was also conducted on the data. The statistical difference between leadership styles of sport administrators was determined. Satisfaction levels of both coaches and sport administrators were determined.

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The means and standard deviation for the levels of satisfaction between sport administrators and coaches was also computed. Data were presented using tables and bar graphs. Open ended questions were also interpreted. A rating scale of one to six was used to determine the levels of satisfaction of sport administrators and coaches. The T-tests were used to determine the differences between sport administrators and coaches.

4.11 Summary

This chapter discussed the methodology employed to conduct the study. It examined the selection of subjects, the survey method and the research instrument employed. There were three main research instruments used in this research namely the Multifactor Leadership Questionaire, The Job Satisfaction Survey and an organizational effectiveness instrument. The mail questionnaire was used to gather the necessary information for the study. A 78% (n=109) response were received from sport administrators and 76% (n=300) were received from coaches. The Statistical Programme for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 11 for windows was used to conduct the statistical tests.The next chapter will provide a discussion and analysis of the results. The hypothesis of the study which sought to investigate the leadership styles of sport administrators in South Africa was accepted. There is a transformational style of leadership being practiced at tertiary institution sport departments.

CHAPTER FIVE: RESULTS

5.1 Introduction

The results of the study for both coaches and sport administrators are presented under five broad categories, namely biographical data, occupational choice and motivation, job satisfaction, leadership and organizational effectiveness. A statistical·analysis of the results is then presented.

Where appropriate the results for coaches and sport administrators are compared. This is done to determine if there are significant differences in the levels of satisfaction experienced by both set of respondents.

A total of 140 sport administrators and 300 coaches were used for this study. A response rate of n=227 (76%) was received from coaches one of and n=109 (78%) was received ·from sport administrators. These coaches and sport administrators are employed by 41 tertiary institutions in South Africa.

5.2 Biographical data of respondents

In Table 5.1 the biographical data are presented showing age ranges, years of service, home language, gender and race.

Table 5.1 Biographical data of respondents as indicated by a percentage

Total number of respondents n=336	Coaches (n=227; 76%)	Sport Administrators (n= 109 ; 78%)
Age:		
18-25	30%	8%
25-35	40%	34%
35-45	20%	27%
45-55	10%	31%
Years of service:		
0-3Years	42%	15%
3-6 years	26%	25%
6-9 years	19%	28%
9-12 years	13%	32%
Home language:		
English	50%	34%
Afrikaans	30%	41%
Zulu	17%	11%
Sotho	3%	7%
Other		7%
Gender:		
Male	63%	79%
Female	37%	21%
Race group:		
Black	31%	25%
White	52%	70%
Asian	10%	2%
Coloured	7%	3%

The majority of the coaches (40%) were between the ages of 25 and 35, while a large percentage of sport administrators were between the ages of 25 and 35. In terms of years of service the majority of the coaches (42%) indicated that they were in the profession for none and three years while the majority of sport administrators (32%) were in the profession for nine and 12 years.

English was regarded as the main language for both coaches and sport administrators. The majority of the respondents as indicated in Table 5.1 were male, for both the coaches and sport administrators. There were 37% female sport coaches and 21% female sport administrators employed at tertiary institutions in South Africa. The most predominant race group for coaches (52%) and sport administrators (70%) was white.

Table 5.2   Qualifications, geographical demarcation and code of sport coaching as indicated by a percentage

Table 5.2 portrays the subjects qualifications, geographical region and code of sport that is coached.

Total number of respondents (n=336)	Coaches (n=227; 76%)	Sport Administrators (n=109; 78%)
Qualifications:		
Diploma	54%	50%
Degree	36%	22%
Personal experience	10%	20%
Other:	.5%	8%
Geographical demarcation:		
Western Cape	27%	24%
KwaZulu-Natal	18%	22%
Eastern Cape	14%	8%
Gauteng	20%	28%
Northern Cape	6%	6%
Mpumalanga	4%	5%
North West Province	4%	6%
Limpopo	1%	1%
Free State	6%	
Code of sport coaching:		
Athletics	5%	
Basketball	1%	
Cricket	4%	
Hockey	19%	
Netball	9%	
Rugby	23%	N/A
Soccer	24%	
Tennis	1%	
Track and field	1%	
Volleyball	9%	
Squash	4%	

The majority of coaches (54%) and sport administrators (50%) had diplomas, which were obtained from various tertiary institutions in the country. A small percentage were not

appropriately qualified that is there they had no academic qualification but had personal experience.

The respondents that participated in the study were geographically segmented throughout the country representing a diversified South Africa. The majority of the respondents for both the sport administrators and coaches were from the Western Cape followed by Gauteng, Kwazulu-Natal and the Eastern Cape.

The most popular sports being coached by respondents were rugby (23%), soccer (24 %), hockey (19%) and cricket (4%). The minority codes that were being coached were athletics (5%), netball (9%) track and field (1%). This shows that more emphasis is still placed on the the major sports even at tertiary institution level.

5.3   Occupational choice and motivation of respondents

Table 5.3 presents responses to questions that were asked relating to choice of career, opportunities, coaching experience, job security views of coaches and sport administrators, stress levels and organizational effectiveness of sport departments.

Table 5.3   Occupational choice and motivation

Total number of respondents(n=336)	Coaches (n=227; 76%)	Sport administrators (n=109; 78%)
Have you regretted your career choice:		
Yes	61%	30%
No	39%	70%
If an opportunity presented itself, would you choose another career:		
Yes	62%	27%
No	38%	73%
Do you think your job is secure:		
Yes	43%	
No	57%	
Have you been dismissed from employment before?		
Yes		
No	12%	
	88%	
Where you ever under pressure from management to resign.		
Yes	20%	
No	80%	
Do you think the qualifications that are available are sufficient to equip you in the field of coaching/sport administration:		
Yes	71%	69%
No	29%	31%

Number of courses attended since you started coaching/sport. administration:		
0-5	37%	44%
6-10	57%	31%
11-15	6%	25%
Stress levels experienced in job:		
High	59%	46%
Medium	37%	41%
Low	4%	13%
Do you belong to a trade union?		
Yes	60%	77%
No	40%	23%
Is your job description clearly stated?		
Yes	60%	77%
No	40%	23%
Does your department adhere to meeting its goals for the year to achieve organizational effectiveness.		
Yes		87%
No		13%

The majority of the coaches (61%) indicated that they regretted their career choice. The main reason for this is the perception that coaching is an insecure profession. Sport administrators (70%) indicated that they did not have any regrets over their career choice while a minority (30%) indicated that they regretted their career choice.

Sixty two percent of the coaches in the study indicated that if the opportunity presented itself they would choose another profession, while 38% said they would not. The majority of sport administrators in the study (73%) indicated that if the opportunity presented itself they would not choose another profession supporting the findings of the present study that sport administrators had no regrets about their career choice.

With regard to job security the majority of the coaches (57%) indicated that they did not think their jobs were secure while 43% were confident that their jobs were secure. Eighty eight percent of the coaches were not dismissed from employment before. The majority of coaches (80%) indicated that they were not under pressure from management to resign.

The majority of the respondents from both coaches and sport administrators indicated that the qualification programs that were available in the country were sufficient to equip them in the field of coaching and sport administration (Table 5.3).

Fifty seven percent of coaches attended between six and ten skills development courses offered by service providers. Forty four percent of sport administrators attended between none and five courses offered by service providers.

The stress levels experienced by both coaches and sport administrators were high as indicated in Table 5.3. The majority of sport administrators (46%) also experienced high levels of stress.

The majority of the coaches (60%) did not belong to a trade union while 40% belonged to a trade union. Sport administrators (77%) belonged to a trade union while 23% did not. With regard to organizational effectiveness 87% of the sport administrators indicated that their department adhered to meeting its goals for the current year.

5.3.1 Stress

In Table 5.4 the levels of stress experienced by the coaches and sport administrators are presented.

Table 5.4 Levels of stress experienced by coaches and sport administrators

Level of Stress	Coach		Sports Administrator		Chi-square		
	Count	%	Count	%	Value	df	p
High	132	58.7	50	45.8	10.8	2	0.004*
Medium	84	37.3	45	41.2			
Low	9	4.0	14	12.8			
Total	**225**	**100**	**109**	**100**			

*significant at the 0.05 level

According to Table 5.10 there was a significant difference in the levels of stress experienced by coaches and sport administrators. Coaches experienced higher levels of stress than sport administrators. The majority of the coaches indicated that they experienced high degrees of stress and coaching was a very stressful profession.

The different styles of leadership and the relationships between the styles are shown in Table 5.5.

Table 5.5 Relationship between styles of leadership and stress

Stress with	Coach			Sports Administrator		
	Pearson r	P	N	Pearson r	P	N
Transactional	0.27	0.000*	225	0.02	0.81	109
Transformational	0.39	0.000*	225	-0.03	0.78	109
Laisses Faire	-0.31	0.000*	225	0.31	0.001*	109
Leadership Style	-0.35	0.000*	225	0.04	0.68	109

* Significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

There was a significant relationship between types of leadership adopted and degrees of stress. Coaches who reported to transformational leaders coped better with stress than

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coaches who reported to transactional leaders. Sport administrators who practised transformational leadership reported medium degrees of stress.

The relationship between levels of stress between coaches and gender is presented in Table 5.6.

Table 5.6   Relationship between stress levels of coaches and gender

Level of stress (Coach)	Male		Female		Total		Chi-square		
	Count	% within male	Count	% within female	Count	% within Gender	Value	df	p
High	80	56.34	52	62.61	132	58.67	2.97	2	0.23
Medium	58	40.85	26	31.33	84	37.33			
Low	4	2.82	5	6.02	9	4			
Total	142	100	83	100	225	100			

Table 5.7   Relationship between levels of stress of sport administrators and gender

Level of stress Sports Administrator	Male		Female		Total		Chi-square		
	Count	% within male	Count	% within female	Count	% within Gender	Value	df	p
High	40	47.62	10	43.48	50	46.73	1.12	2	0.57
Medium	36	42.86	9	39.13	45	42.06			
Low	8	9.52	4	17.39	12	11.22			
Total	84	100	23	100	107	100			

Female sport coaches reported higher levels of stress than male sport coaches as indicated in Table 5.6. The majority of the male sport administrators (48%) indicated that they experienced high levels of stress in sport administration while 43% of female sport administrators experienced high levels of stress. A small minority of both male and female sport administrators and coaches experienced low level of stress in coaching, indicating that coaching is a stressful profession.

5.4 Job satisfaction of coaches

Table 5.8 presents the most important variables that coaches perceived to be important with regards to job satisfaction.

Table 5.8   Job satisfaction of coaches

Coach	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
The work itself	227	5.54	1.15
Working conditions	227	5.36	1.12
Supervision	227	5.31	0.97
Utilization	227	4.98	1.47
Pride	227	4.59	1.91
Work group	227	4.22	1.99
I am not appreciated	227	4.16	1.90
Too much bickering and fighting at work	227	4.02	1.92
I have too work harder because of incompetence of others	227	3.79	2.08
Goals of organization unclear	227	3.76	1.98
Supervision	227	3.34	1.97
Remuneration	227	3.29	2.06
Rules are unclear	227	2.81	2.21
Communication	227	2.73	2.04
Benefits	227	2.64	1.63
Promotion	227	2.49	1.82
Salary	227	2.41	2.02
Status and recognition	227	2.22	1.56

The Job Satisfaction Survey variables were ranked from highest to lowest. The variables are ranked in the table to indicate the highest levels of satisfaction felt by respondents for that particular variable of job satisfaction. Coaches expressed the greatest degree of job satisfaction with regard to the work itself which is coaching, working conditions, supervision, utilization and pride associated with their jobs. These are the top five mean rankings. Sport coaches expressed the greatest dissatisfaction with regard to

communication, benefits, promotion, salary and status and recognition as indicated in Table 5.7. These were the lowest five mean rankings.

5.5 Job satisfaction of sport administrators

Table 5.9 presents the most important variables that sport administrators perceived to be important in their jobs.

Table 5.9   Job satisfaction variables of sport administrators

Sport administrators	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
The work itself	109	5.41	0.91
Working conditions	109	5.32	1.15
Supervision	109	5.30	0.94
Utilization	109	5.25	1.20
Pride	109	5.06	1.17
I like my supervisor	109	5.04	1.52
Status and recognition	109	4.99	1.46
Work group	109	3.75	1.75
Many of the rules and procedures make doing a good job difficult	109	3.72	1.53
People get ahead as fast here as they do in other places	109	3.63	1.68
Appreciation	109	2.60	1.52
Utilization	109	2.57	1.58
Benefits	109	2.28	1.47
Communication	109	2.28	1.56
Benefits	109	2.24	1.40
Promotion	109	2.11	1.56
Salary	109	2.05	1.09
Status and recognition	109	1.57	1.12

The job satisfaction variables were ranked from highest to lowest for sport administrators as indicated by Table 5.9. The majority of the sport administrators expressed the greatest amount of satisfaction with regard to the work itself, working conditions, supervision, utilization and the pride associated with the job. They scored the highest mean ranking of 5.41 with regard to the work itself. They expressed dissatisfaction with regard to communication, benefits, promotion, salary and status and recognition. The lowest mean

ranking of 1.57 was that of status and recognition in which sport administrators expressed the highest amount of dissatisfaction.

Table 5.10   One way ANOVA: level of satisfaction by leadership style

	Age Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	P
Level of Job Satisfaction	18-25	47	3.81	0.46	0.44	0.72
	25-35	63	3.85	0.46		
	35-45	90	3.81	0.46		
	45-55	27	3.80	0.36		
	Total	**227**	**3.83**	**0.45**		
Coaches rating of sport Administrators leadership Style based on age.	18-25	47	2.21	0.74	1.26	0.29
	25-35	63	1.96	0.84		
	35-45	90	2.18	0.85		
	45-55	27	2.07	0.75		
		227	**2.11**	**0.82**		

There were statistically no significant differences between years of being a coach and the manner in which they ranked their sport administrators leadership style. Coaches who were between the ages 25 and 35 expressed the highest amount of job satisfaction as opposed to their younger counterparts. They scored the highest mean of 3.81 as opposed to coaches who were in the profession for a shorter period of time as indicated in Table 5.9. Coaches who were in the age group 18 and 25 ranked their sport administrators leadership style highly scoring a mean ranking of 2.21.

Table 5.11   Age and leadership style

Variable	Age Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Chi Square	df	P
Level of job satisfaction	18-25	9	3.51	0.26	6.19	3	0.10
	25-35	37	3.62	0.41			
	35-45	29	3.53	0.27			
	45-55	34	3.70	0.33			
	Total	**109**	**3.58**	**0.30**			
Leadership Style	18-25	9	2.53	0.39	4.92	3	0.18
	25-35	37	2.55	0.44			
	35-45	29	2.62	0.46			
	45-55	34	2.69	0.24			
	Total	**109**	**2.59**	**0.37**			

Sport administrators who were between the ages 45 and 55 expressed the greatest amount of job satisfaction with a mean ranking of 3.70. As sport administrators become more mature they express greater levels of satisfaction. The sport administrators who were between the ages 18 and 25 were the least satisfied as shown in Table 5.10. Sport administrators who were between the ages 45 and 55 scored the highest in style of leadership adopted based on age. They scored a mean ranking of 2.69 indicated in Table 5.10. The younger sport administers between the ages of 18 and 25 scored the lowest on leadership style practised with regards to age. Statistically there was no significant difference between age groups of sport administrators and levels of satisfaction and leadership style adopted.

Table 5.12   One way ANOVA: level of job satisfaction by years of service

Variable	Years of being a coach	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	p
Level of job satisfaction	0-3	43	3.82	0.45	0.89	0.45
	3-6	59	3.86	0.48		
	5-9	96	3.71	0.38		
	9-12	29	3.85	0.45		
	Total	**227**	**3.83**	**0.45**		
Leadership Style	0-3	43	2.08	0.80	0.07	0.97
	3-6	59	2.10	0.80		
	5-9	96	2.12	0.85		
	9-12	29	2.17	0.81		
	Total	**227**	**2.11**	**0.82**		

With regard to years of service and levels of job satisfaction coaches who were in the profession for 9 and 12 years expressed the greatest amount of job satisfaction as shown in Table 5.11. The coaches who were in the profession for none and three years scored the lowest mean ranking of 3.82 with regards to job satisfaction.

Coaches who were in the profession for nine and 12 years gave their sport administrators the highest mean ranking with regards to their leadership style. Coaches who were in the profession for none and three years rated their sport administrator's leadership style poorly as indicated in Table 5.11. Statistically there was no significant difference between years of being a coach and levels of job satisfaction and leadership style adopted by sport administrators.

Table 5.13   Kruskall-Wallis ANOVA: years of service by leadership style

Variable	Years of being a sports administrator	N	Mean Ranks	Mean	Std. Deviation	Chi-Square	df	P
Leadership	0-3 years	16	43.22	2.43	0.51	3.19	3	0.36
	3-6 years	14	60.43	2.70	0.24			
	5-9 years	21	52.71	2.57	0.34			
	9 years and over	58	57.77	2.62	0.36			
	Total	109		2.59	0.37			
Satisfaction	0-3 years	16	59.78	3.61	0.42	22.50	3	0.00*
	3-6 years	14	29.54	3.37	0.18			
	5-9 years	21	38.07	3.45	0.18			
	9 years and over	58	65.96	3.68	0.29			
	Total	109	43.22	3.58	0.30			

* Significant at 0.05 level.

The Kruskall Wallis ANOVA was used because of the small numbers in each category of years. There is a significant difference in satisfaction and years of being sport administrators. The mean and mean ranks indicate that those who have been a sport administrator for nine years or more have a higher score for satisfaction. This is followed by those who have been a sport administrator for none and three years.

Sport administrators who were in the profession for three and six years scored the highest (60.43) on leadership while sport administrators who were in the profession for none and three years scored the lowest on leadership style adopted.

Table 5.14   T-test results of leadership and job satisfaction based on position in sport administration departments

Variable	Designation	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	T	df	P
Leadership	Head of Department	21	2.63	0.30	0.51	107	0.61
	Sport Administrator	88	2.59	0.39			
Satisfaction	Head of Department	21	3.71	0.33	2.20	107	0.03
	Sport Administrator	88	3.55	0.29			

With regard to leadership the heads of the sport administration department had a mean ranking of 2.63 while sport administrators had a mean ranking of 2.59. This is indicative that the heads of the sport administration departments scored higher on 'leadership style' adopted than sport administrators as indicated in Table 5.13. The heads of the sport administration department scored higher on the job satisfaction component than did the sport administrators. They scored a mean ranking of 3.71 as opposed to sport administrators who scored a mean ranking of 3.55.

Table 5.15 Race group of coaches and levels of satisfaction and manner in which they ranked sport administrators' leadership style

Variable	Race group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean Rank	Chi-Square	df	p
Leadership	Black	71	3.89	0.42	122.16	2.19	3	0.54
	White	118	3.79	0.48	108.70			
	Asian	23	3.89	0.40	119.98			
	Coloured	15	3.81	0.41	107.93			
	Total	227	3.83	0.50				
Satisfaction	Black	71	2.09	0.81	112.24	1.18	3	0.76
	White	118	2.17	0.78	115.55			
	Asian	23	2.03	0.86	108.02			
	Coloured	15	2.15	1.00	129.70			
	Total	227	2.11	0.82				

White sport coaches expressed the highest amount of job satisfaction achieving a mean ranking of 115.55 while Asian sport coaches expressed the greatest amount of dissatisfaction. Black sport coaches ranked their sport administrators leadership style favourably as indicated in Table 5.14. Coloured sport administrators gave their sport administrators the lowest mean ranking of 107.93 with regards to their leadership style adopted.

Table 5.16 Sport administrators' levels of satisfaction and leadership style based on population group

Variable	Race group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean Rank	Chi-Square	df	P
Leadership	Black	27	2.56	0.52	56.41	4.08	3	0.25
	White	75	2.89	0.00	88.00			
	Asian	2	2.58	0.32	51.50			
	Coloured	3	2.74	0.02	72.17			
	Total	107	2.59	0.36				
Satisfaction	Black	27	3.49	0.37	45.43	4.76	3	0.19
	White	75	3.62	0.28	57.45			
	Asian	2	3.42	0.00	27.00			
	Coloured	3	3.65	0.32	63.00			
	Total	107	3.59	0.31				

The majority of the white sport administrators expressed the greatest amount of job satisfaction in their jobs, while Asian sport administrators had the lowest mean ranking as indicated in Table 5.15. With regard to race group and leadership white sport administrators had the highest mean ranking of 88.00, while coloured sport administrators had the lowest mean ranking with regard to race group and leadership, indicating that white sport administrators leadership style was rated favourably.

Table 5.17   Sport administrators' level of satisfaction and leadership style based on gender

Variable	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	T	Df	P
Level of Job Satisfaction	Male	65	3.86	0.44	-0.83	225	0.41
	Female	44	3.81	0.46			
Leadership Style	Male	65	2.21	0.76	2.33	225	0.02
	Female	44	1.95	0.86			

Male sport administrators had a higher level of job satisfaction than did female sport administrators as indicated in Table 5.16. They also scored higher on the leadership component scoring a mean ranking of 2.21, while female sport administrators scored a mean ranking of 1.95.

Table 5.18   Coaches level of job satisfaction and manner in which they ranked sport administrators' leadership style based on qualification

Variable	Qualification	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	F	P
Level of Job Satisfaction	Diploma	120	3.85	0.43	0.47	0.63
	Degree	79	3.83	0.47		
	Personal Experience	28	3.75	0.48		
	Total	227	3.83	0.45		
Leadership Style	Diploma	120	2.13	0.80	1.01	0.37
	Degree	79	2.04	0.83		
	Personal Experience	22	2.31	0.86		
	Total	227	2.11	0.82		

Coaches who were in possession of a National Diploma had the highest levels of job satisfaction. Coaches who had personal experience scored the lowest with regards to job satisfaction as indicated in Table 5.17.   Coaches who had personal experience in coaching rated their sport administrator's leadership skills favourably. Coaches who were in possession of degrees ranked their sport administrators leadership skills unfavourably.

Table 5.19   Sport administrators' levels of satisfaction and leadership style based on qualifications

Variable	Qualification	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Chi-Square	Df	P
Level of Job Satisfaction	Degree in Sport Science	25	3.69	0.28	6.79	4	0.15
	Degree in Sport Management	6	3.41	0.23			
	Diploma in Sport Management	25	3.56	0.39			
	Post-grad qualification	40	3.58	0.27			
	Other	9	3.60	0.19			
	Total	109	3.60	0.30			
Leadership Style	Degree in Sport Science	25	2.55	0.30	1.85	4	0.76
	Degree in Sport Management	6	2.79	0.31			
	Diploma in Sport Management	25	2.55	0.58			
	Post-grad qualification	40	2.61	0.30			
	Other	9	2.62	0.25			
	Total	109	2.59	0.38			

With regard to job satisfaction sport administrators who were in possession of a degree expressed the greatest amount of job satisfaction scoring a mean ranking of 3.69. Sport administrators who qualified with degrees in sport management obtained the highest score with regards to leadership style. Sport administrators with diplomas scored the lowest with regard to leadership style adopted.
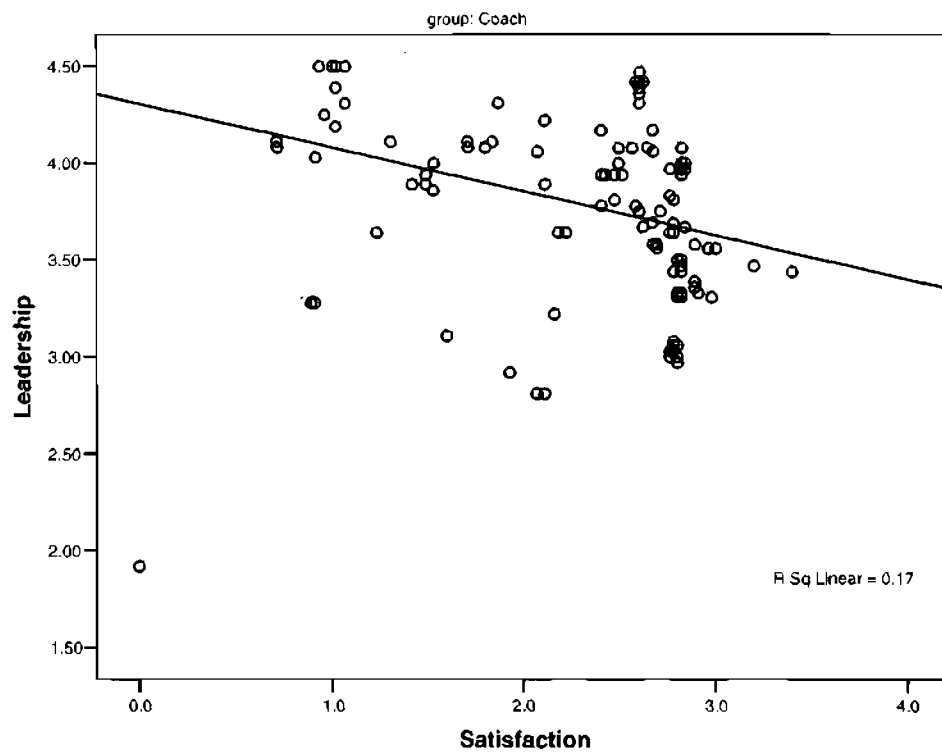
Figure 5.1   **Regression line showing the correlation between job satisfaction and how coaches rated sport administrators' leadership style**

Coaches who expressed high degrees of job satisfaction also rated their sport administrator's leadership styles favourably as indicated in Figure 5.1
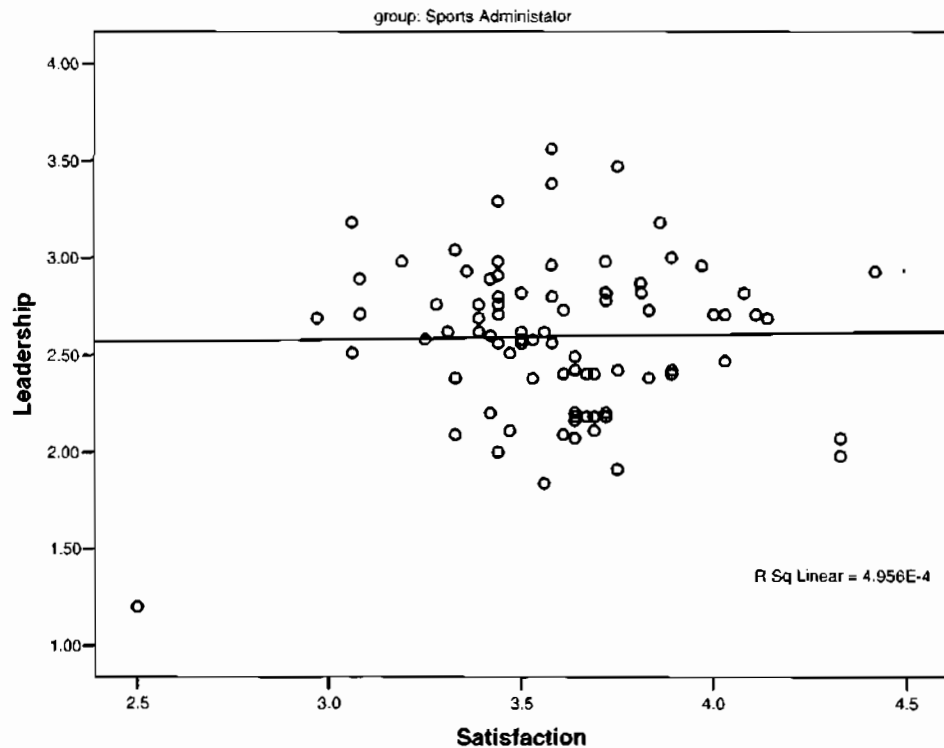
Figure 5.2 **Correlation of job satisfaction and leadership of sport administrators**

Sport administrators both male and female who expressed high degrees of job satisfaction adopted a leadership style that was transformational as indicated in Figure 5.2.

5.6   Leadership styles

There are various styles of leadership being practiced at teriary institution departments in South Africa.
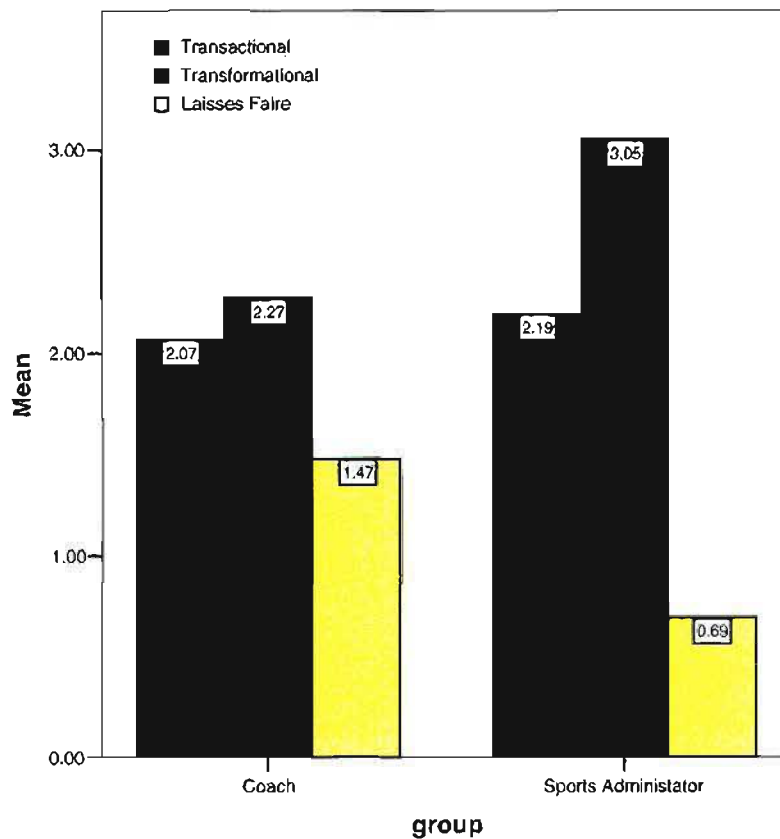
Figure 5.3   Different styles of leadership being practised at tertiary institutions as indicated by a mean

The most common style of leadership being practised by sport administrators at tertiary institutions in South Africa is transformational, followed by transactional and laissez-faire as indicated in Figure 5.3. Coaches also ranked their sport administrators leadership style in the following manner: first transformational, then transactional and last laissez-faire.

Table 5.20   Various forms of leadership being practised at tertiary
institution sport departments

Types of leadership	Stats	Coach	Sports Administrator	Total
Transactional	Mean	2.07	2.19	2.11
	N	227	109	336
	Std. Deviation	0.56	0.48	0.53
Transformational	Mean	2.27	3.05	2.52
	N	227	109	336
	Std. Deviation	1.16	0.50	1.06
Laissez-faire	Mean	1.48	0.69	1.22
	N	227	109	336
	Std. Deviation	0.999	0.74	0.99
Leadership	Mean	3.83	2.59	3.43
	N	227	109	336
	Std. Deviation	0.45	0.37	0.72

Currently at tertiary institution sport departments in South Africa the majority of sport administrators have adopted a transformational leadership style. The majority of the coaches also ranked their sport administrators as having a predominantly transformational leadership style as indicated in Table 5.19. This was followed by transactional leadership, and laissez-faire. Coaches rated their sport administrators overall leadership style favourably with a mean ranking of 3.83.

Table 5.21   Relationship between gender and leadership style of sport
administrators'

Types of leadership	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	T	df	P
Transactional	Male	84	2.27	0.45	4.09	105	0.00
	Female	23	1.85	0.39			
Transformational	Male	84	3.11	0.50	2.51	105	0.01
	Female	23	2.82	0.46			
Laissez-faire	Male	84	0.73	0.77	1.18	105	0.24
	Female	23	0.52	0.63			

With regard to gender, both male and female sport administrators adopted a more transformational approach to leadership: however males did score higher on the transformational component as indicated in Table 5.19. Male sport administrators scored a mean ranking of 3.11, while female sport administrators scored a mean ranking of 2.83. Statistically there were no significant differences in leadership styles between male and females.

Table 5.22   Relationship between job satisfaction of coaches and how they rated sport administrators' leadership style

	Job satisfaction	Leadership
Job satisfaction		
Pearson r	1	-.411**
P	.	.000
N	227	227
Leadership		
Pearson r	-.411**	1
P	.000	.
N	227	227

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

The correlation between job satisfaction and leadership is significant (p>0.05). A Pearson r value of -0.411 indicates an inverse relationship: that is if coaches scored high on job satisfaction they rated their sport administrator's leadership style as average. Coaches who scored low on job satisfaction were happy with their sport administrator's leadership style.

Table 5.23   Correlation between job satisfaction, leadership and organizational effectiveness of sport administrators

	Job satisfaction	Leadership	Organizational effectiveness
Job satisfaction			
Pearson r	1	.0.24	-.228*
P	.	.808	.029
N	109	109	92
Leadership			
Pearson r	.024	1	.536**
p	.808	.	.000
N	109	109	92
Organizational effectiveness			
Pearson r	-.228*	.536**	1
p	.0.29	.000	.
N	92	92	92

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

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

Sport administrators who experienced high levels of job satisfaction also had favourable leadership scores and rated their department's organizational effectiveness favourably.

5.7   Organizational effectiveness

Table 5.24   Organizational effectiveness of sport administration departments

Variable	Mean	Std. Deviation
Head of department is efficient.	3.33	0.47
Staffs gets on well.	3.32	0.68
Staff knows their jobs well.	3.24	0.63
Staff plan together.	3.24	0.64
Job responsibilities are sensibly organized.	3.16	0.62
Administrative structure is efficient.	3.13	0.67
Distribution of task is equal.	3.12	0.69
Department operations are efficient.	3.11	0.72
People in department share information.	3.10	0.67
Decisions are made adequately.	3.07	0.78
All are included in decision making.	3.06	0.79
Equal distribution of tasks.	2.97	0.87
Tertiary institution tries to improve working life.	2.66	0.78
Tertiary institution has real interest in the welfare of staff.	2.63	0.77

The variables are ranked from highest to lowest as indicated by the respondents. The highest mean represents the variable that the respondents rated favourably.

Table 5.25   Overall ranking of organizational effectiveness

Descriptive Statistics

Variable	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Organizational Effectiveness	92	2.14	4.00	3.07	.47
Valid N (listwise)	92				

Sport administrators rated their department's organizational effectiveness favourably. A total mean ranking of 3.07 for organizational effectiveness was achieved.

Table 5.26   Correlation between level of job satisfaction of sport administrators and organizational effectiveness

Correlations

Variable		Level of Job Satisfaction (SA)	Organizational Effectiveness
Level of Job Satisfaction (SA)	Pearson r	1	-.228*
	p		.029
	N	109	92
Organizational Effectiveness	Pearson r	-.228*	1
	p	.029	
	N	92	92

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

There is a significant relationship between organizational effectiveness and level of job satisfaction. However, the strength of the relationship is low and inverse. This shows that those who tended to have lower scores for the one dimension had higher scores on the other dimension.

Table 5.27   Relationship between organizational effectiveness and leadership styles

Correlations		Organizational Effectiveness	Leadership Style (SA)	Transactional	Transfor mational	Laisses Faire
Organizational Effectiveness	Pearson r	1	.536**	142	.599**	-.150
	p		.000	.176	.000	.155
	N	92	92	92	92	92
Leadership Style (SA)	Pearson r	.536**	1	.656**	.894**	.077
	p	.000		.000	.000	.425
	N	92	109	109	109	109
Transactional	Pearson r	142	.656**	1	.283**	.292**
	p	.176	.000		.003	.002
	N	92	109	109	109	109
Transformational	Pearson r	.599**	.894**	.283**	1	-.248**
	p	.000	.000	.003		.009
	N	92	109	109	109	109
Laissez-faire	Pearson r	-.150	.077	.292**	-.248**	1
	p	.155	.425	.002	.009	
	N	92	109	109	109	109

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

There is a significant correlation between Organizational effectiveness and the transformational aspect of leadership style. Sport administrators whose leadership styles were transformational rated their department's organizational effectiveness highly.

5.8   Summary

This chapter has described the results of the study. It was described in five broad sections namely biographical data, occupational choice and motivation, job satisfaction, leadership and organizational effectiveness. The results were presented in the form of tables and graphs. This chapter has prepared the researcher to discuss the results of the study in the following chapter.

CHAPTER SIX: DISCUSSION

6.1   Introduction

In this chapter a discussion of the results will follow. The results of the study will be discussed in six sections which are biographical data, occupational choice and motivation, job satisfaction and security, leadership and organizational effectiveness.

6.2   Biographical data

6.2.1   Age and years of service

It is interesting to note that the majority of the respondents from coaches were within the age groups 25 to 35, and only a small minority (10%) of the coaches were within the age groups 45 to 55. Bogg and Cooper (2005) state that during midlife an urgent need is felt for the reviewing of career plans. If the job an individual is involved in fails to provide challenges, it may force the individual to start looking for alternative employment. If coaches feel later on in their careers that their job is not stimulating they will leave their profession and join another. This could be the contributing reason for the dwindling number of coaches in the 45 to 55 year age group. In this study the majority of coaches were in the 25 to 35 years of age group and the reason appears to be that many coaches are still optimistic that they could be a good coach and continue with coaching even though not successful.

The majority of the sport administrators were in the profession for a long period of time and this is indicative of the highly challenging nature of their jobs. It is concerning to note that the majority of the coaches (42%) remain in the coaching profession for a short period of time. The main reason for this could be that many coaches have branched off into other areas of the fitness industry or have found other career opportunities. Another contributing factor could be the perception that coaching is an insecure profession. There is a high degree of turnover in the coaching profession. These findings are consistent with those of Moodley and Coopoo (2006) who concluded that in terms of years of service of company employed personal trainers the majority of the respondents also had none and three years of service. The main reason cited by respondents for leaving the

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profession quickly was that coaching in tertiary institutions was regarded as a part time job and they had to coach at a few tertiary institutions to get an adequate salary. Lack of benefits, and weak leadership were also cited as the reasons for leaving the profession. Singh and Moodley (2001) in a study of job security of coaches in South Africa also found that in terms of years of service the majority of the respondents were in the coaching profession for a short period of time. A further assumption for the instability of coaching jobs in South Africa, could be due to the lack of professionalism in the organization of sport generally and the lack of sponsorship and finance in order to support a coach's salary (Surajlal, 2004). It is only in the major sports that coaches are well paid and have signed offered contracts.

6.2.2 Home language and race group

English was the predominant home language of both groups of respondents. All courses currently offered by tertiary institutions are conducted in English. This may pose a problem to the ethnic speaking groups in our country. however most international coaching programmes are in either English or French.

Transformation is still a slow process in tertiary institutions sport administration departments. This could be due to the fact that the majority of sport administrators and coaches are white and a small percentage is blacks, Asians and coloureds. A possible reason for this could be the inequality of our past, where sport was high on the list of priorities at white schools but not at black schools. White schools had all the facilities and sport equipment and played various codes of sport therefore choosing a career in the fitness industry was not difficult as scholars were exposed to it from a young age (Moodley and Coopoo, 2006). With no opportunity available in the sporting industry for blacks, they did not believe that it was worth while to spend three years to study a sports management degree, knowing that a job might not be forthcoming (Goslin, 1996). Hence the lack of trained sport administrators currently.

Transformation in the history of South Africa has been a thorny issue. However, this process is important in order to level the playing fields in a number of professions that the

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black profession was prevented from gaining access to. The National Department of Sport and Recreation White Paper (1997) defines transformation as a conscious, deliberate, planned and goal directed process of fundamentally changing the conditions that have in the past led to the deliberate exclusion of the majority of our people from meaningful participation in sport and recreation and from taking their rightful place in the sports movement of the world. Tertiary institutions in South Africa need to take cognisance of this and try to level the playing fields by successfully recruiting sport administrators and coaches that represent the previously disadvantaged sectors of our population. Higher management at tertiary institutions should take the initiative to ensure transformation is happening at an adequate pace.

Although the National Department of Sport and Recreation Transformation Policy Document of 2003 sees sport as a barometer of the overall transition towards non racialism in society and as a vital element in the building of a non racial society, many people in South Africa cannot understand why there is a need to transform sport and recreation. These individuals need to understand that it is to level the playing fields after the social imbalances of the past. They need to take into account the hundreds of potential athletes to whom apartheid denied sporting opportunities. These individuals need to be given the opportunity in order to rectify the imbalances of the past.

In South Africa after the birth of the new democracy, all major sport federations stated that they would pursue a transformation agenda, the details of which would be determined by each sport federation. The agreement was that the government would play a policy making, facilitating and co-ordinating role (The National Department of Sport and Recreation Transformational Policy Document, 1993). However it is of great concern that transformation is not happening fast enough and in some cases is not happening at all. This is a cause for concern since transformation is an ongoing process, which needs to be constantly monitored and evaluated. The National Department of Sport and Recreation needs to constantly monitor the progress of transformation in all sporting codes, government organizations, institutions of higher learning and in the corporate world. If transformation ceases penalties should be imposed on these

organizations. However most higher education institutions are striving to create diversity and it is only a matter of time before all races will be reflected equally in tertiary institution sport. All tertiary institutions have their own equity plans and timeframes by which to achieve their goals.

6.2.3 Gender

The majority of coaches and sport administrators were male. It may be perceived that in South Africa coaching and sport administration is a male dominated profession. These findings are consistent with the findings of Parks (2003) who concluded that although women have made enormous progress in sport, it would be a mistake to assume that they have attained equality, and they continue to be underrepresented in coaching and sport administration positions. Management at higher education institutions should strive to create gender equity by giving female coaches and sport administrators opportunities to utilize their skills. A study conducted by Acosta (2002) found that between 2000 and 2002, although there were 361 new head coaching jobs for women's teams men were hired for 90% of them.

In a nationwide investigation in the USA Acosta (2002) asked those responsible for recruiting and hiring college head coaches which are heads of tertiary institution sport departments the reasons for the dramatic decline in the number of women coaches. The findings indicated that male tertiary institution sport administrators perceived the four most important reasons to be lack of qualified coaches, failure of women to apply for job openings, lack of qualified female administrators and time constraints due to family obligations. This is a perception that male sport administrators have, making it even more difficult for females to embark on a career in coaching.

However Parks (2003) states that female coaches were more qualified in terms of coaching experience with female teams, professional training and professional experience. In South Africa not much emphasis is placed on gender equity in sport, although both the National Department of Recreation White Paper (1997) and the Transformation Policy Document of 2003 strive to create equal opportunities for women.

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The National Department of Sport and Recreation's White Paper (1997) states that National federations will be encouraged to devise training and development programmes to facilitate the participation of women, and remove barriers that may prevent women from vocations in training, coaching and sport and recreation management. Specific resources will be allocated for the development of sports skills and facilities for women and girls. Suitable candidates will be identified and introduced to leadership training and coaching in sport and recreation. However the findings of the present study indicate that this is a slow process as women still continue to be underrepresented in coaching and sport administration positions. The National Department of Sport and Recreation needs to have a system in place to monitor the pace at which changes with regards to gender are taking place.

6.2.4 Qualifications and education process

The majority of the respondents were suitably qualified for the job having graduated with either a diploma or degree in coaching or sport management. This is indicative of the high quality of education that these trainers and administrators possess.

Courses for trainers and sport administrators are offered by tertiary institutions at universities or technikons. Short courses are also offered by service providers. However respondents cited the following shortcomings of the courses:

- Too many general management courses instead of focussing on sport courses.
- Broad spectrum of sports not taught.
- Crisis management skills not taught.
- More practical training required.
- First aid component needs to be included.
- Not enough focus on high performance coaching.
- Business aspect of sport not covered adequately.

A concerning factor was that both sport administrators and coaches did not attend refresher courses in coaching and sport administration. The majority of the coaches and

sport administrators attended only between six and ten courses. This is too few in the pursuit of striving for excellence in the field of coaching and sport administration. Tertiary institution sport administration departments should encourage staff to attend courses organized by other stakeholders in the fitness industry, in order to update knowledge.

6.3   Occupational choice, motivation and job security

Nigro (2002) postulates that enhancing job security is fundamental to career management. The majority of the coaches in the study regretted choosing coaching as a profession and experienced low job security levels. These findings were consistent with the findings of Singh and Moodley (2001) who conducted a study on the job security of professional coaches in South Africa and found that the majority of the coaches who participated in the study regretted their career choice. Choosing a career is a choice that all individuals have to make in life. It is not forced upon one. The individual has to make the ultimate choice. However, in many cases youngsters seek advice from parents, school, and career counsellors and sometimes they are influenced by peer pressure.

The actual reasons why the majority of the coaches regretted their career choice are as follows:

- They were counselled wrongly in terms of choosing coaching as a career. Schools need to place more emphasis on career counselling. They should have a careers week at school and invite the various tertiary institutions to participate in it. This will educate prospective students about the various options they have. This will also alleviate the problem of students making the wrong career choices.
- In many cases, people assume that if they were elite sportspersons at school a career in fitness will be the obvious choice. However in most cases a love or passion for a code of sport does not guarantee success in the working world.
- The majority of the coaches could have made an incorrect career choice by choosing coaching as a career, which is why they regretted their career choice.
- There is little job security. Coaches at tertiary institutions generally get paid for the number of coaching sessions conducted. In the event of them falling sick or

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tertiary institution holidays they do not get paid. Robbins (2003) believes that salary is a key determinant of job satisfaction because it serves as a measure of achievement and as a source of recognition. Although coaches stated that there is no job security, none of them were dismissed from the coaching profession before. This confirms that coaches are confusing job security with factors which are dissatisfiers. Herzberg's et al. (1959) Two Factor Theory confirms that some factors are satisfiers when present while other factors found in the environment of work are dissatisfiers. When coaches are dissatisfied or unhappy with their jobs, they cannot attribute it to job security as the majority of them were not dismissed from employment before, nor were under pressure from management to resign (Herzberg et al., 1959).

- The hours of work are too long, and coaches have too often worked on week-ends and on holidays. This leaves very little time for family life or socializing. One must take into account that coaches knew the demands of their profession before they embarked on their career. The coaching environment is unique because most professional matches are played on week-ends for the purpose of television and spectators. Without these elements sport loses its credibility. This is the main reason for the odd working hours of coaches. They have an obligation to their players, tertiary institutions and the paying public. If they had researched their career before they embarked on it they would have been aware of the hours of work and would not be questioning their commitment towards the job.

- Medical aid is not offered by tertiary institution sport departments to coaches. Coaches are in constant fear that if they have a serious ailment, they would not be able to cover the costly medical bills. However, a basic hospital plan can remedy this.

- There is no incentive or rewards for work well done. Rewards may not always be monetary. A coach can be rewarded for work well done by praise received from management, sport administrators and players from the team. In the past adequate

reward was seen as the main force of motivating employees and keeping them satisfied. This view in present times is important; however it is not the only consideration. If renumeration is consistent with perceived effort and status it acts as a satisfier (Luthans, 2002).

If sport coaches are adequately remunerated it can lead to job satisfaction and security. Remuneration can take many forms. If a coach performs well remuneration in the form of cash, gift vouchers, a week-end away, as well as other incentives can elicit a sense of job satisfaction and security.

- Few opportunities for promotion. Promotion opportunities seem to have a varying effect on job security and they take on different forms. Lack of opportunities for promotion leads to negative feelings towards the job as frustrated ambition can give rise to intense feelings of dissatisfaction (Smucker, 2003). A study conducted by Moodley and Coopoo (2006) on the job satisfaction of personal trainers concluded that the opportunity to grow intellectually for many has become more important than promotional opportunities especially in careers where not many promotional opportunities exists.

- On the other hand the majority of the sport administrators had no regrets about choosing sport administration as their career. They were happy with their choice and it was their goal to make the most of it. If one is in a career that one regrets, two opportunities present themselves. A coach can either resign or leave the profession totally, or he or she can discard negativity and make the most of the situation. By adopting a positive attitude the employee can make a difference to his or her working life.

All professions have their advantages and disadvantages and it is human nature not to be totally satisfied with one's career. However, by adapting to different situations, being flexible to change and being open minded one can make a vast difference in terms of career enjoyment.

6.3.1 Stress levels

Coaches employed at tertiary institutions reported high levels of stress. Stress is defined as an unpleasant state of emotional and physiological arousal that people experience in situations that they perceive as dangerous or threatening to their well being (Jones, 2004) Kinicki and Kreitner (2003) concluded that stress can have a very negative effect on organizational behaviour and on individuals' health.

Individuals, groups, and organizations that are confronted with threats to their steady states of well being will experience stress. Howell and Higgins (2005) noted that the burnout scores among individuals who work in the same unit are similar to those of individuals who work in different units doing similar kinds of work. In many instances available leadership makes the difference in the prevention or occurrence of stress and burnout. Leadership can be the source of increased stress, or it can provide for avoiding or coping with it. Groups and sport organizations that are under stress expect and desire more direction from leaders (Raelin, 1985).

In the present study coaches who reported to transformational leaders experienced lower levels of stress as opposed to coaches who reported to transactional leaders. These findings are consistent with the findings of Kanter and Brinkerhoff (1981) who found that job stress was lower when leaders of their district program were described as transformational leaders. Transformational leadership contributes effectively to leadership under stress. A transactional leader can be influential in groups that are under stress, because they can supply solutions for the immediate needs that members perceive they have. Such leadership will provide immediate satisfaction but may not be effective in the long term. What is required is a transformational leader who can evoke higher level needs, such as the common good and who can move the group into a fully vigilant search for long term solutions.

Tertiary institution sport leadership that is effective in coping with stress implies leadership that results in rationally defensible high quality decisions, the appropriate use of information, skills, and resources, and the enhanced performance of followers in

reaching their goals, despite the threats and obstacles in doing so. Transformational leadership contributes to effective leadership under stress. These leaders are not easily frightened, disconcerted, or thrown off balance but remain calm and maintain their sense of humour in face of the danger of a crisis (Bass, 1995).

In the present study high levels of stress were found to be associated with low levels of job satisfaction. These findings were similar to the findings of (Singh and Moodley, 2001), who concluded that coaches who suffered from excessive levels of stress may experience job dissatisfaction, lower morale, and poorer work performance. Work related stress and anxiety can not only affect the coach's health but can also have an impact on the teams overall performance.

Female sport coaches reported higher levels of stress than their male counterparts. These findings are consistent with the findings of Heller (1992) who concluded that female sport coaches experienced higher levels of stress as opposed to their male counterparts. A possible reason for this is the amount of pressure that is placed on female sport coaches in a traditionally male dominated environment. Male sport administrators reported higher levels of stress than their female counterparts.

Coaching is a stressful profession due to the high expectations that the tertiary institutions, public and players have towards the winning of matches. Psychologists distinguish two broad types of coping strategies, viz. problem-focused coping and emotional-focused coping. The referring goal of both strategies is to control one's stress level. In problem focused coping coaches can short circuit negative emotions by taking some action to modify, avoid or minimize the threatening situation. They should change their behavior to deal with the stressful situation. In emotion-focused coping, coaches should try to directly moderate or eliminate unpleasant emotion (Jones, 2004).

Coaches are always concerned that if their teams are not constantly winning, their credibility as trainers will diminish and client retention rate will be low. They should strive to be the best possible coaches that they can be. It is recommended that relaxation

techniques such as progressive muscular relaxations which involves systematically tensing and then relaxing different groups of skeletal (voluntary) muscles while directing one's attention towards the contrasting sensations produced by the two procedures, be utilized (Kinicki and Kreitner, 2003).

6.4 Job satisfaction

The job satisfaction component of this study was measured using the Job Satisfaction Survey designed by Paul Spector (1997). In terms of its reliability the Job Satisfaction Survey has internal consistency reliability indicating that the figures of job satisfaction remained stable when the same group of people were retested after a period of time. In terms of its validity the Job Satisfaction Survey provided similar results to other instruments that are used to evaluate job satisfaction. Coaches and sport administrators' job satisfaction were rated. The top four variables for which coaches rated favourably with regards to their job were as follows.

6.4.1 The work itself

Most coaches were generally satisfied with the work itself that was involved in coaching and found it to be the most satisfying variable with regards to job satisfaction. They were happy with the nature of their job and the responsibilities that it entailed.

The findings in this study with regard to the work itself are consistent with the findings of Koehler (1998) who researched corporate fitness managers who directed fitness programs or facilities in the state of California. This group of managers experienced satisfaction with their overall employment such as the work itself rather than materialistic gains. Song (1993) found that managerial personnel working in commercial club corporations were more satisfied with intrinsic aspects such as variety, creativity, recognition, and independence and less satisfied with extrinsic items like pay, promotion and company policies.

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A South African study conducted by Moodley and Coopoo (2006) on the job satisfaction of personal trainers also found that the work itself ranked as the most favourable aspect amongst the trainers when measuring job satisfaction.

6.4.2 Working conditions

Coaches and sport administrators were generally satisfied with their working conditions and ranked it favourably giving it a mean ranking of 5.36. The working conditions under which an employee works depend on the perceptions of the worker (Robbins, 2003). If the working conditions are clean and attractive the employees will find it easier to carry out their jobs. If the working conditions are unpleasant employees will find it difficult to concentrate on the job at hand (Robbins, 2003).

These findings are consistent with the findings of Smucker (2003) who also concluded that a pleasant working environment impacts positively on job satisfaction.

6.4.3 Supervision

Coaches were generally satisfied with the degrees of supervision received from sport administrators and ranked it as one of the top five variables with regards to overall job satisfaction. Sport administrators also ranked supervision favourably. Insensitive, incompetent and uncaring supervisors seem to have the most negative effect on employee job satisfaction. The findings of the present study are consistent with the findings of Merriman (2004) who concluded that job satisfaction of sport administrators and coaches is considerably improved when supervisors are perceived to be fair, helpful, competent and effective. Transformational leaders are generally rated more favourably in terms of their supervisory skills.

6.4.4 Utilization

Coaches and sport administrators rated utilization favourably in the measurement of overall job satisfaction. It received a mean ranking of 4.98. The self actualisation need is represented by the opportunity people are given to utilize their capabilities (Finnemore,

2002). In the present study coaches and sport administrators were given the opportunity to utilise their skills in other aspects of the fitness industry.

6.4.5 Negative variables associated with job satisfaction

Both sets of respondents with regard to job satisfaction scored the lowest means with regard to salary, promotion, status and recognition. These variables will be discussed.

6.4.5.1 Salary

Respondents from both coaches and sport administrators appeared to be unhappy with the salary they received. It appears that a perceived low salary, which leads to job dissatisfaction, is a main contributor to employee turnover (Mobley, 1992). Robbins (2003) believes that salary is a key determinant of job satisfaction because it serves as a symbol of achievement and a source of recognition. Employees often see pay as a reflection of how management views their contribution to the organization.

Coaches were unhappy with the fact that they were paid for the sessions coached, and during tertiary institution holidays they did not receive a salary. Management of tertiary institutions should take cognisance of this and try to create a balance where sport is run throughout the year at their institutions. This will also serve as a benchmark for improving the performance of our sports teams at national level. If more emphasis is placed on sport at tertiary level the majority of the coaching jobs will become full time.

The findings of the present study are consistent with the findings of Song (1993) who concluded in his study of the job satisfaction of managerial personnel working in commercial club corporations that the respondents were unhappy with the salary they received.

A South African study conducted by Moodley and Coopoo (2006) on the job satisfaction of personal trainers employed at commercial gymnasiums and self employed trainers yielded similar results with regard to salary.

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6.4.5.2 Promotion

Sport administrators and coaches were dissatified with their opportunities for promotion. Promotion opportunities scored a low mean ranking. Promotion opportunities seem to have a varying effect on job satisfaction as they take on different forms. Lack of opportunity for promotion leads to negative feelings of satisfaction as frustrated ambition can give rise to particularly intense feelings of dissatisfaction (Vroom, 1964).

These findings were consistent with the findings of Koehler (1998) who conducted a study of the job satisfaction of corporate fitness managers in America. He concluded that lack of promotional opportunities was rated as the most dissatisfying variable with regard to job satisfaction.

Coaching is not a profession that lends itself to varying promotional opportunities. However the opportunity does exist for coaches to become head coaches at their tertiary institutions or apply for other coaching positions that exist in the field. The main problem in the fitness industry is that there is limited number of opportunities for promotion as the number of coaches and sport administrators outweighs the number of promotional opportunities to senior positions.

Due to the recent mergers of tertiary institution sport departments promotion in the traditional sense of climbing the corporate ladder of success is no longer available as it once was. A positive work environment and opportunities to grow intellectually and to broaden their skill base should become more important for sport administrators and coaches than seeking promotional opportunities (Luthans, 2002).

6.4.5.3 Status and recognition

There is a causal relationship between the type of job an employee has and the status enjoyed. Status refers to the value linked to a job, while recognition is defined as the act of showing appreciation of performance or efforts (Agrawal, 2004).

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Herzberg et al. (1959) see recognition as a positive satisfier. They also point out that a lack of recognition can be a strong source of dissatisfaction. Both groups of respondents were unhappy with the recognition they received from the job. Management at tertiary institutions should take cognisance of this and reward sport administrators and coaches for goals reached in an academic year.

Appreciation for producing South African Student Sport Union (SASSU) players as well as winning local and national tournaments should be credited. This will elicit a feeling of job satisfaction and pride with their job. Recognition in the form of certificates, praise and cash incentives all go a long way in enhancing job satisfaction

6.4.5.4 Communication

Coaches and sport administrators were dissatisfied with the lack of communication between higher management and their departments. In higher education institutions although the actual running of the sport department is left to the head of department, higher management plays an influential role in the utilizing of funds. This often creates problems as the tertiary institution sport department does not have the autonomy to utilize the funds in the manner they see best.

6.5   Job satisfaction and age

The older sport administrators expressed greater satisfaction with their job than the younger sport administrators. Agrawal (2004) claims that satisfaction with the job shown by older workers arises from the meeting of their security needs. Generally they are in well paid positions and may be pleased with the benefits available to them.

The younger sport coaches expressed greater job satisfaction than the older sport coaches. These findings are consistent with the findings of Bogg and Cooper (2005) between age and job satisfaction. Their findings indicated that satisfaction is high for youthful employees following employment, then drops after the first few years. Miles (2000) found a positive correlation between age and job satisfaction. In his sample he used an all female group and the career stage theory. Their findings showed a U-shaped

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curvilinear association between age and job satisfaction with regard to four of the job satisfaction measures used, namely pay, promotion, supervisors and co-workers. On the contrary a positive linear relationship was found between age and the job dimension of work. Their findings indicated that satisfaction is high for youthful employees immediately following employment then it drops after the first few years (Miles, 2000). Newly appointed coaches who are young have a high degree of job satisfaction as they are eager and enthusiastic about their jobs. As they get older and if working conditions are unstable dissatisfaction arises.

A South African study conducted by Moodley and Coopoo (2006) also found that younger company-employed personal trainers expressed a greater amount of satisfaction than older personal trainers. This may be due to the fact that the induction of the new members of staff was not adequate.

6.6 Job satisfaction and gender

Male sport administrators expressed greater satisfaction than female sport administrators. These findings are consistent with the findings of Herrera and Lim (2003) who conducted a study on the job satisfaction levels of coaches and found that male coaches were more satisfied with their jobs than female coaches. The female sport administrators were unhappy with the lack of promotional opportunities which contributed to low degrees of job satisfaction.

If management could adhere to this policy it will lead to more females wanting to engage in a career in sport administration and coaching, as many females still have the perception that coaching is a male dominated environment. This contributed to the low job satisfaction often expressed by female sport coaches and administrators (Parks, 2003). A study conducted by Smucker (2003) on the investigation of job satisfaction of female sport journalist in America revealed that female sport journalist working at daily newspapers are satisfied with their overall employment but expressed dissatisfaction with regards to promotional opportunities. Howell and Higgins (2005) examined the job satisfaction of sport administrators employed in American and Canadian University

recreation programs. The results of the study found males scored higher on job satisfaction than females. The findings of the present study are consistent with the findings of Herrera and Lim (2003), Howell and Higgins (2005) and Smucker (2003).

Within tertiary institution sport departments, the underrepresentation of women has been and continues to be, an issue. While opportunities for females who participate in tertiary institution sport in Canada and the United States have grown tremendously during the past two decades, the same trend has not occurred for women in athletics coaching and management positions (Acosta, 2002).

Many studies that address the under representation of women in coaching and athletic administrative positions have focused on the entry and exit aspects of the job cycle. Findings from the studies suggest women enter coaching and athletic positions to extend involvement in competition, work with advanced or skilled athletes, serve as role models and help female athletes reach their potential (Abelson, 1996).

The reasons why females exit coaching positions and tertiary institution administrative positions include factors such as discriminatory practices, burnout, lack of job satisfaction, role conflict, and gender structuring that considers opportunity, power, and proportion as they affect organizational behavior (Johnson, 1995). Management at tertiary institutions in South Africa should take cognisance of the factors affecting job satisfaction of female sport coaches and administrators and strive to continually try to improve their job satisfaction.

6.7 Job satisfaction and leadership

There was a significant difference between job satisfaction of coaches and the manner in which they rated their sport administrator's leadership style. Coaches who were satisfied with their jobs did not rate their sport administrator's leadership ability favourably. Coaches who expressed some dissatisfaction with the job rated their sport administrator's leadership style favourably. With regard to sport administrators, those who expressed

higher job satisfaction with their jobs also had a favourable leadership style. Their leadership style was more transformational.

These findings were consistent with the findings of Dexter and Davis (2002) who conducted a study on an analysis of perceived leadership styles and levels of satisfaction of selected junior athletics directors and head coaches. The study concluded that transformational leadership behaviours were positively associated with high levels of satisfaction.

6.8   Job satisfaction and years of service

Coaches who were in the profession for between three and six years showed a greater amount of job satisfaction than coaches who were in the profession for between nine and 12 years. These coaches expressed the greatest amount of dissatisfaction. The main reason for this is the security aspect linked to coaching. Most sport coaches perceive coaching to be a career with a high retention rate which is why in terms of years of service there are very few coaches who are in the profession for more than 12 years. These findings are consistent with the findings of Singh and Moodley (2001) who concluded that coaching is a profession that has a high retention rate. Surajlal (2004) also concludes that coaching is a profession that has a high turnover rate which could suggest why the majority of the coaches in the profession had a job history of only three to six years of service.

6.9   Job satisfaction and qualification

Coaches who were qualified with diplomas experienced the greatest amount of job satisfaction. A possible reason for this could be the high quality of the qualification programs that prepares these individuals for the demands of coaching. With regards to sport administrators those administrators who were in possession of degrees experienced the greatest amount of job satisfaction. A possible reason for this could be that sport management was their main career choice and that is why they experienced high levels of satisfaction. A South African study conducted by Moodley and Coopoo (2006) concluded

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that personal trainers who were in possession of degrees had the greatest amount of job satisfaction.

6.10 Job satisfaction of sport administrators' and of heads of sport administration departments

There was no significant difference between the levels of satisfaction experienced between the heads of the sport administration department and the sport administrators employed in the tertiary institution sport administration department. However, the heads of the sport administration department expressed slightly greater satisfaction than the sport administrators. A possible reason could be that they have greater autonomy when it comes to their jobs.

6.11 Leadership styles

The most common style of leadership being practised at tertiary institution sport departments in South Africa is transformational, followed by transactional and then laissez-faire. The results indicated that the head coaches perceived sport administrators to have predominantly transformational leadership styles. These findings were not surprising in the light of the need, during recent times, of increasing economic, social, and political pressure at tertiary institution sport departments for sport leaders to do more with less. Transformational leaders in sport achieve a level of performance that surpasses expectations by instilling pride, and communicating with followers in an attempt to promote a feeling of personal respect amongst the followers themselves, as well as between the follower and the leader, facilitating creative thinking, and providing inspiration (Tepper and Percy, 1994).

In sport in general, and at the tertiary administration level specifically, transformational leadership is essential for success. As budgets and human resources diminish and the need to do more with less increases, leadership that transforms or inspires individuals to act in the organizations best interest will be vital (Herrera and Lim, 2003).

Doherty and Danylchuk (1996) conducted a study on the leader behaviour of inter-university athletics administrators according to Bass's (1995) transformational/transactional leadership model. A sample of head coaches (N=114) completed the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) form 5X (Bass & Avolio, 1994) with regard to their athletics administrators leadership style. The resultant profile was one of predominantly transformational as opposed to transactional or nonleadership behaviour.

Dexter and Davis (2002) conducted a study on an analysis of perceived leadership styles and levels of satisfaction of selected junior athletics directors and head coaches. The results of the study indicated that the head coaches perceived the athletics directors to have predominantly transformational leadership styles. Most studies undertaken show transformational leadership styles at tertiary institutions (Weese, 1996; Doherty and Danylchuk 1996; Dexter and Davis 2002). This would indicate that the leadership styles for sport administrators are very similar throughout the world with South Africa being no exception. This could imply that sport administration leadership training in South Africa is rated among the best internationally.

6.11.1 Leadership style and age

The findings of the study indicated that older sport administrators scored the highest on the type of leadership practised. A possible reason for this is that the older sport administrators had a lot of experience in the field of sport administration, and have learnt that a more transformational style of leadership is needed to ensure success at tertiary institution level. As they have matured they have also come to realise that a successful tertiary institution sport department requires a transformational leader - one who has vision.

6.11.2 Leadership style and gender

Male sport administrators received a higher mean rating than female sport administrators in terms of the type of leadership style adopted. Their leadership style was one of transformational as opposed to transactional or laissez-faire. A possible reason for this

could be the high expectations that are placed on females in a traditionally male dominated environment and the stereotyping of females in the sport industry.

Seifert (1989) illustrated the perverse and pervasive stereotyping of the inadequacy of females for leadership. Seifert (1989) led male and female participants to believe they were working with female leaders, when they were all receiving the same standardized communications from the experimenter. Those male and female participants who perceived the notes as clearer than did those participants, received notes from supposed female leaders. These findings are consistent with the findings of the present study indicating that female sport administrators are stereotyped in the field of sport administration.

If a woman in a sport managerial leadership position adopts more accommodative, participative leadership behaviour, she faces criticism for being too passive. But if she adopts autocratic or task-oriented leadership behaviour or a more directive style, she may be seen as too aggressive and masculine. Males tend to emerge as leaders in sporting positions more often than females do in numerous studies of mixed-sex groups and females tend to differ from men in their activity and influence in small group experiments (Herrera and Lim, 2003). In order to gain more recognition in the field of sport, female sport administrators should take more cognisance of this and start adopting a more transformational approach to leadership.

The present study also found that there were more males in leadership positions at tertiary institution sport departments than females. Smith and Hoy (1998) concluded from a survey of 104 male and 44 female sport management students, that the men tended to stereotype the women's behaviour and to exclude them from positions of leadership. Higher management at tertiary institutions should take cognisance of this and try to create gender equity at their tertiary institution sports department by appointing more female sport administrators and eventually promoting them into leadership positions. This will create some sort of gender balance at tertiary institution sport

6.11.3 Leadership style and qualifications

Sport administrators who were in possession of a degree scored the highest in the leadership component of this study measured by using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire. This is indicative of the high standard of the qualification programs of the sport science and sport management degrees offered by universities in South Africa. These sport administrators are adequately trained to manage a tertiary institution sport department and this is the main reason for scoring high on the leadership component.

6.11.4 Leadership style and years of service

Those sport administrators who were in the profession for more than nine years were rated favourably by their sport coaches employed in the tertiary institution sport department. They practised a leadership style that is transformational as opposed to transactional or laissez-faire. These results are consistent with the results found for age of sport administrators and leadership style. The longer an employee is in a job the better supervisor and leader he becomes. The knowledge gained in the formative years of being a sport administrator plays a crucial role in helping him or her alleviate some of the mistakes of the past thus making their leadership style more transformational.

6.11.5 Leadership style and population group

There was no significant difference between the leadership styles practised at tertiary institutions based on population groups. Black coaches ranked their leadership styles the most favourably while coloured coaches rated their sport administrator's leadership style the least favourably.

The present study found that blacks were underrepresented in positions of leadership. Despite their high performance in some types of organizations, such as labour unions blacks continue to be underrepresented in positions of leadership. A South African study conducted by Moodley and Coopoo (2006) also found that blacks were underrepresented in positions of leadership in gymnasiums. Lamm (1995) found that among 30 union locals with black members in the San Francisco Bay area, only 10 had blacks in leadership positions. Similarly despite their overrepresentation for excellence in

athletics, blacks remain underrepresented in leadership positions, such as team managers and head of sport administration departments. Higher management at tertiary institutions should try to rectify the racial imbalances of the past by creating a diversified sport department.

Henderson (1996) suggested that individual blacks need specific strategies to anchor themselves in corporate South Africa. They must strengthen their own leadership skills and develop a healthy and secure home life. In addition to pursuing education, they must believe that their efforts will pay off for them and they must learn to cope with the various social and organizational barriers that stand in their way.

6.12 Organizational effectiveness

All sport organizations exist to achieve a goal or set goals (Amis and O'Brien, 2001). Sport administrators generally rated their department's organizational effectiveness favourably. They were satisfied with the manner in which the department was run. However certain variables were more pronounced than others. Variables that were ranked favourably included the head of department being efficient, staff get on well, staff plan together, staff know their jobs well and job responsibilities are sensibly organized in the department. The findings of the present study indicated that there was no significant relationship between transformational leadership and organizational effectiveness. Weese (1996) conducted a study to explore the relationship that exists between transformational leadership, organizational culture, and organizational effectiveness. No significant relationship was uncovered between transformational leadership and organizational effectiveness.

It could be suggested that sport administrators at tertiary institution sport departments in South Africa generally work together in the attainment of the department's goals. However there were certain aspects of the department that scored unfavourably in the Organizational Effectiveness component of this study which sport administrators should take cognisance of. These include the distribution tasks with not everyone being included in decision making, and tertiary institutions not showing real interest in the welfare of

staff. Tertiary institution management should strive to involve all staff in decision making to ensure open communication between all staff members thus ensuring higher degrees of organizational effectiveness.

The recent mergers in tertiary institutions have also placed strain on employees at tertiary institution sport departments. Therefore an open policy regarding staff allocations and equal distribution of tasks goes a long way in ensuring organizational effectiveness. Management at these institutions of higher learning should strive to have a real interest in the welfare of their staff.

Sport administrators who experienced high levels of job satisfaction also rated their department's organizational effectiveness favourably.

6.12.1 Organizational effectiveness and leadership style

The findings of the present study indicate that there is a positive relationship between organizational effectiveness and leadership style. Transformational leadership style had a positive link with organizational effectiveness. These findings are consistent with the findings of Weese (1995) who conducted a study to investigate the links between transformational leadership, organizational culture, and employee job satisfaction within the 69 Canadian YMCA organizations. He concluded that significant differences in organizational culture existed between the YMCA organizations led by high transformational leaders and YMCA organizations led by low transformational leaders.

6.12.2 Job satisfaction and organizational effectiveness

Statistically there were no significant differences between job satisfaction and organizational effectiveness. These findings are consistent with the findings of Chelladurai (1999) who conducted a study of National Sport Organizations in Canada that investigated the interrelationships among a) administrators' perceptions of the effectiveness of the processes of the organization, b) administrators' job satisfaction, c) Sport Canada ratings of NSOs in high performance, domestic sport and combined

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categories. The findings of the study indicated there was little link between job satisfaction and organizational effectiveness

6.13 Summary

This chapter provided an in-depth discussion of the results of the study. It critically analysed the findings of the study in five broad areas which were biographical data, occupational choice and motivation, job satisfaction, leadership styles and organizational effectiveness. The next chapter will discuss the conclusions and recommendations of the study.

CHAPTER SEVEN: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 Introduction

The objective of this chapter is to state the main conclusions that were drawn from the study based on the empirical research gathered. Based on this, the author makes recommendations and provides a research summary.

7.2 Conclusions

From the research the following conclusions based on the critical questions of the study can be drawn.

- **What are the different styles of leadership followed by sport administrators at the various tertiary institutions**

  Overall the majority of the tertiary institution sport administrators adopted a transformational style of leadership. Older sport coaches scored the highest in the leadership component of this study measured using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire. There was a significant relationship between types of leadership adopted and stress. Coaches who reported to transformational leaders coped better with stress than coaches who reported to transactional leaders. Male sport administrators adopted a more transformational approach to leadership than female sport administrators. There is no significant difference between the leadership styles practised at tertiary institutions based on race group. Sport administrators who qualified with degrees or were in the profession for nine years and longer scored the highest in the leadership component of this study. There was a positive relationship between transformational leadership and organizational effectiveness.

- **What is the status of transformation in this field of work**

  There was a lack of transformation in the industry. There were too few black coaches and sport administrators employed by institutions of higher learning in South Africa. There is no government legislation for tertiary institution in place

to speed up the processof transformation; however, each tertiary institution has benchmarks based on gender and transformation issues.

- **What progress has been made with regard to gender equity in the sport administration offices of tertiary institutions**

  Minimal progress has been noted with regard to gender equity at tertiary institution sport departments. There were too few female sport coaches and administrators employed at levels of management at tertiary institutions in South Africa.

- **What is the status of job satisfaction and security among sport administrators and coaches employed at tertiary institutions**

  There were reasonable degrees of satisfaction expressed by sport administrators. The heads of the sport administration departments had higher levels of satisfaction than sport administrators, and scored higher on the leadership component. With regard to race group, white sport administrators were the most satisfied. Coaches and sport administrators expressed the most dissatisfaction with regard to salary, promotion, status and recognition and communication. Female sport coaches and administrators were dissatisfied with their opportunities for promotion and growth in coaching and sport administration which is traditionally a male dominated environment.

  Females experienced greater levels of stress than males. Stress levels of coaches were high due to the high expectations that are placed on them to win the majority of their matches. Both set of respondents were satisfied with the work itself, working conditions, supervision and utilization. Older sport administrators expressed greater amounts of satisfaction than their younger counterparts. Younger sport coaches expressed the greatest amount of job satisfaction. Coaches appeared to feel insecure in their jobs as a result of having no pension fund, medical aid and sick leave benefits from the tertiary institutions that employ them. The majority of coaches regretted choosing coaching as a profession and stated

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that if the opportunity presented itself, they would choose another profession.

- **What levels of organizational effectiveness do these tertiary institutions possess**

  Tertiary institution sport departments in South Africa possess a high level of organizational effectiveness. Sport administrators rated their department's organizational effectiveness favourably. However certain variables were more pronounced than others. Variables that ranked favourably included the head of department being efficient, staff get on well, staff plan together, staff know their jobs well and job responsibilities are sensibly organized in the department. Variables that ranked unfavourably with regard to organizational effectiveness were that not everyone was involved in decision making, and tertiary institutions not having the staff of the sport administration as high priority.

- **What levels of training do these sport administrators possess**

  Sport administrators employed at tertiary institutions in South Africa were suitably qualified for the job with most of them being in the possession of degrees. The majority of the coaches employed at tertiary institution were for the big three sports which were soccer, rugby and cricket. Not enough emphasis was placed on the minority sports like hockey, badminton and squash. Coaches and sport administrators rated the qualification programs favourably. Sport administrators and coaches attended too few skills development programmes. Most of them stagnate as far as self development is concerned.

7.3 Recommendations

After answering the critical questions of the study the following recommendations are proposed with regard to the following.

- **Leadership**

  Those sport administrators that are still practising a more transactional and laissez-faire approach to leadership should start adopting a more transformational approach to leadership to ensure success in their departments. More females need to be placed in leadership positions at tertiary institution sport departments with the appropriate mentoring.

- **Transformation**

  With regard to transformation, higher management levels at tertiary institutions should strive to create gender and race balance by employing individuals from other race groups to ensure transformation at institutions of higher learning. This will also serve to rectify the imbalances of our past. More should be done in order to place trained black persons in leadership positions at tertiary institution sport departments.

- **Gender Equity**

  Management at tertiary institutions should also strike a balance with regard to gender equity. Non discriminatory policies should be followed when it comes to the promotion of female sport administrators, and the appointment of female sport coaches. Ability to be the best at coaching, rather than the sex of the person should take first preference. Management should also ensure that policies of gender equity are strictly adhered to in the recruiting of sport coaches and sport administrators. The institution's equity policies with respect to employment should be reviewed in view of the transformation of staff.

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- **Job satisfaction**

  With regard to improving coaches and sport administrators job satisfaction, higher management needs to adopt a policy of open communication between staff employed at the tertiary institution sport departments and themselves. Coaches and sport administrators should receive recognition for work well done. A fair policy with regards to promotion should be adopted. Sport administrators and coaches should be promoted on ability and years of service. With regard to job security the establishment of a retirement or pension fund so that coaches have retirement security, a basic hospital plan and sick leave benefits should be introduced. More emphasis should be placed on minor sport codes such as netball, badminton and squash. The appointment of coaches for these minor sports will lead to better performances of these teams at both National and International level. Coaches and sport administrators should find other avenues for destressing, due to the highly demanding nature of their jobs.

- **Organizational effectiveness**

  With regard to organizational effectiveness tertiary institutions should allow staff members to participate in important decisions especially after the mergers which created a degree of uncertainty.

- **Education**

  More workshops should be organized by tertiary institutions so that coaches and sport administrators can keep up to date with the latest trends in the fitness industry.

7.4   Suggestions for future research

- Further research can investigate job satisfaction, mental health and ooccupational stress among sport administrators.
- The attitudes of males towards females in leadership positions at sporting organizations can be investigated.

- The multidimensionality and multiple perspectives of organizational effectiveness in sport organizations can be researched.
- As sport is a rapidly growing industry in South Africa research can be conducted on organizational culture and leadership in sporting organizations.

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25 November 2004

Miss L. Mkhize

Re: Permission to conduct study

I currently am employed as a lecturer in the Department of Sport Management at the Durban Institute of Technology. My qualifications include the following degrees:

- B.A. Human Movement Studies [U.D.W.]
- B.A. Honours Sport Science [U.D.W]
- M.A Sport Science (U.K.Z.N).

I am currently a Doctoral student in the Department of Sport Science, Faculty of Health Sciences at the University of KwaZulu-Natal. My research topic is *"An analysis of perceived leadership styles and levels of job satisfaction of sport administrators employed at tertiary institutions in South Africa".* My supervisor is Professor Yoga Coopoo, Head of Department: Sport Science.

My research methodology is both exploratory and explanatory. It aims to investigate the perceived leadership styles and levels of job satisfaction of sport administrators employed at SASSU affiliated tertiary institutions. A study of this nature has not been conducted in South Africa before therefore the findings will be beneficial to the entire sporting industry. In addition it will further assist sport

administrators to lead their organization more effectively, thus indirectly leading to better job performance.

The potential benefits of completing the questionnaire include, and are not limited to:

- Leadership styles will be analysed and recommendations will be made with regards to the best leadership style is suitable for sport administrators to ensure organizational effectiveness and sound administration.
- Further recommendations pertaining to job satisfaction will also be made resulting in a better working environment and higher levels of job satisfaction.

To complete this study I require the permission of The South African Students Sports Union (SASSU) to administer the questionnaires at tertiary institutions. Would you kindly present me with a written consent letter from SASSU.

Thanking you.

Padmini Naidoo

APPENDIX 2: PERMISSION LETTER TO HEAD OF DEPARTMENTS

PADMINI NAIDOO

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25 November 2004

The head of sport administration department

Re: Permission to conduct study

I currently am employed as a lecturer in the Department of Sport Management at the Durban Institute of Technology. My qualifications include the following degrees:

- B.A. Human Movement Studies [U.D.W.]
- B.A. Honours Sport Science [U.D.W]
- M.A Sport Science (U.K.Z.N).

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The potential benefits of completing the questionnaire include, and are not limited to:

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- Further recommendations pertaining to job satisfaction will also be made resulting in a better working environment and higher levels of job satisfaction.

To complete this study I require the permission of your institution to administer the questionnaires to sport administrators and coaches employed at your institution.

Thanking you.

Padmini Naidoo [Ms]

APPENDIX 3: INFORMED CONSENT FOR ZULU SPEAKING RESPONDENTS

PADMINI NAIDOO

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ABAQEQESHI-ABAPHATHI BEZEMIDLALO

24 January 2005

Sawubona

Isivumelwano: PhD. esifundweni se Sport Science

Nginguthishela emkhakheni weSport Management esikhungweni semfundo ephezulu saseDurban Institute of Technology. Ngiqeqeshwe ezifundweni ezilandelayo:

- B.A. Human Movement Studies [U.D.W.]
- B.A. Honours Sport Science [U.D.W]
- M.A Sport Science [U.K.Z.N]

Ngimatasa nezifundo zami ze PhD emkhakheni we Sport Science eNyuvesi yakwaZulu-Natali. Ucwaningo lwami engilwenzayo luthi *"Ucwaningo ngezinhlobo zobuholi kanye nokwaneliseka kwabaphathi bezemidlalo abasebenza ezikhungweni zemfundo ephezulu eNingizimu Afrika"*. Uthisha owengamele lolucwaningo lwami, uProfesssor Yogo, usihlalo we Sport Science. Indlela yocwaningo engiyisebenzisayo iyahlolisisa kanti iphinde ichazisise. Ihlose ukubhekisisa izinhlobo zobuholi nokwaneliseka emisebenzini kwabaphathi bezemidlalo ezikhungweni zemfundo ephezulu. Loluhlobo locwaningo alukaze lwenziwe eNingizimu Afrika ngakho-ke ulwazi engizoluthola luzosiza kakhulu kwezemidlalo. Ngaphezu kwalokho, kuzosizakala abaphathi bezemidlalo ekuholeni ngobuqotho, ngaleyondlela basebenze ngokuzimisela.

Ngicela ungiphe imizuzu engamashumi amathathu esikhathini sakho ukugcwalisa lemibuzo. Izimpendulo zakho zizongisiza ekutholeni lolulwazi oludingekayo kulolucwaningo engilwenzayo. Ngicela usebenzise lemvelophu efakwe lapha ukuthumela izimpendulo. Ngiyathembisa ukuthi igama lakho liyogodlwa ligcinwe liyimfihlo.

Usizo oluyotholakala ngokuphendula lemibuzo lumi kanje:

- Izinhlobo zobuholi ziyohlolisiswa kanti kuyokwenziwa izincomo ngohlobo lobuholi olufanelekile kubaphathi bezemidlalo ukuze kube nempumelelo nokuzimisela.
- Ezinye izincomo eziphathelene nokwaneliseka emsebenzini ziyokwenziwa ukuze kube khona ukuthokoza nokwaneliseka emisebenzini noma ezindaweni zokusebenza.

Ngebhadi ayikho inkokhelo eyokwenziwa kodwa uvumelekile ukuthi ungahoxa kulolucwaningo uma ufisa ukungaqhubeki. Uzonikwa isikhathi esanele ukuze ufunde, uqondisise futhi ubuze ngemininingwane ongaba nayo ngaphambi kokuthi uvume. Izimpendulo zakho eziqotho zizongisiza ukuthi ngithole isiphetho okuyisonasona nokuthi ngenze izincomo ezifanelekile. Ngiyathembisa ukuthi izimpendulo zakho zizosetshenziswa kulolucwaningo kuphela kanti zizogcinwa ziyimfihlo. Ungangabazi ukungithinta kuleminininingwane engiyibhale ngaphezulu uma unemibuzo.

Ngiyabonga ngesikhathi nolwazi ozonginika lona.

Yimina ozithobayo
Padmini Naidoo [Ms]
Ngicela usayine lapha

Usuku

APPENDIX 4: INFORMED CONSENT FOR ENGLISH SPEAKING
RESPONDENTS

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POSTAL ADDRESS
PO Box 65344
Reservoir Hills
4091
e-mail: moodleyp@dit.ac.za

SPORT ADMINISTRATORS

24 May 2005

Dear respondent

Re: Informed consent: PhD. in Sport Science

I currently am employed as a lecturer in the Department of Sport Management at the Durban Institute of Technology. My qualifications include the following degrees:

- B.A. Human Movement Studies [U.D.W.]

- B.A. Honours Sport Science [U.D.W]

- M.A Sport Science [U.K.Z.N]

I am currently a Doctorate student in the Discipline of Sport Science, Faculty of Health Sciences at the University of KwaZulu-Natal. My research topic is *"An analysis of perceived leadership styles and levels of job satisfaction of sport administrators employed at tertiary institutions in South Africa"*. My supervisor is Professor Yoga Coopoo, Discipline chair: Sport Science. My research methodology is both exploratory and explanatory. It aims to investigate the perceived leadership styles and levels of job satisfaction of sport administrators employed at tertiary institutions. A study of this nature has not been conducted in South Africa before therefore the findings will be beneficial to the entire sporting industry. In addition it will further assist sport administrators to lead their organization more effectively, thus indirectly leading to better job performance.

To complete this study I require 30 minutes of your time to complete the attached questionnaire. Your responses will assist me to obtain the relevant information for the synthesis of this research. Please use the enclosed self-addressed envelope to return the questionnaire. Anonomity is guaranteed.

The potential benefits of completing the questionnaire include, and are not limited to:

- Leadership styles will be analyzed and recommendations will be made with regards to the best leadership style is suitable for sport administrators to ensure organizational effectiveness and sound administration.

- Further recommendations pertaining to job satisfaction will also be made resulting in a better working environment and higher levels of job satisfaction.

Regretfully, no payments will be made to you however you are free to withdraw from this study at any stage. You will be given time to read, understand and question the information before giving consent. Your frank responses will assist me in arriving at useful conclusions and recommendations. You are given the assurance by the researcher that your responses to the questionnaire will be confined to the use of the study and confidentiality will be strictly observed. In case of any queries, feel free to contact on the above telephone/e-mail details.

I would like to thank you for your invaluable time and information.

Yours sincerely

Padmini Naidoo [Ms]

Signature of respondent

Date

APPENDIX 5: QUESTIONNAIRE ADMINISTERED TO SPORT ADMINISTRATORS IN ENGLISH

QUESTIONAIRE ONE: SPORT ADMINISTRATORS

SECTION ONE: BIOGRAPHICAL DATA

Please mark an "X" in the appropriate block (number)

1.1   How old are you?

18-25	
25-35	
35-45	
45-55	

1.2   How many years have you been a sport administrator?

0 - 3 years	
3 – 6 years	
6 – 9 years	
9 – 12 years	

1.3   What is your designation?

Head of Department	
Sport Administrator	

1.4   What is your home language?

English	
Afrikaans	
Zulu	
Sotho	
Other	

1.5   What is your race group?

Black	
White	
Asian	
Coloured	

1.6   What is your gender?

Male	
Female	

1.7   In which province do you work?

Western Cape	
Eastern Cape	
KwaZulu Natal	
Gauteng	
Mpumalanga	
Limpopo	
Northern Cape	
North West Province	
Free State	

1.8   What is your academic qualification/s?

Degree in Sport Science	
Degree in Sport Management	
Diploma in Sport Management	
Post-grad qualification [Please specify]	
Other [Please specify]	

SECTION TWO: OCCUPATIONAL CHOICE, EDUCATION

2.1   Do you have any regrets regarding your profession?

Yes	
No	

2.2   If yes, why?

_____

_____

2.3   If you had an opportunity to start your career life again would you choose another profession?

Yes	
No	

2.4   If yes, why?

_____

_____

2.5   Do you belong to a trade union?

Yes	
No	

2.6   Do you think that the qualification programs that are available are sufficient to equip you in the field of sport administration?

Yes	
No	

2.7   If no indicate shortfalls

_____

_____

2.8   Number of skills or training courses attended since you started Sport Administration

0-5	
5 –10	
10 -15	

2.9   What levels of stress do you experience in you job?

High	
Medium	
Low	

2.10   Is your job description clearly stated

Yes	
No	

2.11   Does your department adhere to meeting its goals for the year to achieve organizational effectiveness?

Yes	
No	

2.12   If no, indicate shortfalls

SECTION THREE: JOB SATISFACTION

These questions are intended to indicate your levels of job satisfaction as you perceive it.

	JOB SATISFACTION SURVEY Paul E. Spector Department of Psychology University of South Florida Copyright Paul E. Spector 1994, All rights reserved.						
	PLEASE CIRCLE THE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH QUESTION THAT COMES CLOSEST TO REFLECTING YOUR OPINION ABOUT IT.	Disagree very much	Disagree moderately	Disagree slightly	Agree slightly	Agree moderately	Agree very much
3.1	I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.2	There is really too little chance for promotion on my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.3	My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.4	I am not satisfied with the benefits I receive.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.5	When I do a good job, I receive the recognition for it that I should receive.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.6	Many of our rules and procedures make doing a good job difficult.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.7	I like the people I work with.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.8	I sometimes feel my job is meaningless.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.9	Communications seem good within this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.10	Raises are too few and far between.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.11	Those who do well on the job stand a fair chance of being promoted.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.12	My supervisor is unfair to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.13	The benefits we receive are as good as most other organizations offer.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.14	I do not feel that the work I do is appreciated.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.15	My efforts to do a good job are seldom blocked by red tape.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.16	I find I have to work harder at my job because of the incompetence of people I work with.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.17	I like doing the things I do at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6

	PLEASE CIRCLE THE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH QUESTION THAT COMES CLOSEST TO REFLECTING YOUR OPINION ABOUT IT.	Disagree very much	Disagree moderately	Disagree slightly	Agree slightly	Agree moderately	Agree very much
3.18	The goals of this organization are not clear to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.19	I feel unappreciated by the organization when I think about what they pay me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.20	People get ahead as fast here as they do in other places.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.21	My supervisor shows too little interest in the feelings of subordinates.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.22	The benefit package we have is equitable.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.23	There are few rewards for those who work here.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.24	I have too much to do at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.25	I enjoy my co-workers.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.26	I often feel that I do not know what is going on with the organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.27	I feel a sense of pride in doing my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.28	I feel satisfied with my chances for salary increases.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.29	There are benefits we do not have which we should have.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.30	I like my supervisor.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.31	I have too much paperwork.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.32	I don't feel my efforts are rewarded the way they should be.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.33	I am satisfied with my chances for promotion.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.34	There is too much bickering and fighting at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.35	My job is enjoyable.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.36	Work assignments are not fully explained.	1	2	3	4	5	6

SECTION FOUR: LEADERSHIP

These questions are designed to help you describe your leadership style as you perceive it. The word "others" may mean your peers, clients, direct reports, supervisor and all of these individuals. If an item is irrelevant, or if you are unsure or do not know the answer leave the answer blank.

	Leader version of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Bass and Avolio Department of Management State University of New York Copyright Bass and Avolio (1995). All rights reserved.					
DIRECTIONS	**PLEASE CIRCLE THE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH QUESTION THAT COMES CLOSEST TO REFLECTING YOUR OPINION.**	**Not at all**	**Once in a while**	**Sometimes**	**Fairly often**	**Frequently if not always**
4.1	I provide others with assistance in exchange for their efforts.	0	1	2	3	4
4.2	I re-examine critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate.	0	1	2	3	4
4.3	I fail to interfere until problems became serious	0	1	2	3	4
4.4	I focus attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions and deviations from standards.	0	1	2	3	4
4.5	I avoid getting involved when important issues arise.	0	1	2	3	4
4.6	I talk about my most important values and beliefs.	0	1	2	3	4
4.7	I am absent when needed.	0	1	2	3	4
4.8	I seek differing perspectives when solving problems.	0	1	2	3	4
4.9	I talk optimistically about the future.	0	1	2	3	4
4.10	I instil pride in others for being associated with me.	0	1	2	3	4
4.11	I discuss in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets.	0	1	2	3	4
4.12	I wait for things to go wrong before taking action.	0	1	2	3	4
4.13	I talk enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished.	0	1	2	3	4
4.14	I specify the importance of having a strong sense of purpose.	0	1	2	3	4
4.15	I spend time teaching and coaching.	0	1	2	3	4

	PLEASE CIRCLE THE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH QUESTION THAT COMES CLOSEST TO REFLECTING YOUR OPINION ABOUT IT.	Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently if not always
4.16	I make clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved.	0	1	2	3	4
4.17	I show that I am a firm believer in "if it aint' broken don't fix it".	0	1	2	3	4
4.18	I go beyond self-interest for the good of the group.	0	1	2	3	4
4.19	I treat others as individuals rather than as a member of a group					
4.20	I demonstrate that problems must become chronic before I take action.	0	1	2	3	4
4.21	I act in ways that build others' respect for me.	0	1	2	3	4
4.22	I concentrate my full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints and failure.	0	1	2	3	4
4.23	I consider the moral and ethical consequences of decisions.	0	1	2	3	4
4.24	I keep track of all mistakes.	0	1	2	3	4
4.25	I display a sense of power and confidence.	0	1	2	3	4
4.26	I articulate a compelling vision of the future.	0	1	2	3	4
4.27	I direct my attention toward failures to meet standards.	0	1	2	3	4
4.28	I avoid making decisions.	0	1	2	3	4
4.29	I consider an individual as having different needs, abilities and aspirations from others.	0	1	2	3	4
4.30	I get others to look at problems from many different angles.	0	1	2	3	4
4.31	I help others to develop their strengths.	0	1	2	3	4
4.32	I suggest new ways of looking at how to complete assignments.	0	1	2	3	4
4.33	I delay responding to urgent questions.	0	1	2	3	4
4.34	I emphasize the importance of having a collective sense of mission.	0	1	2	3	4
4.35	I express satisfaction when others meet expectations.	0	1	2	3	4
4.36	I express confidence that goals will be achieved	0	1	2	3	4
4.37	I am effective in meeting others' job-related needs.	0	1	2	3	4
4.38	I use methods of leadership that are satisfying.	0	1	2	3	4
4.39	I get others to do more than they expected to do	0	1	2	3	4
4.40	I am effective in representing others to higher authority.	0	1	2	3	4
4.41	I work with others in a satisfactory way.	0	1	2	3	4
4.42	I heighten others' desire to succeed	0	1	2	3	4
4.43	I am effective in meeting organizational requirements.	0	1	2	3	4
4.44	I increase others' willingness to try harder.	0	1	2	3	4
4.45	I lead a group that is effective.	0	1	2	3	4

SECTION FIVE : ORGANIZATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS

This questionnaire is designed to help you rate organizational effectiveness as you perceive it.

	PLEASE CIRCLE THE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH QUESTION THAT COMES CLOSEST TO REFLECTING YOUR OPINION ABOUT IT.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
5.1	Job responsibilities are sensibly organized in your department.	1	2	3	4
5.2	Persons' in your department know what their jobs are and how to do them well.	1	2	3	4
5.3	Administrative structure of the sport administration department is efficient.	1	2	3	4
5.4	In your department the distribution of responsibilities among the administrators is appropriate.	1	2	3	4
5.5	Your department operations are smooth and efficient.	1	2	3	4
5.6	In your department, decisions are made at those levels where the most adequate and accurate information is available.	1	2	3	4
5.7	When decisions are being made, the persons affected are asked for their ideas.	1	2	3	4
5.8	In your department information is widely shared so those who make decisions have access to all available know-how.	1	2	3	4
5.9	The head of department makes good decisions and solve problems well.	1	2	3	4
5.10	People in your department share information about important events and situations.	1	2	3	4
5.11	Your tertiary institution has real interest in the welfare and happiness of those who work in it.	1	2	3	4
5.12	Your tertiary institution tries to improve working conditions.	1	2	3	4
5.13	The coaches and administrators plan together and coordinate their efforts.	1	2	3	4
5.14	The coaches and sport administrators get on well.	1	2	3	4

UMBUZO WOKUQALA: ABAPHATHI BEZEMIDLALO

ISIQEPHU SOKUQALA: OKUPHATHELENE NOMLANDO WAKHO

Ngecela ufake u X lapho kufaneleke khona

1.1   Uneminyaka emingaki?

18-25	
25-35	
35-45	
45-55	

1.2 Usuneminyaka emingaki ungumphathi wezemidlalo?

0 - 3 years	
3 – 6 years	
6 – 9 years	
9 – 12 years	

1.3   Sibizwa ngokuthini isikhundla osuphethe?

Umphathi womnyango	
Umphathi wezemidlalo	

1.4   Ulimi olukhulunywa ekhaya?

English	
Afrikaans	
Zulu	
Sotho	
Olunye	

1.5   Uhlanga lwakho?

Umnyama	
Umhlophe	
Umndiya	
Ikhaladi	

1.6   Ungumuntu

Wesilisa	
Wesifazane	

1.7   Isiphi isifundazwe osebenza kuso?

Western Cape	
Eastern Cape	
KwaZulu Natal	
Gauteng	
Mpumalanga	
Limpopo	
Northern Cape	
North West Province	
Free State	

1.8   Imfundo yakho?

Degree in Sport Science	
Degree in Sport Management	
Diploma in Sport Management	
Post-grad qualification [Ngicela uchaze]	
Okunye [Ngicela uchaze]	

ISIQEPHU SESEBILI: UMSEBENZI KANYE NEMFUNDO YAKHO

2.1 Ingabe kukhona ozisola ngakho ngaloluhlobo lomsebenzi owukhethile?

Yebo	
Cha	

2.2 Uma uthe yebo, isiphi isizathu?

_____

_____

2.3 Uma unganikwa elinye ithuba lokukhetha umsebenzi, ungawukhetha omunye umsebenzi?

Yebo	
Cha	

2.4 Uma uthe yebo, isiphi isizathu?

_____

_____

2.5 Uyilunga lenyunyana?

Yebo	
Cha	

2.6 Ngokubona kwakho, kungabe izinhlelo zokuthuthukisa amakhono nolwazi lwakho ezikhona zanele ukuthi zikufundise kahle ngalomsebenzi owenzayo?

Yebo	
Cha	

2.7 Uma uthe cha, nika izingqinamba ezibangela lokhu.

_____

_____

_____

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2.8 Ngabe zingaki izifundo noma ukuqeqeshwa osukutholile selokhu waqala umsebenzi wakho?

0-5	
5 -10	
10 -15	

2.9 Lingakanani izinga lokukhathazeka ngenxa yomsebenzi wakho?

Liphezulu	
Liphakathi nendawo	
Lincane	

2.10 Ucacelwe kahle umsebenzi owenzayo nokumele uwenze?

Yebo	
Cha	

2.11 Kuyanekekelwa yini ukuthi kufezeke izinjongo ezihleliwe ngonyaka emsebenzini wakho ukuze kubenempumelelo?

Yebo	
Cha	

2.12 Uma uthe cha, nika izingqinamba ezibangela lokhu.

_____

_____

ISIQEPHU SESITHATHU: UKWANELISEKA EMSEBENZINI

Ngalemibuzo ngihlose ukuthola amazinga okwaneliseka emsebenzini ngendlela owabona ngawo wena.

	JOB SATISFACTION SURVEY Paul E. Spector Department of Psychology University of South Florida Copyright Paul E. Spector 1994, All rights reserved.						
	NGICELA UKOKELEZELE LEYONOMBOLO EHAMBISANA NEMIBONO YAKHO.	Ngiyaphika kakhulu	Ngiphika nje	Ngiphika kancane	Ngiyavuma kancane	Ngiyavuma nje	Ngiyavuma kakhulu
3.1	Ngibona ukuthi ngikhokhelwa ngokufanele umsebenzi engiwenzayo.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.2	Mancane amathuba okuthi ngithole ukunyuswa esikhundleni.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.3	Umphathi wami uqeqeshekile emsebenzini wakhe.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.4	Anganelisekile ngeholo engilitholayo.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.5	Ngiyakuthola ukunconywa okufanele uma ngenze umsebenzi omuhle.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.6	Imithetho eminingi kanye nezindlela zokusebenza ezibekiwe zenza kube nzima ukwenza umsebenzi kahle.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.7	Ngiyabathanda abantu engisebenza nabo.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.8	Ngiye ngizwe sengathi umsebenzi wami awunampumelelo kwezinye izikhathi.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.9	Kunokuxhumana okuhle lapha engisebenza khona.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.10	Kuncane ukunyuselwa kwamaholo.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.11	Abasebenza kahle nangokuzimisela basethubeni lokunyuswa ezikhundleni.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.12	Umphathi wami akangiphathi kahle	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.13	Amaholo esiwatholayo ayalingana nalawo akwezinye izindawo zokusebenza	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.14	Ngizizwa sengathi umsebenzi engiwenzayo awuthakaselwa.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.15	Imizamo yami yokwenza umsebenzi omuhle ivinjwa imithetho eminingi.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.16	Ngizithola sengisebenza kanzima ngenxa yabantu abangazimisele emsebenzini.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.17	Ngiyathanda ukwenza izinto engizenzayo emsebenzini.	1	2	3	4	5	6

	NGICELA UKOKELEZELE LEYONOMBOLO EHAMBISANA NEMIBONO YAKHO.	Ngiyaphika kakhulu	Ngiphika nje	Ngiphika kancane	Ngiyavuma kancane	Ngiyavuma nje	Ngiyavuma kakhulu
3.18	Angicacelwe kahle ngezinjongo zendawo engisebenza kuyo.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.19	Ngiye ngizizwe ngingathakaselwe emsebenzini uma ngicabanga ngeholo engilitholayo.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.20	Abantu bathola ukunyuswa ngokushesha kunezinye izindawo zokusebenza.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.21	Umphathi wami akayinakekeli imizwa yabasebenzi.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.22	Amaholo esiwatholayo ayalingana nawezinye izinhlanga.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.23	Mincane imivuzo esiyitholayo ngokusebenza lapha.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.24	Nginomsebenzi omningi.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.25	Ngiyakuthakasela ukuba nabanye abasebenzi.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.26	Ngiye ngizwe ngingazi ukuthi kwenzekani emsebenzini wami isikhathi esiningi.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.27	Ngiyaziqhenya ngomsebenzi engiwenzayo.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.28	Ngiyeneliseka ngamathuba okunyuselwa amaholo emsebenzini.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.29	Amaholo nemivuzo esiyitholayo akufanele ngabe siyawathola.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.30	Ngiyamthanda umphathi wami.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.31	Nginomsebenzi omningi ophathelene nokwasehhovisi.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.32	Angizizwa sengathi imizamo yami iyaholelwa ngendlela efanele.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.33	Nganelisiwe ngamathuba okunyuswa esikhundleni emsebenzini.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.34	Kuhleze kunokulwa nezingxabano emsebenzini.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.35	Ngiyawuthokozela umsebenzi wami.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.36	Angichazelwa kahle imisebenzi okumele ngiyenze.	1	2	3	4	5	6

ISIQEPHU SESINE: UBUHOLI

Lemibuzo yenzelwe ukukusiza ekuchazeni indlela ohola ngayo ngendlela oyibona ngayo. Igama elithi "abanye" lingachaza abantu osebenza nabo, abantu abadinga usizo emsebenzini wakho, umphathi wakho kanye nabo bonke abanye abantu emsebenzini wakho. Uma kukhona imibuzo engaphathelene nokwenzayo noma ungaqondisisi kahle noma ke ungenayo impendulo yalowombuzo, ngicela ushiye isikhala.

	NGICELA UKOKELEZELE LEYONOMBOLO EHAMBISANA NEMIBONO YAKHO.	Angikaze	Qabukela	Kwezinye izkhathi	Ngijwaeyle	Izikhathi eziningi
4.1	Ngiyabasiza abanye ngemizamo yabo abayenza emsebenzini.	0	1	2	3	4
4.2	Ngiyayibhekisisa imibono abantu abayenzayo ukuze ngibone ukuthi ifanelekile yini.	0	1	2	3	4
4.3	Angikwazi ukuxazulula izinkinga kuze kube zibanzima kakhulu.	0	1	2	3	4
4.4	Ngikhonze ukunaka izinkinga, amaphutha nezinye izinto ezingabalulekile.	0	1	2	3	4
4.5	Angizixhumanisi nabantu uma kunezinkinga ezivelayo.	0	1	2	3	4
4.6	Ngikhonze ukukhuluma nabantu ngibatshele ngokubaluleka kwezinkolelo zomsebenzi.	0	1	2	3	4
4.7	Angibi khona uma ngidingeka.	0	1	2	3	4
4.8	Ngiyazifuna izimvo zabanye abantu uma ngixazulula izinkinga.	0	1	2	3	4
4.9	Ngikhuluma ngokuzethemba uma ngikhuluma ngekusasa.	0	1	2	3	4
4.10	Ngiyabakhuthaza abantu engizwana nabo futhi ngibagqugquzele.	0	1	2	3	4
4.11	Ngiyabachazela kahle abantu ngemisebenzi okumele bayenze.	0	1	2	3	4
4.12	Ngilinda kuze kubhede izinto ngaphambi kokuthi ngithathe izinyathelo.	0	1	2	3	4
4.13	Ngikhuluma ngendlela egqugquzelayo ngezinto okudingeka zenziwe.	0	1	2	3	4
4.14	Ngiyabachazela kahle abantu ngokubaluleka kwezinjongo emsebenzini.	0	1	2	3	4

	NGICELA UKOKELEZELE LEYONOMBOLO EHAMBISANA NEMIBONO YAKHO.	Angikaze	Qabukela	Kwezinye izkhathi	Ngijwaeyle	Izikhathi eziningi
4.16	Ngiyabachazela kahle abantu okulindelwe ukuba kwenziwe ukuze kufezeke izinjongo zomsebenzi.	0	1	2	3	4
4.17	Ngikholelwa kakhulu ekutheni "uma into ingephukile, ungayilungisi".	0	1	2	3	4
4.18	Ngiyayeka ukuzinaka mina ukuze siphumelele sonke.	0	1	2	3	4
4.19	Ngibathatha abantu njengabantu kunokuba yingxenye yeqembu.					
4.20	Ngingumuntu okhombisa ukuthi izinkinga azixazululwa kuze kube zenzeka njalo.	0	1	2	3	4
4.21	Indlela engenze ngayo izinto yenza abantu bangihloniphe.	0	1	2	3	4
4.22	Ngiyazinika isikhathi sokuxazulula izinkinga namaphutha.	0	1	2	3	4
4.23	Ngiyacabanga ngemithelela yezinqumo zami ngaphambi kokuzithatha.	0	1	2	3	4
4.24	Ngiyathanda ukulokhu nginaka amaphutha.	0	1	2	3	4
4.25	Ngingumuntu okhombisa ukuzethemba.	0	1	2	3	4
4.26	Nginombono ocacile ngekusasa.	0	1	2	3	4
4.27	Ngingumuntu ojobelela ekungaphumeleleni ukuzama ukuphumelela.	0	1	2	3	4
4.28	Ngiyagwema ukuthatha izinqumo.	0	1	2	3	4
4.29	Ngiye ngicabange ngomuntu nokuthi unezidingo, amakhono nezifiso ezihlukile kwabanye abantu.	0	1	2	3	4
4.30	Ngenza abantu babheke izinkinga ngamacala ahlukene.	0	1	2	3	4
4.31	Ngiyabasiza abantu ukuba bathuthukise iziphiwo zabo.	0	1	2	3	4
4.32	Ngiyabacebisa abantu ngezinye izindlela zokuqeda imisebenzi abayenzayo.	0	1	2	3	4
4.33	Angisheshi ukuphendula imibuzo ebalulekile.	0	1	2	3	4
4.34	Ngiyakugcizelela ukusebenza ngenjongo yobunye.	0	1	2	3	4
4.35	Ngiyakhombisa ukwaneliseka nokuthokoza uma abanye besebenze ngendlela elindelekile.	0	1	2	3	4
4.36	Ngikhombisa ukuzethemba uma ngikhuluma ngezinjongo ezidinga ukufezwa.	0	1	2	3	4
4.37	Ngiyazimisela ekunakekeleni izidingo zabasebenzi.	0	1	2	3	4

	NGICELA UKOKELEZELE LEYONOMBOLO EHAMBISANA NEMIBONO YAKHO.	Angikaze	Qabukela	Kwezinye izkhathi	Ngijwaeyle	Izikhathi eziningi
4.38	Indlela engihola ngayo iyagculisa.	0	1	2	3	4
4.39	Ngiyabagqugquzela abasebenzi ukuthi basebenze ngokuzimisela, ngaphezu kwalokhu okulindeke kubona.	0	1	2	3	4
4.40	Ngiyazinikela ekumeleni abasebenzi kubaphathi.	0	1	2	3	4
4.41	Sisebenzisana kahle nabasebenzi ngendlela ejabulisayo.	0	1	2	3	4
4.42	Ngiyabagqugquzela abasebenzi ekuzimiseleni kwabo nasothandweni lokuphumelela.	0	1	2	3	4
4.43	Ngiyazimisela ekuhlangabezeni izidingo zendawo engisebenza kuyo.	0	1	2	3	4
4.44	Ngiyabagqugquzela abasebenzi ekuthandeni ukusebenza kanzima.	0	1	2	3	4
4.45	Ngihola iqembu elizimisele nelifeza izinjongo ezidingekayo.	0	1	2	3	4

ISIQEPHU SESIHLANU: INDLELA YOKUZIMISELA EMSEBENZINI

Imibuzo lena ihlose ukuthola indlela yokuzimisela emsebenzini ngendlela oyibona ngayo.

	Organizational Effectiveness Questionnaire Chelladurai Ohio State University Copyright Chelludurai (1991). All rights reserved.				
	NGICELA UKOKELEZELE LEYONOMBOLO EHAMBISANA NEMIBONO YAKHO.	Ngiyaphika kakhulu	Ngiyaphika	Ngiyavuma	Ngiyavuma kahulu
5.1	Imisebenzi okumele yenziwe ihlelwe ngendlela ugculisayo	1	2	3	4
5.2	Abantu engisebenza nabo bayazi ukuthi ikuphi okumele bakwenze nezindlela zokwenza lokho kahle.	1	2	3	4
5.3	Ukuphathwa kwezemisebenzi ephathelene nezemidlalo kuhlelwa futhi kwenziwe ngendlela eletha izithelo ezinhle.	1	2	3	4
5.4	Ukuhlelwa kwemisebenzi phakathi kwalaba abasebenzayo kwenziwa ngendlela efanelekile.	1	2	3	4
5.5	Ukwenziwa kwemisebenzi kuhamba ngendlela ngendlela ugculisayo nenempumelelo.	1	2	3	4
5.6	Izinqumo zenziwa kuwo onke amazinga abasebenzi ngendlela efanelekile futhi uma lonke ulwazi oludingekayo ukuze kwenziwe lezozinqumo selukhona.	1	2	3	4
5.7	Ziyacelwa izmvo zabobonke abantu abathintekayo uma kwenziwa izinqumo.	1	2	3	4
5.8	Ulwazi oludingekayo luyanikezelwa kubo bonke abantu ukuze ukuthi labo abadinga ukwenza izinqumo babe nalo ulwazi oludingekayo ekuthatheni lezozinqumo.	1	2	3	4
5.9	Umphathi wethu wenza izinqumo ezifanelekile kanti uzixazulula kahle izinkinga.	1	2	3	4
5.10	Abantu engisebenza nabo bayanikezelana ngolwazi oluphathelene nezimo ezibalulekile.	1	2	3	4
5.11	Isikhungo semfundo ephezulu lapho usebenza khona sinakho ukunakekela izimpilo nokujabula kwabantu abasebenza khona.	1	2	3	4
5.12	Isikhungo semfundo ephezulu lapho usebenza khona siyazama ukukhuphula izimo zokusebenza.	1	2	3	4
5.13	Abaqeqeshi kanye nabaphathi bezemidlalo bayahlela izinto okumele zenziwe baphinde bazenze ngokubambisana.	1	2	3	4
5.14	Abaqeqeshi kanye nabaphathi bezemidlalo bayazwana kakhulu.	1	2	3	4

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Questionaire to coaches

SECTION ONE: BIOGRAPHICAL DATA

Please mark on "X" in the appropriate block (number).

1.1   How old are you?

18 –25	
25 – 35	
35 – 40	
45 – 55	

1.2   How many years have you been a coach for?

0 – 3 years	
3 –6 years	
6 –9 years	
9 – 12 years	

1.3   Your home language

English	
Afrikaans	
Zulu	
Other	

1.4   Are you

Male	
Female	

1.5   Your race group

Black		
White		
Asian		
Coloured		

1.6   Your qualification

Diploma	
Degree	
Personal experience	
Other	

1.7   Which province are you from.

Western Cape	
KwaZulu - Natal	
Eastern Cape	
Gauteng	
Northern Cape	
Mpumalanga	
North West Province	
Limpompo	
Free State	

1.8   What code of sport are you coaching?

1.	
2.	
3.	
4.	
5.	

SECTION TWO: OCCUPATIONAL CHOICE AND EDUCATION

2.1   Have you ever regretted your career choice?

Yes	
No	

2.2   If yes, why?

_____

_____

_____

2.3   If you had an opportunity to start you career life, again would you choose another profession

Yes	
No	

2.4   If yes, why?

_____

_____

_____

2.5   Do you think your job is secure

Yes	
No	

2.6   Have you been dismissed from employment before?

Yes	
No	

2.7   Where you ever under pressure from management to resign

Yes	
No	

2.8   Do you think that the qualification programs that are available are   sufficient to equip you in the field of coaching

Yes	
No	

2.9   If no indicate shortfalls

_____

_____

_____

2.10   Number of courses attended since you started coaching

0 - 5	
5 – 10	
10 – 15	

2.11   What levels of stress do you experience in your job

High	
Medium	
Low	

2.12   Do you belong to a trade union.

Yes	
No	

SECTION THREE: JOB SATISFACTION

	JOB SATISFACTION SURVEY Paul E. Spector Department of Psychology University of South Florida Please circle the number for each question that come closest to reflecting your opinion about it. Copyright Paul E. Spector 1994, All rights reserved.						
	PLEASE CIRCLE THE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH QUESTION THAT COMES CLOSEST TO REFLECTING YOUR OPINION ABOUT IT.	Disagree very much	Disagree moderately	Disagree slightly	Agree slightly	Agree moderately	Agree very much
3.1	I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.2	There is really too little chance for promotion on my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.3	My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.4	I am not satisfied with the benefits I receive.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.5	When I do a good job, I receive the recognition for it that I should receive.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.6	Many of our rules and procedures make doing a good job difficult.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.7	I like the people I work with.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.8	I sometimes feel my job is meaningless.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.9	Communications seem good within this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.10	Raises are too few and far between.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.11	Those who do well on the job stand a fair chance of being promoted.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.12	My supervisor is unfair to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.13	The benefits we receive are as good as most other organization offer.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.14	I do not feel that the work I do is appreciated.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.15	My efforts to do a good job are seldom blocked by red tape.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.16	I find I have to work harder at my job because of the incompetence of people I work with.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.17	I like doing the things I do at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6

	PLEASE CIRCLE THE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH QUESTION THAT COMES CLOSEST TO REFLECTING YOUR OPINION ABOUT IT.	Disagree very much	Disagree moderately	Disagree slightly	Agree slightly	Agree moderately	Agree very much
3.18	The goals of this organization are not clear to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.19	I feel unappreciated by the organization when I think about what they pay me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.20	People get ahead as fast here as they do in other places.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.21	My supervisor shows too little interest in the feelings of subordinates.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.22	The benefit package we have is equitable.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.23	There are few rewards for those who work here.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.24	I have too much to do at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.25	I enjoy my co-workers.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.26	I often feel that I do not know what is going on with the organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.27	I feel a sense of pride in doing my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.28	I feel satisfied with my chances for salary increases.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.29	There are benefits we do not have which we should have.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.30	I like my supervisor.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.31	I have too much paperwork.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.32	I don't feel my efforts are rewarded the way they should be.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.33	I am satisfied with my chances for promotion.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.34	There is too much bickering and fighting at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.35	My job is enjoyable.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.36	Work assignments are not fully explained.	1	2	3	4	5	6

SECTION FOUR: LEADERSHIP

This questionnaire is to describe the leadership style of your sport administrator as you perceive it. Please answer all items on this answer sheet. If an item is irrelevant, or if you are unsure or do not know the answer, leave the answer blank.

	Rater version of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire **LEADERSHIP** Bass and Avolio. Department of Management State University of New York Copyright, Bass and Avolio, (1995). All rights reserved.					
	FORTY-FIVE DESCRIPTIVE STATEMENTS ARE LISTED BELOW JUDGE HOW FREQUENTLY EACH STATEMENT FITS THE PERSON YOU ARE DESCRIBING BY CIRCLING THE NUMBER	Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently If not always
	The person I am rating:	0	1	2	3	4
4.1	Provides me with assistance in exchange for my efforts.	0	1	2	3	4
4.2	Re-examines critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate.	0	1	2	3	4
4.3	Fails to interfere until problems become serious.	0	1	2	3	4
4.4	Focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions and deviations from standards.	0	1	2	3	4
4.5	Avoids getting involved when important issues arise.	0	1	2	3	4
4.6	Talks about their most important values and beliefs.	0	1	2	3	4
4.7	Is absent when needed.	0	1	2	3	4
4.8	Seeks differing perspectives when solving problems.	0	1	2	3	4
4.9	Talks optimistically about the future.	0	1	2	3	4
4.10	Instils pride in me for being associated with him/her.	0	1	2	3	4
4.11	Discusses in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets.	0	1	2	3	4
4.12	Waits for things to go wrong before taking action.	0	1	2	3	4
4.13	Talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished.	0	1	2	3	4
4.14	Specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose.	0	1	2	3	4
4.15	Spends time teaching and coaching.	0	1	2	3	4
4.16	Makes clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved.	0	1	2	3	4
4.17	Shows that he/she is a firm believer in "if it ain't broke, don't fix it".	0	1	2	3	4

	Rater version of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire **LEADERSHIP** Bass and Avolio. Department of Management State University of New York Copyright, Bass and Avolio, (1995). All rights reserved.					
	FORTY-FIVE DESCRIPTIVE STATEMENTS ARE LISTED BELOW JUDGE HOW FREQUENTLY EACH STATEMENT FITS THE PERSON YOU ARE DESCRIBING BY CIRCLING THE NUMBER	Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently if not
4.18	Goes beyond self interest for the good of the group.	0	1	2	3	4
4.19	Treats me as an individual rather than just a member of a group.	0	1	2	3	4
4.20	Demonstrates that problems must become chronic before taking action.	0	1	2	3	4
4.21	Acts in a way that builds my respect.	0	1	2	3	4
4.22	Concentrates his/her full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints and failures.	0	1	2	3	4
4.23	Considers the moral and ethical consequences of decisions.	0	1	2	3	4
4.24	Keeps tracks of all mistakes.	0	1	2	3	4
4.25	Displays a sense of power and confidence.	0	1	2	3	4
4.26	Articulates a compelling vision of the future.	0	1	2	3	4
4.27	Directs my attention forward failures to meet standards.	0	1	2	3	4
4.28	Avoids making decisions.	0	1	2	3	4
4.29	Considers me as having different needs, abilities and aspirations from others.	0	1	2	3	4
4.30	Gets me too look at problems from many different angles.	0	1	2	3	4
4.31	Helps me to develop my strengths.	0	1	2	3	4
4.32	Suggests new ways of looking at how to complete assignments.	0	1	2	3	4
4.33	Delays responding to urgent questions.	0	1	2	3	4
4.34	Emphasizes the importance of having a collective sense of mission.	0	1	2	3	4
4.35	Expresses satisfaction when I meet expectations.	0	1	2	3	4
4.36	Expresses confidence that goals will be achieved.	0	1	2	3	4
4.37	Is effective in meeting my job related needs.	0	1	2	3	4
4.38	Uses methods of leadership that are satisfying.	0	1	2	3	4
4.39	Gets me to do more than I expected to do.	0	1	2	3	4
4.40	Is effective in representing me to higher authority.	0	1	2	3	4
4.41	Works with me in a satisfactory way.	0	1	2	3	4
4.42	Heightens my desire to succeed.	0	1	2	3	4

	Rater version of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire **LEADERSHIP** Bass and Avolio. Department of Management State University of New York Copyright, Bass and Avolio, (1995). All rights reserved.					
	FORTY-FIVE DESCRIPTIVE STATEMENTS ARE LISTED BELOW JUDGE HOW FREQUENTLY EACH STATEMENT FITS THE PERSON YOU ARE DESCRIBING BY CIRCLING THE NUMBER	Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently if not always
4.43	Is effective in meeting organizational requirements.	0	1	2	3	4
4.44	Increases my willingness to try harder.	0	1	2	3	4
4.45	Leads a group that is effective.	0	1	2	3	4

UMBUZO WOKUQALA: ABAQEQESHI

ISIQEPHU SOKUQALA: OKUPHATHELENE NOMLANDO WAKHO

Ngecela ufake u X lapho kufaneleke khona

1.1   Uneminyaka emingaki?

18 – 25	
25 – 35	
35 – 40	
45 – 55	

1.2   Usuneminyaka emingaki ungumqeqeshi?

0 – 3 years	
3 – 6 years	
6 – 9 years	
9 – 12 years	

1.3   Uimi olukhulunywa ekhaya?

English	
Afrikaans	
Zulu	
Other	

1.4   Ungumuntu

wesilisa	
wesifazane	

1.5   Uhlanga lwakho?

Umnyama	
Umhlophe	
Umndiya	
Ikhaladi	

1.6 Imfundo yakho

Diploma	
Degree	
Ukuzifundisa emsebenzini	
Okunye	

1.7 Isiphi isifundazwe oqhamuka kuso?

Western Cape	
Kwa Zulu Natal	
Eastern Cape	
Gauteng	
Northern Cape	
Mpumalanga	
North West Province	
Limpompo	
Free State	

1.8 Uqeqesha luphi uhlobo lomdlalo?

1.	
2.	
3.	
4.	
5.	

ISIQEPHU SESEBILI: UMSEBENZI KANYE NEMFUNDO YAKHO

2.1 Ingabe kukhona ozisola ngakho ngaloluhlobo lomsebenzi owukhethile?

Yebo	
Cha	

2.2 Uma uthe yebo isiphi isizathu?

_____

_____

_____

2.3 Uma unganikwa elinye ithuba lokukhetha umsebenzi, ungawukhetha omunye umsebenzi?

Yebo	
Cha	

2.4 Uma uthe yebo isiphi isizathu?

_____

_____

_____

2.5 Ngokubona kwakho umsebenzi wakho ukwenza uzizwe uvikelekile?

Yes	
No	

2.6 Uke waxoshwa emsebenzini ngaphambilini?

Yes	
No	

2.7 Uke wazizwa engathi abaphathi bakucindezela ukuthi ushiye emsebenzini wakho?

Yes	
No	

2.8 Ngokubona kwakho, ingabe izinhlelo zokuthuthukisa amakhono nolwazi ezikhona zanele ukuthi zikufundise kahle ngalomsebenzi owenzayo?

Yes	
No	

2.9 Uma uthe cha, nika izingqinamba ezibangela lokhu.

_____

_____

_____

2.10 Ngabe zingaki izifundo noma ukuqeqeshwa osukutholile selokhu waqala umsebenzi wakho?

0 - 5	
5 - 10	
10 - 15	

2.11 Izinga likukhathazeka okuthola ngomsebenzi wakho?

Liphezulu	
Liphakathi nendawo	
Liphansi	

2.12 Ukhona umbutho olilungu lawo.

Yes	
No	

ISIQEPHU SESITHATHU: UKWANELISEKA EMSEBENZINI

Ngalemibuzo ngihlose ukuthola amazinga okwaneliseka emsebenzini ngendlela owabona ngawo wena.

	JOB SATISFACTION SURVEY Paul E. Spector Department of Psychology University of South Florida Please circle the number for each question that come closest to reflecting your opinion about it. Copyright Paul E. Spector 1994, All rights reserved.						
	NGICELA UKOKELEZELE INOMBOLO EYODWA UMBUZO NGAMUNYE ECHAZA NOMA ESONDELENE NALEYO MIBONO YAKHO	Ngiyakuphika kakhulu	Ngiyakuphika nje	Ngiyakuphika kancane	Ngiyavuma kancane	Ngiyavuma nje	Ngiyavuma kakhulu
3.1	Ngibona ukuthi ngiholelwa ngokufanele umsebenzi engiwenzayo.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.2	Mancane amathuba okuthi ngithole ukunyuswa esikhundleni.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.3	Umphathi wami uqeqeshekile emsebenzini wakhe.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.4	Anganelisekile ngeholo engilitholayo.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.5	Ngiyakuthola ukunconywa okufanele uma ngenze umsebenzi kahle.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.6	Imithetho eminingi nezindlela zokusebenza zenza kube nzima ukwenza umsebenzi omuhle.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.7	Ngiyabathanda abantu engisebenza nabo.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.8	Ngiye ngizwe sengathi umsebenzi wami awunampumelelo ngezinye izikhathi.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.9	Kunokuxhumana okuhle lapha engisebenza khona.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.10	Kuncane ukunyuselwa amaholo.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.11	Abasebenza kahle nangokuzimisela basethubeni lokunyuswa ezikhundleni.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.12	Umphathi wami akangiphathi kahle.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.13	Amaholo esiwatholayo ayalingana nalawo akwezinye izindawo zokusebenza.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.14	Ngizizwa sengathi sengathi umsebenzi engiwenzayo awuthakaselwa.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.15	Imizamo yami yokwenza umsebenzi wami omuhle kukhinyabezwa imithetho eminingi.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.16	Ngizithola sengisebenza kanzima ngenxa yabantu abangazimisele emsebenzini.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.17	Ngiyathanda ukwenza izinto engizenzayo emsebenzini.	1	2	3	4	5	6

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3.18	Angicacelwe kahle ngezinjongo zendawo engisebenza kuyo.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.19	Ngiye ngizizwe ngingathakaselwe emsebenzini uma ngicabanga ngeholo lami.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.20	Abantu bathola ukunyuswa ngokushesha kunezinye izindawo zokusebenza.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.21	Umphathi wami akayinakekeli imizwa yabasebenzi.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.22	Amaholo esiwatholayo ayalingana nawezinye izinhlanga.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.23	Mincane imivuzo esiyitholayo ngokusebenza lapha.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.24	Nginomsebenzi omningi.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.25	Ngiyakuthakasela ukuba nabanye abasebenzi.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.26	Ngiye ngizwe ngingazi ukuthi kuqhubekani endaweni yomsebenzi wami isikhathi esiningi.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.27	Ngiyaziqhenya ngomsebenzi engiwenzayo.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.28	Ngiyeneliseka ngamathuba okunyuselwa amaholo emsebenzini.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.29	Amaholo nemivuzo esiyitholayo akufanele ngabe siyawathola.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.30	Ngiyamthanda umphathi wami.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.31	Nginomsebenzi omningi ophathelene nokwasehhovisi.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.32	Angizizwa sengathi imizamo yami iyaholelwa ngendlela efanele.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.33	Nganelisiwe ngamathuba okunyuswa esikhundleni emsebenzini.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.34	Kuhleze kunokulwa nezingxabano emsebenzini.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.35	Ngiyawuthokozela umsebenzi wami.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.36	Angichazelwa kahle imisebenzi okumele ngiyenze.	1	2	3	4	5	6

ISIQEPHU SESINE: UBUHOLI

Lemibuzo yenzelwe ukukusiza ekuchazeni indlela umphathi wakho ahola ngayo ngendlela obona ngayo. Uma kukhona imibuzo engaphathelene nawe noma ungaqondisisi kahle noma ke ungenayo impendulo yalowombuzo, ngicela ushiye isikhala.

<table>
<tr><td colspan="2">Rater version of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

LEADERSHIP
Bass and Avolio.
Department of Management
State University of New York

Copyright, Bass and Avolio, (1995). All rights reserved.</td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>IZITATIMENDE EZICHAZAYO EZINGAMASHUMI AMANE NESIHLANU EZIBHALIWE NGEZANSI. KOKELEZELA LOKHO OKUHAMBISANA NEMIBONO YAKHO NGALOWOMUNTU UKHULUMA NGAYE</td><td>Akakaze</td><td>Qabukela</td><td>Kwezinye izkhathi</td><td>Ujwaeyle</td><td>Izikhathi eziningi</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td>Umuntu engikhuluma ngaye:</td><td>0</td><td>1</td><td>2</td><td>3</td><td>4</td></tr>
<tr><td>4.1</td><td>Uyanginika usizo ngemizamo yami.</td><td>0</td><td>1</td><td>2</td><td>3</td><td>4</td></tr>
<tr><td>4.2</td><td>Uyabhekisisa imibono eyenziwayo ukuze abone ukuthi okushiwoyo kufanelekile.</td><td>0</td><td>1</td><td>2</td><td>3</td><td>4</td></tr>
<tr><td>4.3</td><td>Akakwazi ukuxazulula izinkinga zize zibe nzima.</td><td>0</td><td>1</td><td>2</td><td>3</td><td>4</td></tr>
<tr><td>4.4</td><td>Unaka kakhulu amaphutha nezinye izinto ezingafanele</td><td>0</td><td>1</td><td>2</td><td>3</td><td>4</td></tr>
<tr><td>4.5</td><td>Akazixhumanisi nabantu uma kunezinkinga ezivelayo.</td><td>0</td><td>1</td><td>2</td><td>3</td><td>4</td></tr>
<tr><td>4.6</td><td>Ukhonze ukukhuluma nabantu abatshele ngokubaluleka kwezinkolelo emsebenzini.</td><td>0</td><td>1</td><td>2</td><td>3</td><td>4</td></tr>
<tr><td>4.7</td><td>Akabi khona uma edingeka.</td><td>0</td><td>1</td><td>2</td><td>3</td><td>4</td></tr>
<tr><td>4.8</td><td>Uyazifuna izimvo zabanye abantu uma exazulula izinkinga.</td><td>0</td><td>1</td><td>2</td><td>3</td><td>4</td></tr>
<tr><td>4.9</td><td>Ukhuluma ngokuzethemba uma ekhuluma ngekusasa.</td><td>0</td><td>1</td><td>2</td><td>3</td><td>4</td></tr>
<tr><td>4.10</td><td>Uyangikhuthaza njengomuntu engizwana naye.</td><td>0</td><td>1</td><td>2</td><td>3</td><td>4</td></tr>
<tr><td>4.11</td><td>Uyabachazela kahle abantu ngemisebenzi okumele bayenze.</td><td>0</td><td>1</td><td>2</td><td>3</td><td>4</td></tr>
<tr><td>4.12</td><td>Ulinda kuze kubhede izinto ngaphambi kokuthi athathe izinyathelo.</td><td>0</td><td>1</td><td>2</td><td>3</td><td>4</td></tr>
<tr><td>4.13</td><td>Ukhuluma ngendlela egqugquzelayo ngezinto okudingeka zenziwe.</td><td>0</td><td>1</td><td>2</td><td>3</td><td>4</td></tr>
<tr><td>4.14</td><td>Uyabachazela kahle abantu ngokubaluleka kwezinjongo emsebenzini.</td><td>0</td><td>1</td><td>2</td><td>3</td><td>4</td></tr>
<tr><td>4.15</td><td>Uchitha isikhathi ebafundisa aphinde abaqeqeshe abantu.</td><td>0</td><td>1</td><td>2</td><td>3</td><td>4</td></tr>
<tr><td>4.16</td><td>Uyabachazela kahle abantu okulindelwe ukuba kwenziwe ukuze kufezeke izinjongo zomsebenzi.</td><td>0</td><td>1</td><td>2</td><td>3</td><td>4</td></tr>
<tr><td>4.17</td><td>Ukholelwa kakhulu ekutheni "uma into ingephukile, ungayilungisi".</td><td>0</td><td>1</td><td>2</td><td>3</td><td>4</td></tr>
<tr><td>4.18</td><td>Uyayeka ukuzinaka yena ukuze siphumelele sonke.</td><td>0</td><td>1</td><td>2</td><td>3</td><td>4</td></tr>
<tr><td>4.19</td><td>Ungithatha njengomuntu kunokuba yingxenye yeqembu.</td><td>0</td><td>1</td><td>2</td><td>3</td><td>4</td></tr>
<tr><td>4.20</td><td>Ungumuntu okhombisa ukuthi izinkinga azixazululwa kuze kube zenzeka njalo.</td><td>0</td><td>1</td><td>2</td><td>3</td><td>4</td></tr>
<tr><td>4.21</td><td>Indlela enza ngayo izinto yenza ngimhloniphe.</td><td>0</td><td>1</td><td>2</td><td>3</td><td>4</td></tr>
</table>

4.22	Uyazinika isikhathi sokuxazulula izinkinga namaphutha.	0	1	2	3	4
4.23	Uyacabanga ngemithelela yezinqumo zakhe ngaphambi kokuzithatha.	0	1	2	3	4
4.24	Ungumuntu othanda ukunaka amaphutha.	0	1	2	3	4
4.25	Ungumuntu okhombisa ukuzethemba.	0	1	2	3	4
4.26	Unombono ocacile ngekusasa.	0	1	2	3	4
4.27	Ungumuntu ongenza nginake ukungaphumeleli ukuze kuhlangabezane nokumele kufezwe emsebenzini.	0	1	2	3	4
4.28	Uyagwema ukuthatha izinqumo.	0	1	2	3	4
4.29	Uye acabange ngami njengomsebenzi onezidingo, amakhono nezifiso ezihlukile kwabanye abantu.	0	1	2	3	4
4.30	Wenza abantu babheke izinkinga ngamacala ahlukene.	0	1	2	3	4
4.31	Uyangisiza ukuze ngithuthukise iziphiwo zami.	0	1	2	3	4
4.32	Uyabacebisa abantu ngezinye izindlela zokuqeda imisebenzi abayenzayo.	0	1	2	3	4
4.33	Akasheshi ukuphendula imibuzo ebalulekile.	0	1	2	3	4
4.34	Uyakugcizelela ukusebenza ngenjongo yobunye.	0	1	2	3	4
4.35	Ukhombisa ukwaneliseka nokuthokoza uma ngisebenze ngendlela elindelekile.	0	1	2	3	4
4.36	Ukhombisa ukuzethemba uma ekhuluma ngezinjongo ezidinga ukufezwa.	0	1	2	3	4
4.37	Uyazimisela ekunakekeleni izidingo zami njengomsebenzi.	0	1	2	3	4
4.38	Indlela ahola ngayo iyagculisa.	0	1	2	3	4
4.39	Uyangigqugquzela ukuthi ngisebenze ngokuzimisela, ngaphezu kwalokhu okulindeke kumina emsebenzini.	0	1	2	3	4
4.40	Uyazinikela ekungimeleni kubaphathi.	0	1	2	3	4
4.41	Sisebenzisana kahle ngendlela ejabulisayo.	0	1	2	3	4
4.42	Uyangigqugquzela ekuzimiseleni kwami nasothandweni lokuphumelela.	0	1	2	3	4
4.43	Uyazimisela ekuhlangabezeni izidingo zendawo esisebenza kuyo.	0	1	2	3	4
4.44	Uyangigqugquzela ekuthandeni ukusebenza kanzima.	0	1	2	3	4
4.45	Uhola iqembu elizimisele nelifeza izinjongo ezidingekayo.	0	1	2	3	4

APPENDIX 9:   ETHICAL CLEARANCE

**UNIVERSITY OF
KWAZULU-NATAL**

RESEARCH OFFICE (GOVAN MBEKI CENTRE)
WESTVILLE CAMPUS
TELEPHONE NO.: 031 – 2603587
EMAIL: ximbap@ukzn.ac.za

2 AUGUST 2005

MS. P MOODLEY (9500307)
SPORTS SCIENCE

Dear Ms. Moodley

ETHICAL CLEARANCE: "AN ANALYSIS OF PERCEIVED LEADERSHIP STYLES AND LEVELS OF JOB
SATISFACTION OF SPORT ADMINISTRATORS EMPLOYED AT TERTIARY INSTITUTIONS IN SOUTH AFRICA"

I wish to confirm that ethical clearance has been granted for the above project on condition that the
consent form is revised along the lines of the ethics guidelines (format attached)

**This approval is granted provisionally and the final clearance for this project will be given once the condition
has been met. Your Provisional Ethical Clearance Number is HSS/05055**

Kindly forward your response to the undersigned as soon as possible

Yours faithfully

MS. PHUMELELE XIMBA
RESEARCH OFFICE

PS: The following general condition is applicable to all projects that have been granted ethical clearance:

THE RELEVANT AUTHORITIES SHOULD BE CONTACTED IN ORDER TO OBTAIN THE NECESSARY
APPROVAL SHOULD THE RESEARCH INVOLVE UTILIZATION OF SPACE AND/OR FACILITIES AT OTHER
INSTITUTIONS/ORGANISATIONS. WHERE QUESTIONNAIRES ARE USED IN THE PROJECT, THE
RESEARCHER SHOULD ENSURE THAT THE QUESTIONNAIRE INCLUDES A SECTION AT THE END
WHICH SHOULD BE COMPLETED BY THE PARTICIPANT (PRIOR TO THE COMPLETION OF THE
QUESTIONNAIRE) INDICATING THAT HE/SHE WAS INFORMED OF THE NATURE AND PURPOSE OF THE
PROJECT AND THAT THE INFORMATION GIVEN WILL BE KEPT CONFIDENTIAL.

cc. Faculty Officer
cc. Supervisor (Prof. Y Coopoo)