

ETHIOPIAN FEMALE SOCCER PLAYERS PREFERENCES OF COACHING BEHAVIOR AND SATISFACTION

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ABSTRACT

One of the most important goals of the coach is to create a good learning situation where athletes can acquire the skill needed to succeed as individual and as a team. The purpose of the present study is to examine what female soccer players prefer of their coaches behavior and satisfied by different traits of their coaches behaviors. Female soccer players of Ethiopian National team (30), premiere league(45) and higher division players(20) completed the preferred version of the Coaching Behavior Question(CBQ) which examines coaching behaviors;1) Reinforcement, 2) Non-Reinforcement, 3) Mistake Contingent Encouragement, 4) Mistake Contingent Technical Instruction, 5) Punishment, 6) Punitive Technical Instruction, 7) Ignoring Mistake, 8) Keeping Control, 9)General Technical Instruction, 10) General Encouragement, 11) Organization, 12) General Communication. The items of athletes satisfaction Questionnaires addresses the most aspect of Athletes participation; 1) Personal treatment satisfaction, 2) Training and Instruction satisfaction, 3) Individual performance satisfaction, and 4) Team performance satisfaction. Data were analyzed with descriptive statistics. Result showed that players prefer mostly General Technical Instruction (M=17.6, SD=1.75) and General Encouragement (M=15.7, SD=2.49).and also the players are satisfied with their current team performance .Thus, coaches can use different mechanisms to satisfy and motivate female players for optimum result.

Key words: Behavior, Coaching, General Technical Instruction, Players Satisfaction, Soccer

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INTRODUCTION

Striving for the gold medal is an important goal for both coaches and athletes or players in measurement of success on their athletes or players performance. In order to reach appeal leaders provide the drive towards goal determination and goal attainment. (Watkins and Richard 1991). One of the most important goals of a coach is to create good learning situations where students or players or athletes can acquire the skill needed to succeed as individual and as a team. Coaches are held accountable in the field of sport as the leader how the team succeeds in most instances from a win/loss perspectives will many times dictates that coach's future. To further understand the interpersonal dynamic between the coach and the player or athletes on the field of competition, it is important to understand the preference of the player or athlete with respect to effective coaching behaviors and characteristics. The coach had become more of a manager of personalities rather than simply someone who automatically knew what was best for the team. The holistic approach of what was best for the entire group didn't seem to fit in a day when instant gratification and individual needs were of utmost importance. A deeper issue would be what where the players' preference of the coach as their leader with this decision. The most important successful factors of a coach is to help players to improve their skill in a wide range of tasks from sequential development and mastery of basic skills for the beginners, to the most specialized physical, technical, tactical and psychological preparation of elite athletes. (Martens 1987, Bompá 1993) The functions are normally accomplished by the coach engaging in leadership behavior that effectively elicits appropriate actions from the player towards achieving set goals in competition or practice situations. The type of coaching behavior displayed by the coach can have a significant effect on the performance and psychological well-being of the player. (Horn 1992). Effective coaching behavior varies across specific context as the characteristics of the players and the prescribed situation changes. (Chellandurai 1978). To achieve improvement in players performance, it may be necessary for the coach to engage in coaching behaviors to which the players prefer. Specific behavior by the coach may be more productive of certain outcomes than others. (Tinning, 1982). Different needs and preference s from individual players or athletes within the team confront coaches of team sports. As a result of this, it is important for the coach to be aware of the coaching preferences of his or her players in order to provide satisfactory experiences and improve athletic performance. According to Chelladurai and Carron (1978), if a coach adapts his or her behaviors to comply with the players'

preferred behavior, the player may be more readily inclined to repay the coach through an improved performance and with satisfied feelings. Communication from the coach to the athlete or player will initiate appropriate actions. This however requires the athletes not only to receive the information from the coach but also to understand and accept it. Marten (1975) states that, being a successful coach is an enormous challenge. Successful coaching is much more than just winning. Successful coaches help athletes master new skills, enjoy competing with others, and feel good. Successful coaches are not only well versed in the skills of their sport: they also teach model the skills needed for successful living in a society. Coaches and sport leaders need to be concerned with making the athlete's experiences enjoyable and satisfying. (Smith, Kendall &Hulin, 1969). The most important successful factors of a coach is to help athletes to improve their athletic skill in a wide range of tasks from sequential development and mastery of basic skills for beginners, to the more specialized physical technical, tactical and psychological preparation of elite athletes (Martens, 1987; Bompa, 1983). The type of leadership behavior displayed by the coach can have a significant effect on the performance and psychological well being of athletes (Horn, 1992) consequently , effective coaching behavior varies across specific context as the characteristics of the athlete and the prescribed situation change (Chelladurai ; 1987). The context of the sport situation and the characteristics of the coach and the athletes themselves dictate appropriate leadership behavior. To achieve improvement in athletic performance, it may be necessary for the coach to engage in coaching behavior to which the athlete is receptive. What may be an appropriate coaching behavior to one athlete may be an ineffective approach for another. Similarly, specific behavior by the coach may be more productive of certain outcomes than others (Tinning, 1982). Different needs and preferences from individual athletes within the team confront coaches of team sport. The coach may adopt either a homogeneous approaches that treats all athletes equally or alternatively create a heterogeneous style that provides differential treatment to individual athletes. As a result of this, it is important for the coach to be aware of the coaching preference of his/her athletes in order to provide satisfactory experience and improve athletes performance. According to Chelladurai and Carron (1978), if a coach adopts his/her behavior to comply with the athletes' preferred behavior, the athletes may be more readily inclined to repay the coach through an improved performance. Striving for the gold medal is an important goal for both coaches and athletes in measurements of success on their athletic performance. In order to reach appeal leader provide the drive toward

goal determination and goal attainment (Watkins and Rikard, 1991).much of human intervention consists of attempts to influence the behavior of other people. One of the most important goals of a coach is to create a good learning situation where student-athletes can acquire the technical skill needed to succeed as individual and as a team.

Research on coaching effectiveness has shifted from the study of coaches personality characteristics to the study of leadership style and their behaviors while coaching/Horn,1992/. This shift acknowledges an assumption that through their words and actions, coaches can influence athletes' performance and psychological well-being. For a review of coaching behaviors studies, several behaviors have been identified which are related positive psychological out comes for players. Provision of positive reinforcement, technical instruction and encouragement have been shown to be significant factors in players valence towards the coach (Hastie, 1993; Horn, 1985; Smoll& Smith 1984).

Smith, Smoll and Curts (1978) reported that players felt a higher valence towards coaches who provided greater percentage of technical instruction over coaches who provide more general encouragement.Wandzilak, Ansorge and Potter (1988) noted an inverse relationship between the amount of technical instruction and general encouragement given by coaches and postulated that coaches may tend to use general encouragement when they do not know what else to say. As with encouragement, reinforcement which is appropriate and based on players successful performance, rather than which is general, appears to contribute to positive changes in players' self-perception /Horn,1985/. Those findings provide useful implications for coaches and sport pedagogy and support the conclusion that coaches should be encouraged to provide positive reinforcement, technical instruction and instruction with encouragement.

Behaviors of coaches apparently influence personal out come for players , any attempt to predict or control those behaviors must consider variables which are related to the tendency for coaches behave in a particular way.(Chelladurai, 1980) in the studies of Dubois (1981) and Millard /1900/ the male coaches gave more technical instruction and less encouragement than did the female coaches. However, the gender difference noted in those studies might have been confounded by other related factors. As an example, Sherman and Hassen (1986) reported that high-experienced coaches gave more technical instruction than did low-experienced coaches.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

Coaches' that understand their own athletes' preferences for coaching behaviors may be more effective at maintaining and/or improving athlete satisfaction (Reimer &Chelladurai, 1998).The main purpose of this study was to investigate what female soccer players preferred of their coach's behavior, the relationship between coaches' behaviors, and levels of satisfaction experienced by female soccer players in the country, to examine how coaches' behavior were related to preferred coaching behavior, and examine the link between players' levels of preference and satisfaction.

BACK GROUND OF THE STUDY AND REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter presents a brief background about Ethiopia and review of related literature relevant to the study. The first section presents brief information about Ethiopia and history of sport in general and soccer and athletics in particular. Following,it deals with overview of coaching behavior and athlete satisfaction. It focuses on the definition of coaching behaviors and athletes' satisfaction and provides a review of major research conducted in sport especially with coaches and athletes. Finally this chapter ends with a comprehensive review of athletes' satisfaction and how it relates to coaching behaviors.

BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

As I am going to do this study with soccer players in Ethiopia, it is essential to mention some information about the country and its sport (soccer & athletics) activities at national level.Republic in North Eastern Africa officially known as the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia. Ethiopia is a rugged country of tall mountains and arid deserts. Which have a diverse population with more than 70 district ethnic and linguistic groups. Known as Abyssinia until the 20th century. Ethiopia is the oldest independent nation in Africa. It was home to the power full Christian kingdom of Aksum that flourished from around the first century AD. Ethiopia is bounded on the northeast by Eretria-which had been part of Ethiopia since the 1950's broke away to become an independent nation in 1993 and Djibouti, on the east and southeast by Somalia, on the southwest by Kenya, and on the west and North West by Sudan. The country is divided into nine regions. Addis Ababa is the capital city and the house of African Union head quarter. The plateau area is fertile and largely undeveloped. The wide range of soli, climate and elevations permits the production of a diversified range of agricultural commodities. A variety of

mineral deposits exist; iron, copper, petroleum, salt, potash, gold, and platinum are the principal ones that have been commercially exploited. The population of Ethiopia(2009 estimate) is around 78,254,290. The non-indigenous population includes Yemenis, Indians, Armenians, and Greeks. About half of the people of Ethiopia are Christian. 70 or more languages spoken in Ethiopia, most belong to the sematic and Cushitic branches of Afro-Asiatic family.

SPORT IN ETHIOPIA

Sports in Ethiopia include many fields, although Ethiopia is best known internationally for its middle-distance and long-distance runners. The Ethiopian national football team won the Nations Cup in 1962. In middle and long-distance events, Kenya and Morocco are often its opponents in World Championships and Olympic competitions. The New York Times called Ethiopia a "Running Mecca" due to its historical successes in the athletics program, in which it also took fifth place in the world ranking during the Beijing Olympics in 2008. As of March 2006, three Ethiopians dominate the long-distance running scene, mainly Haile Gebreselassie (World champion and Olympic champion) who has set over twenty new world records and currently holds the 20 km, half-marathon, 25 km, and marathon world record and Kenenisa Bekele (World champion, World cross country champion, and Olympic champion), who holds the 5,000 m and 10,000 m world records. In the last few years, Ethiopian women runners have joined the men in dominating athletics, particularly the multi-gold medalists Meseret Defar and Tirunesh Dibaba. Ethiopia has added more events to the list of its preeminence in athletics, including the steeplechase which Legese Lamiso recently took the top honors. Ethiopian distance-runners include Derartu Tulu, Abebe Bikila, Mamo Wolde, Miruts Yifter, Sileshi Sihine, Gebregziabher Gebremariam, Belayneh Densamo, Werknesh Kidane, Tirunesh Dibaba, Meseret Defar, Million Wolde, and the like. Derartu Tulu was the first woman from Africa to win an Olympic gold medal, doing so over 10,000 meters at Barcelona. Abebe Bikila, the first Olympic champion representing an African nation, won the Olympic marathon in 1960 and 1964, setting world records both times. He is well-known to this day for winning the 1960 marathon in Rome while running **barefoot**. Miruts Yifter, the first in a tradition of Ethiopians known for their brilliant finishing speed, won gold at 5,000 and 10,000 meters at the Moscow Olympics. At the 2008 Beijing Olympics, Kenenisa Bekele became the second man

to achieve this feat, while fellow Ethiopian TiruneshDibaba became the first woman to win gold in both the 5,000 and 10,000 meters.

Football in Ethiopia came under the control of the Ethiopian Football Federation (EFF) when that organization was founded in 1943. The EFF affiliated to FIFA in 1953 and to the Confederation of African Football in 1957. League football was in existence before the formation of the EFF with regional leagues contested during the 1938/39 and 1939/40 seasons in the provinces of Eritrea, Harar, Amhara, Shioa and Galla-Sidamo as part of the Italian occupation. The first recognized version of the Ethiopian Premier League was contested in 1944 when five teams representing the various communities of Addis Ababa competed for a title won by the British Military Mission-BMME. The Ethiopian Cup was added the following year and has been contested regularly since notably in the 1960s. The league has been an annual competition since 1948 with Saint George FC emerging as the country's leading club with 24 titles. Ethiopia national football team made its first appearance in 1947 and since then has enjoyed both highs and lows. As one of the few independent African states in the immediate aftermath of the Second World War Ethiopia was an important team in the development of the international football in the continent.

Ethiopia was one of the pioneers of the Africa Cup of Nations and was one of only three teams to enter the inaugural 1957 tournament, finishing as runners-up to Egypt. They were also present at the 1959 tournament As hosts of the 1962 tournament and led by goal scorer MengistuWorku, Ethiopia defeated Tunisia and the United Arab Republic (Egypt) to be crowned African champions for the only time in their history. They hosted the tournament again in 1968 and 1976 but by then decline had set in and their last appearance in a finals tournament came in 1982. After 31 years Ethiopia was back to the Nations Cup this year. Ethiopia has never qualified for the FIFA World Cup. Ethiopia is also members of the Council for East and Central Africa Football Associations (CECAFA) and takes part in its competitions. They first won the CECAFA Cup in 1987 as hosts and repeated the same triumph in 2001 and 2004 before adding a fourth title in Rwanda in 2005. In 2005 the Under-20s team won its sole CECAFA U-20 Championship. No Ethiopian club side has ever won the CAF Champions League or any other international club competitions. The best performances were the semi-final places achieved by the Cotton Factory Club in 1964 and Saint George in 1967.

Coaches Behavior

The most important successful factor of a coach is to help athletes to improve their athletic skill in a wide range of tasks from sequential development and mastery of basic skills for beginners, to the more specialized physical, technical, tactical and psychological preparation of elite athletes (Martens,1987; Bompa,1983). These functions are normally accomplished by the coach engaging in leadership behavior that effectively elicits appropriate actions from the athlete towards achieving set goals, in competitive or practice situations. The type of leadership behavior displayed by the coach can have a significant effect on the performance and psychological well being of the athlete (Horn, 1992). Consequently, effective coaching behavior varies across specific contexts as the characteristics of the athletes and the prescribed situation change (Chelladurai, 1978). The context of the sport situation and the characteristics of the coach and the athletes themselves dictate appropriate leadership behavior. According to Chelladurai and Carron (1978), if a coach adapts his or her behavior to comply with the athletes' preferred behavior, the athlete may be more readily inclined to repay the coach through an improved performance. Having studied coaches' behaviors extensively, some investigators tried to categorize coaching behaviors. Tharp and Gallimore (1976) after studying the behavior of the most successful NBA coach emphasized the importance of instruction and demonstration behaviors and their significant effects on players' success. At the same time, sport specific questionnaires were also developed. Danielson, Zelhart, and Drake (1975), revised the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire to classify coaching behaviors into eight categories. On the other hand, researchers trying to develop guidelines for training coaches (Smith, Smoll, & Hunt, 1977; Smoll, Smith, Curtis, & Hunt, 1978) needed a proper tool to observe and classify coaches' behaviors; therefore, the Coaching Behavior Assessment System (CBAS) was developed for coding and analyzing the behaviors of coaches in natural field settings (Smoll & Smith, 1984). This system which was applied in the present study, divides coaches' behavior into twelve categories: Reinforcement, Nonreinforcement, Mistake-contingent encouragement, Mistake-contingent technical instruction, Punishment, Punitivetechnical instruction, Ignoring mistakes, Keeping control, General technical instruction, General encouragement, Organization and General communication.

According to Smoll and Smith (1984), distributions in the CBAS categories indicated that nearly

two-thirds of coaches' behaviors were found to be positive, falling into the categories of: a) positive reinforcement, b) general technical instruction, and c) general encouragement. Players who played for coaches, who frequently used encouragement, instructions, and reinforcement, demonstrated greater self-esteem at the end of season. They rated their teammates and their sport more positively. According to Weinberg and Gould (1995) these players reported that: "they liked their teammates more, felt their coaches were knowledgeable, rated their coaches better as teachers, had a greater desire to play again the next year, and had higher levels of enjoyment comparing to other young players" Therefore, the main objective of the present study was to investigate the reality and the amount of possible correlations among coaches' behaviors and players' satisfaction.

Coaching Behavior Questionnaire (CBQ)

Evolving from the sport leadership research on the coding of observed coaching behaviors and the multidimensional approach to leadership, Martin and Barnes (1999) developed the Coaching Behavior Questionnaire (CBQ). Along the same lines as with the LSS, the CBQ was developed to measure three states of leader behavior: (a) required, (b) actual, and (c) preferred. The CBQ is comprised of two parts: (a) a 12-item demographic section, and (b) a 48-item coaching behavior section. The 12-item demographic section includes questions about the athlete's age, gender, education level, and number of years participating in the sport most played. In addition, items were included that related to preference of coach gender and age. Therefore the 12-item demographic section contains items related to the athlete and athlete preferences of coach characteristics. The 48-item coaching behavior section includes twelve subscales of coaching behaviors. The same 48 items are used for all three versions of the CBQ, only the stem to the items change. The required version starts with "A coach (at this level) ...", actual version begins with "My coach ...", and the preference version starts with "I prefer a coach who ...". The twelve subscales are based upon the twelve coaching behavior categories represented in the CBAS. Therefore, the CBQ integrates the multidimensionality of the LSS and the coaching behavior categories utilized in the CBAS to measure self-reported states of leadership behaviors. The CBQ is comprised of twelve behavioral categories:

- a. **Reinforcement** : A positive, rewarding reaction, verbal or nonverbal, to a good play or good effort);
- b. **Non-reinforcement**: Failure to respond to a good performance
- c. **Mistake Contingent Encouragement**: Encouragement given to an athlete following a mistake.
- d. **Mistake Contingent Technical Instruction**: Instruction or demonstration to an athlete on how to correct a mistake he or she has made.
- e. **Punishment** : A negative reaction, verbal or nonverbal, following a mistake
- f. **Punitive Technical Instruction**: Technical instruction following a mistake given in a punitive or hostile manner.
- g. **Ignoring Mistakes**: Failure to respond to an athlete mistake.
- h. **Keeping Control**: Reactions intended to restore or maintain order among team members.
- i. **General Technical Instruction**: Spontaneous instruction in the techniques and strategies of the sport – not following a mistake
- j. **General Encouragement**: Spontaneous encouragement that does not follow a mistake
- k. **Organization**: Administrative behavior that sets the stage for play by assigning duties or responsibilities.
- l. **General Communication**: Interactions with players unrelated to the game.

The twelve coaching behaviors are classified as both reactive or spontaneous coaching behaviors that involve basic interactions between the situation and the coach's behavior (Smith et al.,

1977). Reactive (elicited) behaviors are responses to immediately preceding athlete or team behaviors (Smoll & Smith, 2001)

Athlete Satisfaction

According to Maday 2000 Satisfaction is an integral part of sport participation and enjoyment, Without satisfaction, athletes would turn to other sources for potential success and enjoyment Satisfaction in sport has been studied extensively in combination with several variables, mostly leadership (Coffman, 1999; Dwyer & Fischer, 1990; Riemer & Chelladurai, 1995; Riemer & Toon, 2001; Sriboon, 2001; Yusof, 1999). Several scholars in sport psychology have included athlete satisfaction as an antecedent or outcome variable in their work. For example, the multidimensional model of leadership (Chelladurai, 1980, 1990) includes satisfaction as an outcome variable along with performance. Studies based on the multidimensional model of leadership (Chelladurai, 1980, 1990) have been largely concerned with linking leadership dynamics with athlete satisfaction.

Satisfaction as an outcome has been employed in different leadership studies based on the multidimensional model of leadership (Chelladurai, 1984; Chelladurai et al., 1988; Dwyer & Fischer, 1990; Eichas, 1992; Horne & Carron, 1985; Riemer & Chelladurai, 1995; Riemer & Toon, 2001; Schliesman, 1987; Sriboon, 2001). In the multidimensional model (Chelladurai, 1980, 1990), leadership behaviors were suggested to be antecedents of member satisfaction. The model suggests that the discrepancy between athletes' perceived and preferred leadership style would impact their level of satisfaction. In 1997, Chelladurai and Riemer proposed the model "A Classification of Facets of Athlete Satisfaction." The purpose of the model was to study the needs, benefit, and treatment that were provided for intercollegiate athletics. Based on Chelladurai and Riemer's (1997) classification of facets of athlete satisfaction, Riemer and Chelladurai (1998) developed, a multiple-item, multiple-dimension scale to measure athlete satisfaction.

Athlete Satisfaction Questionnaire (ASQ).

The development of the ASQ resulted in a final scale with 15 facets, or subscales, and a total of 56 items on the scale. The format of the scale allows researchers to include those dimensions of satisfaction most salient for a particular situation (Riemer & Toon, 2001). In the proposed model satisfaction was evaluated using 4 of the ASQ's 15 subscales: training and instruction satisfaction, personal treatment satisfaction, team performance satisfaction, and individual performance satisfaction. The first two subscales concentrate on satisfaction with the process of coaching behavior, while the second two assess satisfaction with outcomes associated with the processes of leadership (Riemer & Chelladurai, 1998).

1. **Training and instruction satisfaction:** Athlete's Satisfaction with the training and instruction provided by the coach.
2. **Personal treatment satisfaction:** Satisfaction with those coaching behaviors that directly affect the individual yet indirectly affect team development. It includes social support and positive feedback.
3. **Team performance satisfaction:** Athlete's satisfaction with his or her team's level of performance. Task performance includes absolute performance, goal achievement, and implies performance improvements.
4. **Individual performance satisfaction:** Athlete's satisfaction with his or her own task performance. Task performance includes absolute performance, improvements in performance, and goal achievement (Riemer & Chelladurai, 1998).

METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents the methods and procedures used in conducting this study. The Chapter is divided into the following sections: (a) research design, (b) participants, (c) Instruments utilized to collect the data, (d) data collection and analysis procedures.

Research Design

This study is quantitative in nature and was conducted using a survey methodology. A large majority of research conducted on coaching behavior and satisfaction utilizes Surveys/questionnaires as the method for collecting the data (e.g., Chelladurai & Ogasawara, 2003; Collins, 2002; Kelley et al., 1999; Price & Weiss, 2000; Riemer & Chelladurai, 1995; Riemer & Toon, 2001; Sriboon, 2001; Sullivan & Kent, 2003). According to Babbie (1998) survey research is “probably the best method available to the social scientist interested in collecting original data for describing a population too large to observe directly” (p. 256). The use of a survey/questionnaire method has some definite advantages over other methods of collecting data. The questionnaire requires less time, is less expensive, and permits collection of data from a much larger sample (Gay & Airasian, 2000). Questionnaires may be individually administered to each respondent, but for efficiency they are usually mailed or sent via electronic mail (Gay & Airasian, 2000). The nature of this study including a large sample size, the availability of funds, and time constraints supported the survey/questionnaire method as most appropriate.

Research sample and Instruments

The sample consisted of 95 female soccer players from Ethiopian National team (30), Ethiopian premier league (45) and Ethiopian Higher division clubs (20). The players completed the Coaching Behavior Questionnaires (CBQ) players preference version and the Athletes Satisfaction Questionnaires (ASQ). Both questionnaires Coaching Behavior Questionnaires (CBQ Martin & Barnes 1999) and the Athletes Satisfaction Questionnaires (ASQ Riemer & Chelladurai, 1998) has demographic questionnaires parts which were asking them to respond about their age, level of participation, educational level, year of participation, and what they prefer regarding to their coaches age, sex, and nationality. For this study the 48-item coaching behavior preferred version and the 14-item athletes' satisfaction version to determine the

player's preference of their coach's behavior and how much they are satisfied by their current status were used. This version requests athletes to provide their preference for coaching behaviors, (i.e. "I prefer a coach who...") on twelve subscales. This coaching behavior subscales are, Reinforcement, Non-Reinforcement, Mistake Contingent Encouragement, Mistake Contingent Technical Instruction, Punishment, Punitive Technical Instruction, Ignoring Mistake, Keeping Control, General Technical Instruction, General Encouragement, Organization and General Communication. Each dimension is scored as a 5-point likert scale type ranging from "1-strongly Disagree to 5-strongly Agree". The ASQ assesses the four dimension of athletes satisfaction; Personal treatment satisfaction, training and instruction satisfaction, individual performance satisfaction and team performance satisfaction. The first two aspects focuses on coaching behavior procedures and the other two on results satisfaction in relation to coaches behavior. The questionnaires contains 14 items that are scored on a 7 point likert scale ranging from "7-extremely satisfied to "1 not at all satisfied".

Cronbach's coefficient alpha was utilized to examine the internal reliability of both scales. The reliability for the coaching behavior questionnaire was (.668) and the athlete's satisfaction questionnaire was (.845).

Data analysis

The data was analyzed using statistics package for social science (SPSS) version 15.0. the descriptive analysis of the data were analyzed using means, frequencies, percentage and standard deviations for each item were found for participants at each level of participation, educational level, age, and experience in soccer participation. Pearson correlation was used with coaching behaviors against players' satisfaction. The level of significance was set at $p=0.05$.

Result of the study

Respondents' profile

Table 1 show that the respondents profile according to age, level of participation, educational level, and experience in soccer participation.

Table1: Respondents profile

Characteristics	Frequency	Percents (%)
Age of respondents		
16-20 years	51	53.7
21-25 years	34	35.8
26-30 years	6	6.3
31-35 years	4	4.2
Level of participation		
National team	30	31.6
Premier league	45	47.4
Higher division	20	21
Educational level		
Primary school	7	7.4
High school	38	40
Collage level	32	33.7
University	18	19
Year/duration of soccer participation		
1-3 years	28	29.5
4-6 years	39	41
4-9 years	26	27.4
>=10 years	2	2
N =95		

Coaching behavior preferred by soccer players

The next table 2 indicates that the players preferred general technical instruction with the highest mean score($M=17.64$, $SD=1.75$) and followed by General encouragement coaching behavior($M=16.86$, $SD=2.52$), Mistake contingent technical instruction($M=16.6$, $SD=2.75$), mistake contingent encouragement($M=15.49$, $SD=2.49$), ignoring mistake($M=15.5$, $SD=2.5$), keeping control($M=14.6$, $SD=2.6$), general communication($M=14.2$, $SD=2.46$), punitive technical instruction($M=14.13$, $SD=2.2$),reinforcement coaching behavior($M=13.9$, $SD=2.13$), punishment type of coaching behavior($M=11.7$, $SD=2$), non-reinforcement coaching behavior($M=10.47$, $SD=2.26$) and organization coaching behavior($M=9.62$, $SD=2.28$).

Table2.Coaching behavior preferred by players

Coaching behaviors	Mean	Std. dev.
General technical instruction	17.64	1.75
General encouragement	16.86	2.52
Mistake contingent technical instruction	16.60	2.75
Mistake contingent encouragement	15.70	2.49
Ignoring mistake	15.49	2.49
Keeping control	14.61	2.69
General communication	14.18	2.45
Punitive technical instruction	14.13	2.16
Reinforcement	13.98	2.13
Punishment	11.71	2.06
Non-reinforcement	10.47	2.26
Organization	9.62	2.28

Among the aspects of athletes' satisfaction (table 3) team performance satisfaction (M=1.31,SD=.33)was the most important subscale in which players satisfied with and followed by training and instruction satisfaction(M=1.14,SD=.473), personal treatment satisfaction (M=1.05,SD=.476) and individual performance satisfaction(M=.78,SD=.569).

Table 3: Player's satisfaction subscales

Players satisfaction	Mean	Std.Deviation
Team performance satisfaction	1.31	.34
Personal treatment satisfaction	1.05	.48
Training and instruction satisfaction	1.14	.47
Individual performance satisfaction	.78	.57

As tables 3a,3b,&3c indicates coaching behavior preference of female soccer players at Higher division, Premiere league and National team level is highly towards General technical instruction followed Ignoring Mistake type of coach's behavior.

Table 3a. Coaching Behavior preference of Female Higher Division players.

Coaching behaviors	Mean	Std.Dev.
General technical instruction	4.34	.49
Ignoring mistake	3.83	.78
Punitive technical instruction	3.83	.57
Keeping control	3.71	.60
Mistake contingent technical instruction	3.64	.78
General communication	3.64	.56
Mistake contingent encouragement	3.58	.87
General encouragement	3.46	.67
Reinforcement	3.41	.47
Punishment	2.96	.79
Non-reinforcement	2.72	.73
Organization	2.70	.55

Table 3b. Coaching behavior preferences of Female Ethiopian premiere league players

Coaching behaviors	Mean	Std.Dev.
General technical instruction	4.41	.49
Ignoring mistake	4.33	.53
Mistake contingent encouragement	3.99	.54
Punitive technical instruction	3.87	.63
Reinforcement	3.60	.56
Keeping control	3.58	.65
Mistake contingent technical instruction	3.54	.59
General communication	3.52	.61
General encouragement	3.52	.52
Punishment	2.79	.39
Non-reinforcement	2.50	.52
Organization	2.09	.43

Table 3c: Coaching behavior preferences of Female Ethiopian National team players

Coaching behaviors	Mean	Std.Dev.
General technical instruction	4.44	.59
Ignoring mistake	4.33	.62
Mistake contingent encouragement	3.83	.62
General encouragement	3.63	.47
Reinforcement	3.62	.45
Punitive technical instruction	3.60	.68
Mistake contingent technical instruction	3.53	.54
General communication	3.38	.59
Keeping control	3.29	.57
Punishment	2.38	.46
Non-reinforcement	2.32	.38
Organization	1.99	.44

The result of Pearson correlation test indicate that there is a positive and significant relationship between coaching behaviors; punitive technical instruction, reinforcement and keeping control coaching behaviors with players satisfaction and positive relationships between personal treatment satisfaction and individual performance satisfaction with non-reinforcement coaching behavior. And also there was negative relationship between personal treatment satisfaction, training and instruction satisfaction and individual performance satisfaction with mistake contingent technical instruction. In addition to this, also negative relation between team performance and individual performance satisfaction with mistake contingent encouragement behavior of the coach.

Table4. Relation between coaching behavior and players' satisfaction

CBQ	R	NR	MCE	MCT	P	PTI	IM	KC	GTI	GE	O	GC
ASQ				I								
TPS	.097	-.075	-.101	.098	.160	.136	.231*	.192	-.027	.080	.109	.040
PTS	-.130	.149	-.048	-.139	.075	.303**	.132	.315**	.024	-.061	.228	-.034
TIS	-.035	.078	-.043	-.134	.085	.228*	.214	.248*	.090	.035	.103	.013
IPS	-.342**	.190	-.169	-.138	-.084	.213*	-.035	.287*	-.073	-.138	.315**	-.004

*correlation is significant at 0.05 level

** correlation is significant at 0.01 level

Where **CBQ**=coaching behavior questions, **ASQ**=athletes satisfaction questionnaires, **R**=Reinforcement, **NR**=Non-reinforcement, **MCE**= Mistake contingent encouragement, **MCTI**=Mistake contingent technical instruction, **P**=punishment, **PTI**=Punitive technical instruction, **IM**=Ignoring mistake, **KC**= Keeping control, **GTI**=General technical instruction, **GE**=General encouragement, **O**=Organization, **GC**=General communication, **TPS**= team performance satisfaction, **PTS**=Personal treatment satisfaction, **TIS**=Training and instruction satisfaction, **IPS**=Individual performance satisfaction.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to examine coaching behavior preferences of female soccer players and determine whether differences existed as a function of level of participation. By investigating coaching behavior preferences of female soccer players, it was anticipated that a greater understanding would be gained about the preferred coaching behavior of female players participating in soccer. These findings are presented as coaching behavior, players satisfaction and relationship between the sub scales of coaching behavior and players satisfaction. This study found that Ethiopian female soccer players preferred general technical instruction and general encouragement more than the other behavior of their coach. That means players preferred a coach who:

- .Provide players information on their technique after a successful performance
- .Prepare them by informing their schedule and task
- .Pulls players aside to let them know they are doing good job
- .Is willing to discuss relationships problems that affect their performance
- .Praise verbally the team and individual player after they have successfully executed a skill
- .Spending his or her time in helping players who have trouble in improving their performance
- .Mostly encourage when players make a mistake

This study also indicates that Ethiopian female soccer players were mostly satisfied by their current team performance. They are satisfied by their teams':

- .How it works/worked to be the best
- .Overall performance that season
- .Extent to which the team is meeting its goals for the season

The result of this study also indicates that the behavior of the coach has significant relation with the aspects of players satisfaction specially there is positive relation between punitive instruction behavior of the coach and personal treatment, training and instruction, and individual performance satisfaction. In addition there is also negative relation between individual performance satisfaction and reinforcement, mistake contingent encouragement, mistake contingent technical instruction and general encouragement type of coach's behavior.

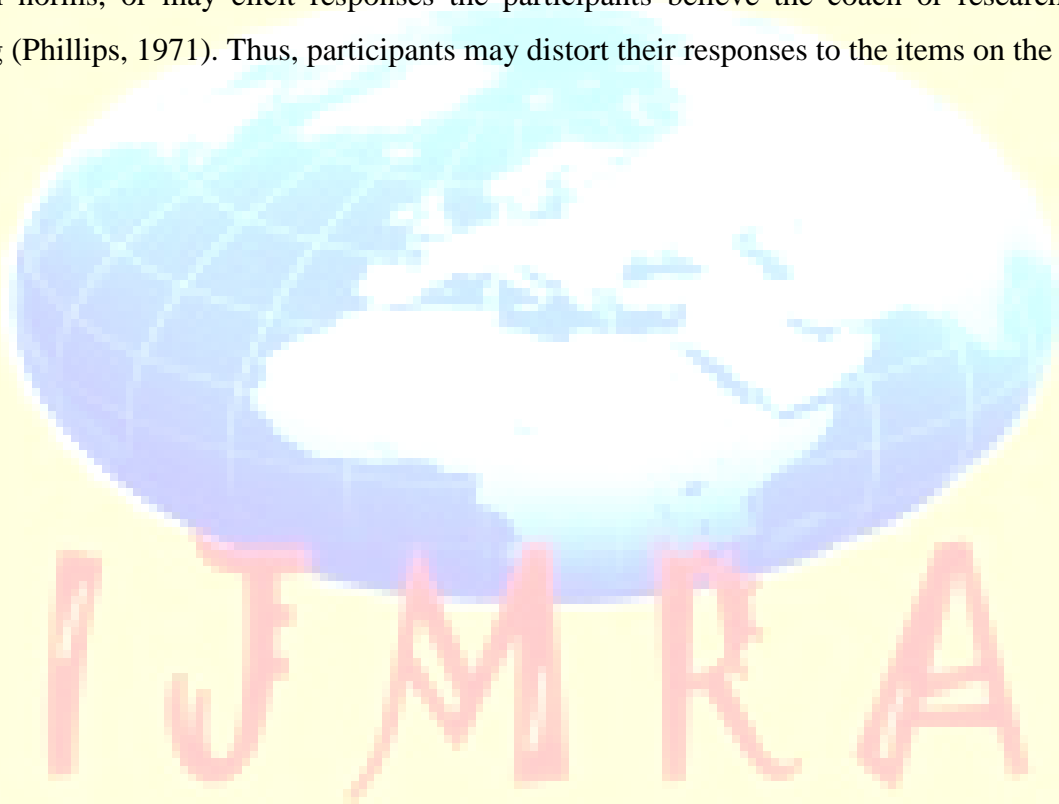
CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATION

The present study attempted to determine whether coaching behavior preferences exist among female soccer players. The results revealed that the preferred version of the CBQ demonstrated acceptable to marginal internal consistency and stability for female soccer players. Findings indicated that players' coaching behavior preferences is almost the same at National team and non national team level. The results from the current study revealed several practical implications for female soccer coaches. In particular, it does appear that situational factors and personal characteristics influence the particular coaching behaviors that are preferred in specific sport environments (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1978). Thus, coaches need to: (a) ascertain the interactional requirements of their sport (Cratty, 1989) and (b) be cognizant of the different coaching behaviors preferred by athletes.

Therefore, coaches of female sports may want to incorporate strategies such as getting frequent input from the players and using their suggestions in making decisions concerning the individual player and the team (Lindauer, 2000). Certain leadership behaviors are more optimal in different situations, as indicated by the Multidimensional Modal of Sport Leadership, Leadership Scale for Sports and Coaching Behavior Questionnaire (Chelladurai, 1990, 1993; Kravig et al., 2002). The challenge is determining what behavior best suit the circumstances and whether a coach is flexible enough to adapt to a particular behavior.

As with previous research using the LSS, future investigations involving the CBQ should also attempt to measure all three states of leader behavior (i.e., required, actual, and preferred). For example, determine the self-awareness of coaches who have received formal training as compared with those who have not. In addition, it is probable that youth athletes' preferences for

coaching behaviors change over time along with the coaching behaviors that are required of coaches at various levels (Chelladurai, 1993; Chelladurai& Carron, 1983; Martin et al., 1999). Thus, future work should also include longitudinal research to examine when and how coaching preferences change and whether those changes are congruent with coaching requirements at each competitive level. Although participants were asked to respond to all items in an honest manner, situational variables surrounding data collection may influence the way in which the participants respond to the various items (Orensten& Phillips, 1978). Furthermore, the social desirability effect may influence the athletes' perceptions of "correct responses" based on societal or sub cultural norms, or may elicit responses the participants believe the coach or researcher was seeking (Phillips, 1971). Thus, participants may distort their responses to the items on the CBQ.



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