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Collegiate Athletic Leadership Model for NCAA Athletic Teams: Context, Leadership
Behaviors, and Outcomes mediated by Leader-Member Exchange Theory

by

Neil A. Sinclair

**FINAL PROJECT SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT
OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF
MASTER OF ARTS IN LIBERAL STUDIES**

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Abstract

The purpose of this paper is to propose the Collegiate Athletic Leadership Model (CALM) for National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) athletic teams. The CALM will provide clarity on the interaction and range of transformational and transactional behaviors that may be able to foster positive outcomes at the team and individual level. A review of the literature will suggest that the CALM behaviors be placed in three tiers. The first tier or “Foundation behaviors” are contingent reward, articulating a vision, fostering acceptance of group goals, and providing an appropriate role model. The second tier or “Supporting behavior” is individual consideration which is most effective at the individual level of analysis. Intellectual stimulation and high performance expectations are the third tier or “Developmental behaviors”. Leader-member exchange (LMX) is posited as the mediating variable between the CALM behaviors and outcomes at the team and individual level. The CALM will be viewed in the context of academic institutions. These institutions are inherently complex, both in terms of organization and personnel.

Keywords: Context; Transformational Leadership; Transactional Leadership; Leader-Member Exchange; Team Performance Outcomes; Athletic Teams;

Introduction

The Collegiate Athletic Leadership Model (CALM) will describe the context within which college and university coaches operate, as well as identify the transformational and transactional leadership behaviors that may then help foster positive team and individual level outcomes. LMX is posited as a mediating variable. A review of transformational and transactional leadership theory will start with Burns (1978) and continue to the current literature, which focuses on business and athletic settings. The discussion will then examine how organizational and leadership studies may help explain interactions between coaches and student-athletes, as well as team and individual performance. The paper will review how contextual factors such as institutional culture, the athletic director's reporting role, the athletic department's culture, and factors in the institution's environment may influence the leadership behaviors of coaches. We will then review findings that relate these behaviors to an athletic setting in order to assess how these behaviors may help foster positive outcomes for athletic teams. The next step will be to define and describe the mediating variable, LMX. LMX's impact on leader behavior and performance outcomes will also be addressed. Team level outcomes will be discussed and specific leadership behaviors proposed that may help foster Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (OCB), team efficacy/team potency, social cohesion, and team performance. Individual level outcomes will be discussed and leadership behaviors proposed that may help foster task cohesion, member satisfaction, and individual performance.

Literature Review

Transformational and Transactional Leadership

Transformational and transactional leadership behaviors were first introduced by Burns (1978) in his discussion of political leadership. Transformational leaders are described as

offering “a purpose that transcends short-term goals and focuses on higher order intrinsic needs” (Judge & Piccolo, 2004, p. 755). Transactional leaders focus “on the proper exchange of resources” (Judge & Piccolo, 2004, p. 755). Burns suggests that the difference between transformational and transactional leadership is in terms of what leaders and followers offer one another” (Judge & Piccolo, 2004, p. 755). For example, a transformational leader like John Wooden would teach basketball, but also provide lessons for how the basketball skills relate to the academic experience, personal development, and life lessons. A transactional coach would focus on behaviors that taught specific skills, which then helps the team win games. For them, transactional leaders offer a more straight forward “cause and effect” perspective in that an athlete can focus on cultivating a specific skill, play, or attitude and “get something in return” (playing time, a prime position, etc.).

Transformational and transactional leadership was conceptualized into the Full-Range Leadership Model by Bass and Avolio (1994). They differentiated transformational and transactional leadership into separate concepts, arguing that leaders are sometimes both transformational and transactional (Judge & Piccolo, 2004, p. 755). Transformational leadership separates into four distinct behaviors: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. Idealized influence describes leaders “who act as strong role models for followers; followers identify with these leaders and want very much to emulate them” (Northouse, 2004, p. 175). Inspirational motivation describes leaders “who communicate high expectations to followers, inspiring them through motivation to become committed to and a part of the shared vision in the organization” (Northouse, 2004, p. 176). Intellectual stimulation describes leaders who inspire followers “to be creative and innovative, and to challenge their own beliefs and values as well as those of the leader and the organization”

(Northouse, 2004, p. 177). Individual consideration is “representative of leaders who provide a supportive climate in which they listen carefully to the individual needs of followers”

(Northouse, 2004, p. 177). The combination of these behaviors is believed to help lift followers or team members to perform beyond expectations by identifying task and role objectives, team values, and raising awareness of how their contributions can help the team perform at a higher level.

Transactional leadership is separated into three distinct behaviors (contingent reward, management-by-exception active, and management-by-exception passive) and a single non-leadership dimension (laissez-faire). Contingent reward is “an exchange process between leaders and followers in which effort by followers is exchanged for specific rewards” (Northouse, 2004, p. 178). In the athletic setting the effort by followers earns them playing time and leadership responsibilities. Leaders who use Management-by-exception active watch “followers closely for mistakes or rule violations and then takes corrective action” (Northouse, 2004, p. 179). Coaches who practice this form of leadership correct student-athletes on improper technique or play execution immediately. Management-by-exception passive occurs when leaders intervene “only after standards have not been met or problems have arisen,” which sometimes does not happen until a formal performance review (Northouse, 2004, p. 179). Coaches who use this type of behavior may not correct mistakes until a loss or team conflict arises due to poor execution of plays.

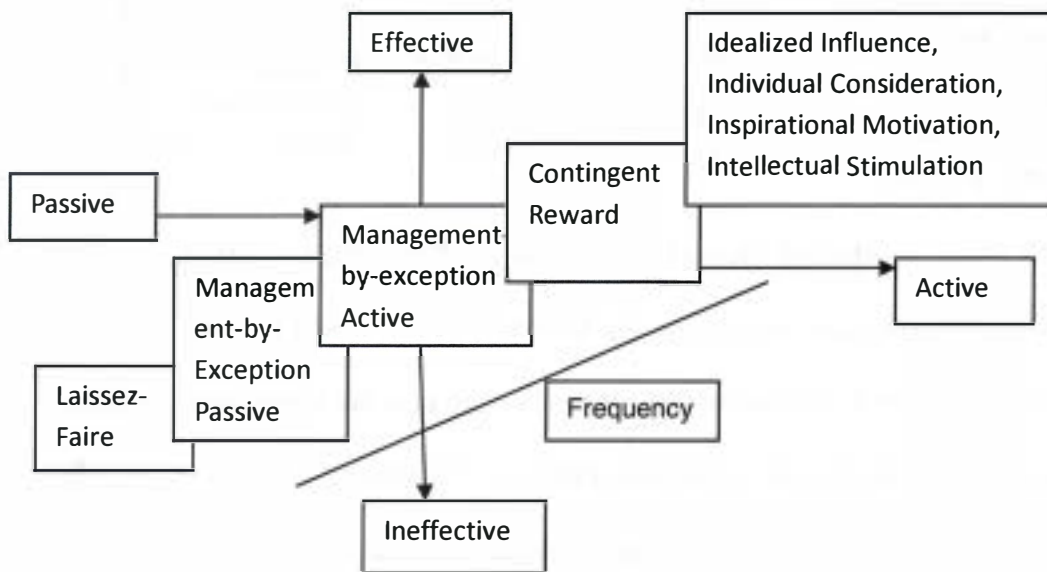
The non-leadership dimension or substitutes for leadership is represented by the laissez-faire behavior. Northouse (2004) describes this type of leadership as abdicating responsibility, delaying decisions, not providing feedback, and making little effort to help satisfy team member needs (p. 179). However, this type of leadership can have a positive spin if the coach believes

his or her team leaders have strong leadership abilities. In this situation a coach may choose to pull back to give the student-leaders the opportunity to learn and grow from the added responsibility of leading the team.

Bass and Avolio (1994) developed the Full Range Leadership Model to describe and define how transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors may produce effective or ineffective results. They propose that optimal leaders display higher frequencies of transformational and contingent reward behaviors when trying to influence positive outcomes. Research findings will show that laissez-faire, management-by-exception active, and management-by-exception passive may not be as effective over time as the use of contingent reward and transformational leadership behaviors.

Figure 1

Optimal Full Range Leadership Model



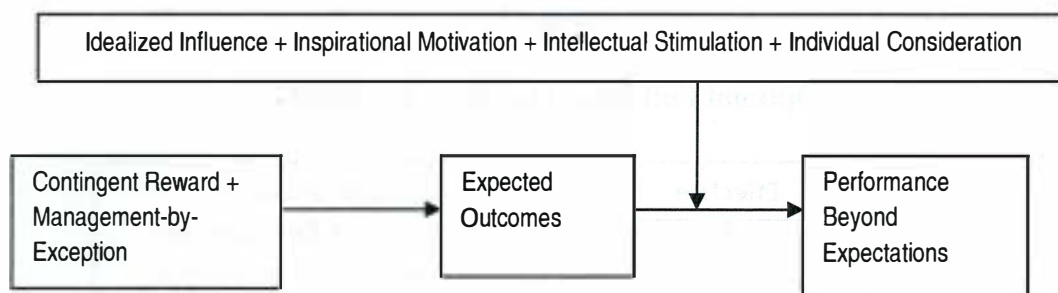
(Bass & Avolio, 1994)

The five optimal behaviors identified in the Full-Range Leadership Model (FRLM) (refer to Figure 1) (contingent reward, idealized influence, individual consideration, inspirational motivation, and intellectual stimulation) have an additive effect on each other, described as the

augmentation effect (refer to Figure 2) or the “degree to which transformational leadership styles build on the transactional base in contributing to the extra effort and performance of followers” (Judge & Piccolo, 2004, p. 756). Based on augmentation effect coaches can distribute playing time and assign positions based on performance in practice, social decisions, and academic performance. These coaching decisions must be viewed as fair and equitable, but equal playing time is not a sole criterion. Transformational behaviors then help elevate individual and team play by relating team member participation to the goals of the team and leading to an emphasis on team goals relative to individual goals.

Figure 2

The Additive Effect of Transformational & Transactional Leadership



(Northouse, 2004, p. 178)

The Full Range Leadership Model (FRLM) was modified by Podsakoff et al. (1990). They proposed the Transformational Leadership Inventory (TLI), which consists of six sub-dimensions, refer to Figure 3, of transformational leadership plus the transactional dimension of contingent reward. Podsakoff et al. (1990) broke the transformational leadership behaviors into four dimensions. He described the first dimension as the “core” transformational behaviors “resulting from the fact that these three behaviors somehow capture the essence of transformational leadership” (p. 134). The three behaviors are articulating a vision, providing an appropriate role model, and fostering acceptance of group goals. The second dimension was high

performance expectations. The third dimension, individual consideration, is consistent with Bass' individualized consideration construct (Podsakoff et al., 1990, p. 134). The fourth dimension is consistent with another of Bass' constructs, intellectual stimulation. The lone transactional leadership sub-dimension is contingent reward.

Figure 3

Comparison of Full-Range Leadership Dimensions, TLI, & DTLI

<u>Full Range Leadership Model (Bass & Avolio)</u>	<u>TLI (Podsakoff et al.)</u>	<u>DTLI (Hardy et al.)</u>
1) Idealized Influence	1) Articulating a Vision	1) Appropriate Role Model
2) Inspirational Motivation	2) Providing an Appropriate Role Model	2) Inspirational Motivation
3) Intellectual Stimulation	3) Fostering Acceptance of Group Goals	3) Intellectual Stimulation
4) Individual Consideration	4) High Performance Expectations	4) Individual Consideration
5) Contingent Reward	5) Contingent Reward	5) Fosters Acceptance of Group Goals & Teamwork
6) Management-by-Exception	6) Individual Consideration	6) High Performance Expectations
7) Laissez-Faire	7) Intellectual Stimulation	7) Contingent Reward

The TLI distinguished the transformational and contingent reward behaviors from other leadership behaviors by breaking them into four dimensions. Podsakoff et al. (1990) also assigned importance to the new or redefined behaviors articulating a vision, providing an appropriate role model, fostering acceptance of group goals, and setting high performance expectations. The authors assigned singular importance to the transactional behavior contingent reward while dropping from the model, management-by-exception passive and active. The non-leadership laissez-faire behavior and the transformational behavior inspirational motivation were not included in the TLI.

For the purposes of the CALM the TLI provides the starting point for identifying leadership behaviors that may help coaches consistently produce positive outcomes within the context of their academic institutions. The CALM suggests that contingent reward behavior creates the basis for the expected outcomes (as identified by the augmentation effect). Podsakoff et al. (1990) supports the importance of the behavior when he notes that "contingent reward

captures the exchange notions fundamental to transactional behavior, and is the principal behavior identified by Bass” (p. 113). In the athletic setting this occurs when the coach makes decisions on who is dressing, filling specific roster spots, and allocating playing time based on practice and game performance. Providing an appropriate role model is defined as “behavior by the leader that sets an example for others to follow, which is consistent with the values that the leader/organization espouses” (Podsakoff et al, 1990, p. 112; Hardy et al., 2010, p. 22). NCAA coaches need to model the behaviors they expect from their student-athletes. Coaches who cheat when recruiting or receive a DUI are not setting the example expected by a college or university. Providing an appropriate role model also requires that student leaders, such as team captains or leadership group, model the expected behaviors for the team. Fostering acceptance of group goals is a behavior “aimed at promoting cooperation among followers, getting them to work together towards a common goal, and developing teamwork” (Podsakoff et al., 1990, p. 112; Hardy et al., 2010, p. 22). Once the coach has articulated the vision, he or she needs to work with the student-athletes so that they buy into the philosophy, and everyone is on the same page, working together to perform to and reach the expected outcomes which also describes the principles of goal setting theory. High performance expectations describe behaviors that demonstrate the leader’s hope for excellence, quality, and high performance on the part of all followers (Podsakoff et al., 1990, p. 112; Hardy et al., 2010, p. 22). Coaches need to work with student-athletes to set expectations regarding off-season training, practice and game habits, and then articulate how the student-athletes can reach these goals. We will discuss later in the paper how the research findings show that high expectations can have a negative effect on outcomes if not used in the appropriate situations.

Podsakoff and House (1994) also contend that two of the six TLI sub dimensions, individualized support and intellectual stimulation, are not transformational. “They argue that these behaviors are displayed by ‘ordinary leaders’ and do not necessarily result in transformational effects (such as the exertion of extra effort [associated with organizational citizenship behaviors])” (Schriesheim et al., 2006, p. 25). We will also discuss studies that have shown that intellectual stimulation has been found to have negative effects on organizational outcomes (Schriesheim et al., 2006, p. 25; Podsakoff et al., 1990, p. 134). We will see later in our discussion that the CALM takes this into consideration by tiering the behaviors and acknowledging the research findings that indicate that intellectual stimulation and individualized support may not play as important a role in producing positive outcomes as contingent reward, articulating a vision, fostering acceptance of group goals, and providing an appropriate role model.

Hardy et al.’s (2010) Differentiated Transformational Leadership Inventory developed for the military setting also contributes to the development of the CALM. The DTLI has six transformational dimensions and contingent reward is the lone transactional behavior similar to the TLI. Callow et al. (2009) explored the construct validity of the DTLI and “its relationship with team cohesion and performance level” as it related to 309 club standard ultimate Frisbee players in the United Kingdom (p. 395). They found “supportive evidence for the factorial and discriminant validity of the DTLI in an interactive sport setting” (Callow et al., 2009, p. 409). Callow et al.’s (2009) use of the DTLI in the interactive sport setting supports the position that transformational and transactional leadership behaviors may have a place in the NCAA athletic setting.

To further develop the CALM it is important to look at the differences between the TLI and DTLI. As noted earlier, the TLI broke the leadership behaviors into four dimensions indicating that certain transformational behaviors may have a greater influence on fostering positive outcomes. We also see that contingent reward plays a more important role in Podsakoff et al.'s conceptualization of the TLI by helping to define the values and roles of individuals and teams. Therefore, the CALM will use both the TLI and DTLI to provide theoretical support for the CALM in the NCAA setting. This model contributes to the literature and practice because it provides an appropriate framework for coaches to explain individual and team performance.

Wu et al. (2010) made the distinction between group-focused and individual-focused leadership. Their findings suggest that "group-focused leadership facilitated group identification and collective efficacy, which positively contributed to group effectiveness" (p. 90). Two transformational behaviors that are more likely to influence at the team level are idealized influence and inspirational motivation (Wu et al., 2010, p. 92). Idealized influence and inspirational motivation are represented in the TLI by articulating a vision, fostering acceptance of group goals, and providing an appropriate role model. This type of "group-focused leadership is expected to shape members' group identification, which is a shared cognitive process in which each member defines the self in terms of his relationships to the group" (Wu et al., 2010, p. 92). Articulating a vision is the behavior that focuses team members on shared objectives, values, and philosophy required for the team to be effective. Providing an appropriate role model occurs when the coaching staff and team leaders model the shared values and their actions focus on achieving shared objectives. Fostering acceptance of group goals includes defining why the values, symbols, and identification with the team are important for team and individual effectiveness. The research suggests that "certain transformational leader behaviors that link

self-concept of followers to shared visions, values, and roles within a group are more likely to activate followers' collective identification" (Wu et al., 2010, p. 92). Therefore, articulating a vision, fostering acceptance of group goals, and providing an appropriate role model may help NCAA coaches activate and foster team members' collective identify.

Individual-focused leadership suggests that effective leaders vary their behavior on the basis of each team member's knowledge, skills, and abilities. "Two components of transformational leadership behaviors-individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation-appear to focus more on individual needs, capabilities, and affective states than on their collective interests" (Wu et al., 2010, p. 93). Coaches use individualized consideration when they evaluate how each team member's knowledge, skills, and abilities will fit in with the larger group and assign roles that the coach believes will help the team accomplish their goals. Coaches use intellectual stimulation when they encourage and challenge team members to use their specific knowledge, skills, and abilities to fill the assigned role which the coach believes will help the student-athlete accomplish their individual goals while adding to the overall effectiveness of the team.

Athletic Teams

The relevance of leadership theory in the athletic setting becomes apparent when teams are viewed in the context of an academic institution. Ball noted (1975) that athletic teams fit the general description of formal organizations, that they are characterized by "an equivocal identity, an exact roster of members including a roster of positions or statuses, a planned program of activity, and a division of labor to achieve specified goals, and procedures for replacing team members and for transfer of team members from one position to another" (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1980, p. 34). College athletic teams also exist within a larger organization with its own goals

and objectives. Coaches must relate the team's goals and objectives to the institution's goals and objectives, which requires the building of relationships within the department and institution, understanding the lines of communication within the institution, understanding organizational culture, and resolving conflict in a constructive manner when it arises because of the complexity of these interactions. Despite this larger context, coaches still have significant control and influence over the student-athletes and their teams. A coach's role may be similar to that of a lower level manager, with the athletic director serving as a middle manager overseeing the different teams or sub-units in the department. As a lower level manager an NCAA coach may have many and varied managerial functions such as recruiting, teaching classes, planning practices, budgeting, scheduling, game planning, public relations, fundraising, etc. (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1980, p. 35). A job description is insufficient to capture the complexity of the job, which highlights why understanding leadership behaviors is critical. An effective coach will have command and understanding of leadership behaviors that help him execute these tasks and foster positive outcomes for the team and team members within the context of the academic institution. Therefore, it becomes important for us to gain a better understanding of the contextual variables that influence coaches and teams and that then impact effective leadership behaviors at the team and individual level, the coach-player relationship, and the desired outcomes. The CALM suggests a framework to better understand how the context of the institution may influence NCAA coaches and suggest leadership behaviors that may help coach's foster positive outcomes with LMX theory helping to explain the relationship between leadership behavior and outcome.

Institutional Context

Contextual variables may influence athletic team member attitudes, role perceptions, and performance. Podsakoff et al. (1996) point out that any structural leadership model that investigates the effects of leadership behaviors on performance criteria but that does not also include a discussion of contextual variables would be too narrowly defined (p. 295). Therefore, the CALM includes contextual variables as they relate to college and university athletic departments, recognizing that academic institutions contrast greatly with mainline utilitarian organizations and have been described as organized anarchies (Bass & Stodgill, 1990, p. 577). Cohen and March (1974) interviewed 42 university presidents and found that institutions of higher education are “likely to have problematic goals, unclear technologies, and fluid participation in decision making. Most issues are of little consequence to institutional members as a whole, and decisions depend on who happens to be involved at the time they have to be made” (Bass & Stodgill, 1990, p. 577). This scenario can create a challenging environment for departmental and “subunit” leaders as they try to accomplish their department’s goals within the framework of the institutional objectives.

The organizational structure of colleges and universities can provide a unique and challenging environment for NCAA coaches. Organizational structure can be defined as “the enduring characteristics of an organization reflected by the distribution of units and positions with the organization and their systematic relationships to each other” (James & Jones, 1976, p. 76). For the purposes of the CALM, organizational structure is conceptualized by three factors as defined by Walter and Bruch (2010): centralization, formalization, and organizational size. Centralization reflects the degree to which authority is concentrated within an organization. Research by Walter and Bruch (2010) suggests that centralization “seems to have distinctly

negative consequences, diminishing both the occurrence and effectiveness of transformational climate in organizations” (p. 776). The implications for the CALM are that institutions of higher education are often described as organized anarchies at the organizational level, which implies that they may be conducive to the use of transformational behaviors by NCAA coaches.

Formalization is defined as the extent that rules, procedures, instructions, and communications are written within the institution (Walter & Bruch, 2010, p. 767). “Formalization, in contrast, is beneficial both as an antecedent of transformational leadership climate and as a moderator of the transformational leadership climate” (Walter & Bruch, 2010, p. 776). Institutions of higher education may not be highly formalized since they are described as having “fluid participation in decision making” as defined by the Cohen and March (1974) study. The implications for the CALM are that NCAA coaches need to determine if the department and academic institution provide “clear-cut, reliable processes and guidelines” or does the department and institution provide directives, which diminish employee discretion (Walter & Bruch, 2010, p. 776).

Athletic departments and academic institutions that have a high level of formalization and bureaucracy may not be as open to transformational leadership behaviors, which may lead coaches to use contingent reward as their primary leadership behavior. On the other hand, athletic departments and academic institutions that have formalized rules designed to benefit athletic department and team functioning may open the path for the use of transformational leadership behaviors as described in the CALM. Organization size is defined as the total number of employees working within an organization (Walter & Bruch, 2010, p. 776). Institution size seems to affect the occurrence of transformational behaviors because larger institutions may have more constraints on the occurrence of transformational behaviors, but size appears to have limited relevance in actually shaping the effectiveness of transformational behaviors (Walter &

Bruch, 2010, p. 776). The finding regarding organizational size is important because it implies that the CALM can be used at larger institutions similar to The Ohio State University or small liberal arts colleges like Amherst College.

We can address organizational structure as it relates specifically to athletics at the NCAA level by referring to a study by Armstrong-Doherty (1995). The study examined the degree of perceived control by Canadian university athletic directors for fifteen environmental elements over seven basic activities of the athletic department for a three year period. Perceived control is defined “as the enactment of power, with power being the ability to affect the behavior of another” (Armstrong-Doherty, 1995, p. 77). Armstrong-Doherty (1995) acknowledges that “there is fairly extensive literature regarding what is known, and more often what is believed to be true, about the extent, impact, and implications of environmental control in interuniversity athletics in the United States and to a lesser degree in Canada” (p. 76). The data from this study can be extrapolated to NCAA institutions because the academic compromises, recruiting violations, and exploitation of athletes in American colleges are similar to concerns about non-university control in Canadian university athletics (Armstrong-Doherty, 1995, p. 76). This study is relevant to the CALM because it provides a “comprehensive, empirical examination of the nature and relative magnitude of perceived control of all relevant elements in the task environment of interuniversity athletics in Canada” (Armstrong-Doherty, 1995, p. 77).

The 15 environmental factors of influence at Canadian Interuniversity Athletic Union (CIAU) member institutions include: an expectation that athletic teams will generate additional funding from outside sources (alumni, boosters, and advertising), that coaches will consider the interests of alumni and community supporters, the pressure to recruit and establish winning programs, that athletics are a tool for public relations, and finally adherence to league and

nationally imposed rules (Armstrong-Doherty, 1995, p. 75). These factors highlight the problematic goals alluded to by the Cohen and March (1974) study. For example, if a coach is expected to recruit and establish a winning program, that may not be an important goal for other members of the institution other than the athletic department, student-athletes, parents, and alums. Other departments within the institution could influence implementation of a coach's philosophy to recruit and establish winning programs, such as the president's office, admissions, financial aid, dean of student affairs, advancement, and alumni affairs to name a few. The level of hierarchy within the organization would impact the autonomy of the athletic department and the coach because there are too many departments trying to influence the "desired" outcome, which may, in fact, only be desired by one or two constituents.

Armstrong-Doherty (1995) studied the level of control by outside environmental factors as perceived by the athletic directors and their relationship to seven athletic department activities. The seven activities were: securing funds, hiring personnel, establishing a philosophy of the department, allocating funds within the department to teams, daily operations, external communications, interactions within the athletic conference, and interactions with the CIAU. "The results indicate that the interuniversity athletic department was consistently rated the highest among the elements and it alone comprised a top level of control for five of the seven activities" (Armstrong-Doherty, 1995, p. 85). The central administration, which could be the president's office or president's council, "shared with the athletic department a top level of perceived control over securing funds and hiring" (Armstrong-Doherty, 1995, p. 85). The athletic board or athletic council and central administration had a second level of perceived control over allocating funds within the athletic department. Affiliated faculty/recreation department, athletic board, and student-athletes had a second level of perceived control in the

hiring of athletic department staff. Central administration, athletic board, student-athletes, athletic conference, CIAU, and affiliated faculty/recreation department members had a second level of influence in establishing department philosophy (Armstrong-Doherty, 1995, p. 85).

As mentioned earlier, NCAA institutions could have the same environmental factors influencing the task environment of the athletic department, given the similarities between the Canadian and American university systems. In summary, any model trying to capture context for academic institutions needs to acknowledge environmental factors, as outlined by the CALM. However, the athletic department and athletic director are able to maintain “relative” operational autonomy for the factors surveyed in the Armstrong-Doherty (1995) study when the athletic director reports to central administration with minimal input from the athletic board or other departments within the institution (p. 92).

The Armstrong-Doherty (1995) study suggests that CIAU and NCAA institutions may not be highly centralized or formalized. The complexity of the interactions required for hiring head coaches, securing funds for the operation of the athletic department, or recruiting/admitting student-athletes can create a dynamic tension between the various institutional and external parties. The dynamic interaction that occurs between the coach, athletic director, institutional departments, and external elements in recruiting/admitting prospective student-athletes is described as “lateral interdependence” by Yukl (2002). Lateral interdependence is defined as the extent to which “a leader’s sub-unit is dependent on other sub-units in the same organization or on external groups that will affect leader behavior to a considerable extent” (p. 36). An example of an NCAA institution with a high level of lateral interdependence would be an athletic department that reports to the Dean of Student Affairs.

In this scenario, a high level of lateral interdependence could arise because the Dean of Student Affairs is part of the central administration. The central administration would have influence over the athletic department through the Dean of Student Affairs exhibiting a “top down” structure. Other sources of influence would be sub-units of the Student Affairs department on the same (horizontal) level such as academic advising, health services, residential life, career services, community service, and leadership office. Pressure or influence might also come from below (students) or from outside the institution through alumni, friends of organizations, or the media. We see from the Armstrong-Doherty (1995) findings that with respect to allocation of funds the athletic director had perceived primary control while the athletic board and central administration had a secondary level of control. Department philosophy had five environmental elements with second level of perceived control (central administration, athletic board, student-athletes, athletic conference, CIAU, and affiliate faculty/recreation department). These findings highlight the high level of lateral interdependence for the athletic department within the institution. Hunt and Osborn (1982) found that as lateral interdependence increases it can represent a “threat to the subunit because routine activities must be modified more frequently to accommodate the needs of other subunits, with a resulting loss in autonomy and stability” (Yukl, 2002, p. 36). An example of how lateral interdependence can impact team performance and outcomes is the control of key inputs for athletic team success by units outside the athletic department. A few of the key inputs for the athletic department would be funding, financial aid or scholarship money, admission of student-athletes, and facilities. Decisions on how each of these inputs is allocated are generally made by a group outside the athletic department. The control of these key inputs by groups outside the athletics department can have a significant impact on outcomes, culture of the athletic department and its teams. For

example, coaches may recruit student-athletes that they feel would help the program, but the academic institution can choose not to admit or fund the student-athlete or the student-athlete may choose not to attend the institution due to insufficient financial aid or inadequate facilities when compared to peer institutions.

Schein (1992) defined the culture of a group or organization as “shared assumptions and beliefs about the world and their place in it, the nature of time and space, human nature, and human relationship” (Yukl, 2002, p. 278). Culture is made up of espoused or stated values and underlying or unstated beliefs. An institution whose stated philosophy is to be competitive in conference, regional, and NCAA play should provide the necessary inputs for coaches and student-athletes to accomplish this outcome. An institution that develops a philosophy of being competitive at the conference, regional, and NCAA level, but does not provide funding, financial aid or scholarship dollars, and facilities (lack of organizational support) is creating an underlying belief within the institution that being competitive is not an institutional priority, which could have a negative impact on the coaches’ leadership behaviors, relationship with student-athletes, and outcomes at the team and individual level.

Institutions of higher education, are complex and the context in which athletic departments operate may create significant challenges for NCAA coaches. The previous discussion suggests that most institutions are decentralized with a high level of lateral interdependence. Decisions about the allocation of “key inputs” may be made at a level above the athletic director and by departments outside the athletic department. This generalization may not apply for large NCAA institutions like Michigan, USC, or Auburn, whose athletic departments report directly to the president and board of trustees. Walter and Bruch (2010) suggest that decentralization, unit autonomy, and a degree of formalization may be conducive to

transformational leader (Bass, 1976). Therefore, the CALM provides coaches with a guide to how to implement reward leadership behaviors in an institutional context that is decentralized, interdependence, provides departmental and team autonomy, and has espoused a culture with the institution and department that is fluid. The CALM may help coaches adapt to a constantly changing institutional context as they try to produce key outcomes at the team and individual level.

Leader-Member Exchange Theory

The proposed mediating variable for the CALM is Leader-Member Exchange (LMX). The theory describes role making processes between a leader and an individual subordinate or in the case of the CALM, a coach and a team member or a student-leader and a team member. LMX theory proposes that “most leaders establish a special exchange relationship with a small number of subordinates” which can result in an “in-group” and an “out-group” dynamic within a team (Yukl, 2002, p. 116). This point is an important contribution to leadership studies because it identifies that “effective leadership is contingent on effective leader-member exchanges” and that “effective leadership occurs when the communication between leaders and followers is characterized by mutual trust, respect, and commitment” (Northouse, 2004, p. 155). A coach’s decisions around playing time, discipline, and rewards can create a sense of mutual trust, respect and commitment from the team members or alternatively can result in distrust, disrespect, and lack of commitment on the part of team members. Another important contribution to LMX theory was made by Graen and Uhl-Bien (1991) when they proposed the “life cycle” model to further develop LMX theory. The process begins with the “stranger” stage. In this stage, interactions between team members and the coach occur on a more formal basis where coaches

provide team members with directions on how to perform their role and team members do only what is expected of them (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1991, p. 230). In stage two or the “acquaintance” stage, the team member or coach offer the opportunity for an improved relationship through the athletic or academic development of the player. At this stage, the team member could ask for additional help or guidance or the coach may offer additional help. These social exchanges begin to resemble more of a mentoring type relationship where the focus is evolving towards development and not just role execution. These exchanges may still be infrequent and may still be seen as task-oriented directives (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1991, p. 230). Team member-coach relationships that grow to the third stage are called “mature partnership” exchanges. In this stage there is mutual respect, trust, loyalty, and an obligation to develop as an individual and team together through social exchanges that are not task-oriented, but rather focused on developing the individual (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1991, p. 230). Team members who reach the “mature partnership” stage may be captains and team leaders. The life cycle model suggests that contingent reward behaviors are more pervasive in the “stranger” stage and transformational behaviors are more pervasive in the “mature” stage (Yukl, 2002, p. 117). The life cycle model provides NCAA coaches with guidelines for the type of leadership behaviors that may be most effective at each stage of the leader-follower relationship. Coaches can also evaluate how they may be able to improve the relationship in an effort to limit the number of team-members in the “out-group” and create the perception that there is a large “in-group.”

LMX theory implies that exchange relationships evolve in a continuous, non-linear fashion, starting with the recruiting process at the college level. The relationship between student-athlete and coach may progress through a series of ups and downs, with changes in attitudes and behaviors as the player and coach work to navigate the student-athlete’s desire for

playing time, responsibility, and recognition both athletically and academically. The CALM proposes that coaches need to minimize the negative effects of extreme differentiated positive and negative relationships with team members in order to foster positive outcomes at the team and individual level. For example, an extreme differentiated positive team member would be called the “coach’s favorite” while the negative relationship would be described as being in “coach’s dog house”. As Yukl (2002) notes, “it is not necessary to treat all subordinates exactly the same, but each person should perceive” that they are an important and respected member of the team. Not every team member may desire the same level of responsibility, but each team member should “perceive that he has the opportunity to earn playing time and receive praise for academic and athletic accomplishments” (Yukl, 2002, p. 120). It becomes the coach’s responsibility to choose the appropriate leadership behaviors for the situation and for the individual involved and to be aware how LMX theory may help explain outcomes at the team and individual level.

Some studies of LMX have hinted at the importance of studying the interaction between team level LMX and individual level LMX (Wu et al., 2010; Boies & Howell, 2006). Boies and Howell (2006) describe the team level measure as mean level LMX and the individual level measure as LMX differentiation. Cogliser and Schriesheim, (2000) proposed that “team-level LMX may interact with within-team differentiation in predicting team-level outcomes” (Boies & Howell, 2006, p. 247). Coaches need to be aware that the way in which they build relationships with team members can affect mean level LMX and LMX differentiation. Coaches who foster relationships that are characterized by respect, trust, and mutual obligation may be able to foster a high mean LMX and a low differentiated LMX. Conversely, a low mean LMX and a high differentiated LMX may characterize a team with an “in-group” that has built a relationship with

the coach based on trust, respect, and mutual obligation while the “out-group” would perceive their relationship with the coach as unfavorable. The LMX relationship at the team and individual level in this situation may produce or result in an ineffective team and negative outcomes. LMX theory strengthens the CALM by providing a theoretical platform that explains how leadership behaviors can influence outcomes in a positive manner.

Defining Outcomes: Team and Individual Level

The CALM proposes that NCAA coaches are seeking team outcomes of collective efficacy/team potency, organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB), team performance, and social cohesion. At the individual level, coaches aim to foster task cohesion, self-efficacy, individual performance, and member satisfaction.

Team Level Outcomes

Collective efficacy or team potency, as defined by Nielsen et al. (2009), “refers to the individuals’ assessment of the groups or teams collective ability to organize and execute the courses of action” (p. 1238). Team efficacy is also described as the complex interactions and reciprocal influence of team members’ motivation, beliefs, and performance, which supersedes individual members’ motivation and beliefs (Nielsen et al., 2009, p. 1238). These complex interactions set the mood in the locker room, on the bench, and determine the range of emotions that student-athletes experience during practice and competition. These emotions and beliefs influence positive or negative team interactions with the head coach and coaching staff. A coach who is able to foster a high collective efficacy through his or her leadership behaviors may have a better chance of achieving desired outcomes, commitment to team goals, and team member satisfaction.

The team level outcome of organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB) is defined as representing “individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and in the aggregate promotes the efficient functioning of the organization” (Deluga, 1994, p. 316). OCB becomes important in the business and athletic setting because leaders and coaches cannot define through job descriptions or task assignments the entire spectrum of behaviors necessary for achieving team goals (Deluga, 1994, p. 316). NCAA coaches who are able to foster OCB as an outcome at the team level through the use of transformational and contingent reward leadership behaviors may be able to influence team members to be proactive in their problem solving in all game situations, which can help lead to team effectiveness and performance. A team member who self motivates and decides to tutor other teammates without being prompted by a coach or paid by a peer is exhibiting the kind of holistic OCB thinking about team and “success” that will benefit the entire program. Players who cannot see beyond their own “success” (such as, playing time or appointed leadership) have not yet reached an understanding of OCB.

The five categories of OCB that have been associated with organizational effectiveness are; altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, and civic virtue (DeLuga, 1994; Graham, 1986; Organ, 1988). Altruistic teammates seek to prevent team conflict by being aware of teammates’ needs and to help them solve problems as they surface. Teammates that show courtesy model behaviors that help prevent future problems. Conscientious teammates spend extra time working on skill development, training in the off-season, and managing time to complete their academic studies. Sportsmanship is exhibited when teammates learn to tolerate the daily annoyances that may arise in the locker room, through practice, and daily interpersonal interactions. Civic virtue manifests when team members are positively involved in the college

and town community (Deluga, 1994, p. 316-317). The five categories of OCB give NCAA coaches an idea of which leadership behaviors associated with the CALM may help foster altruism, courtesy, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, and civic virtue.

Performance is another team level outcome desired by the CALM. Each NCAA sport will have a way to measure team performance while also providing feedback about how to continue to improve team performance. For example, ice hockey can be broken down into offensive and defensive team performance. Offensive team performance can be measured by looking at goals scored per game, quality scoring chances, shots on goal per game, and power play. Defensive team performance could be measured by goalie save percentage, shots given up per game, goals against per game, and penalty kill. These measures give hockey coaches a picture of where the team needs to improve if performance or overall goal attainment is lagging. NCAA coaches also need to look at the academic performance of their athletes, which might be measured by looking at team GPA, number of team members on the All-Academic team, Dean's List, and the overall graduation rate. Each NCAA sport is unique and will need to identify key team performance measures in order to test whether the CALM leadership behaviors are effective in helping coaches' foster team performance.

Social cohesion, as a team level outcome, is defined as the "individual's perception of his/her involvement in social aspects of the group and the degree of unity the group possesses regarding social aspects" of the team (Eys et al., 2007, p. 396). Williams and Widmeyer (1991) note that social cohesion (i.e., togetherness, team spirit, closeness, teamwork, team unity) and its role in fostering success is one of the most frequently examined small group variables in sport (p. 364). Reviewers of sport cohesion research typically conclude that the cohesion-performance outcome relationship is positive for interactive teams like ice hockey, basketball, soccer, field

hockey, etc. (Carron, 1988; Cox, 1990; Gill, 1986; Williams & Widmeyer, 1991). In the Williams and Widmeyer (1991) study social cohesion correlated positively with performance. In other words, teams with a high level of social cohesion are better able to handle conflict and problem solve because they communicate effectively regarding technique, strategies, and team goals during games and practice sessions. Therefore, leadership behaviors that encourage intra-team communication on skill development and team play may help create the “togetherness” and “team unity” dimension that is an important aspect of social cohesion. The CALM proposes leadership behaviors that may help foster social cohesion.

Individual Level Outcomes

Self-efficacy is an individual level outcome derived from Bandura’s (1997) socio-cognitive model. Self-efficacy describes a team member’s belief in his or her “ability and capacity to accomplish a task or cope with environmental demands” (Nielsen et al., 2009, p. 1237). The CALM incorporates role breadth self-efficacy (RBSE) which is contained in the broader definition of self-efficacy. RBSE is “the extent to which people feel confident that they are able to carry out a range of proactive integrative tasks beyond prescribed technical requirements” (Rafferty & Griffin, 2004, p. 336). Team sports require individuals who are confident in their abilities, have a willingness to adapt, problem solve, and resolve conflicts in a constructive manner. Using football as an example, coaches may outline a specific pass play for the offensive unit and call that play during the game. However, the defensive team may react in an unexpected way which requires the quarterback, wide receiver, running backs, etc. to problem solve and make choices that promote the effective functioning of the team without the benefit of the coaches’ input. Student-athletes who cannot fill these roles because of low self-efficacy or RBSE may not be able to contribute effectively to the performance of the team. Hence, the

CALM's inclusion of contingent reward and transformational leadership behaviors may help NCAA coaches better understand their relationship to high self-efficacy or high RBSE.

Satisfaction and performance are identified as a desired individual level outcome for the CALM. As noted by Podsakoff et al. (2006) satisfaction is a theoretical outcome of transformational leadership and contingent reward (Avolio & Bass, 1998; Bass & Avolio, 1993; Bass, 1990). We would expect an effective team to have a coach who can find a way to meet the needs and desires of the majority of the team members. On teams with larger rosters (ice hockey, football, lacrosse, etc.) member satisfaction may be difficult to achieve given that each student-athlete's desires and needs may not mesh with the needs of the program. An effective leader will find a way to influence team members to subjugate their wants and needs to the greater good of the team, which lays a firm foundation for strong team performance and may influence member satisfaction in a positive manner.

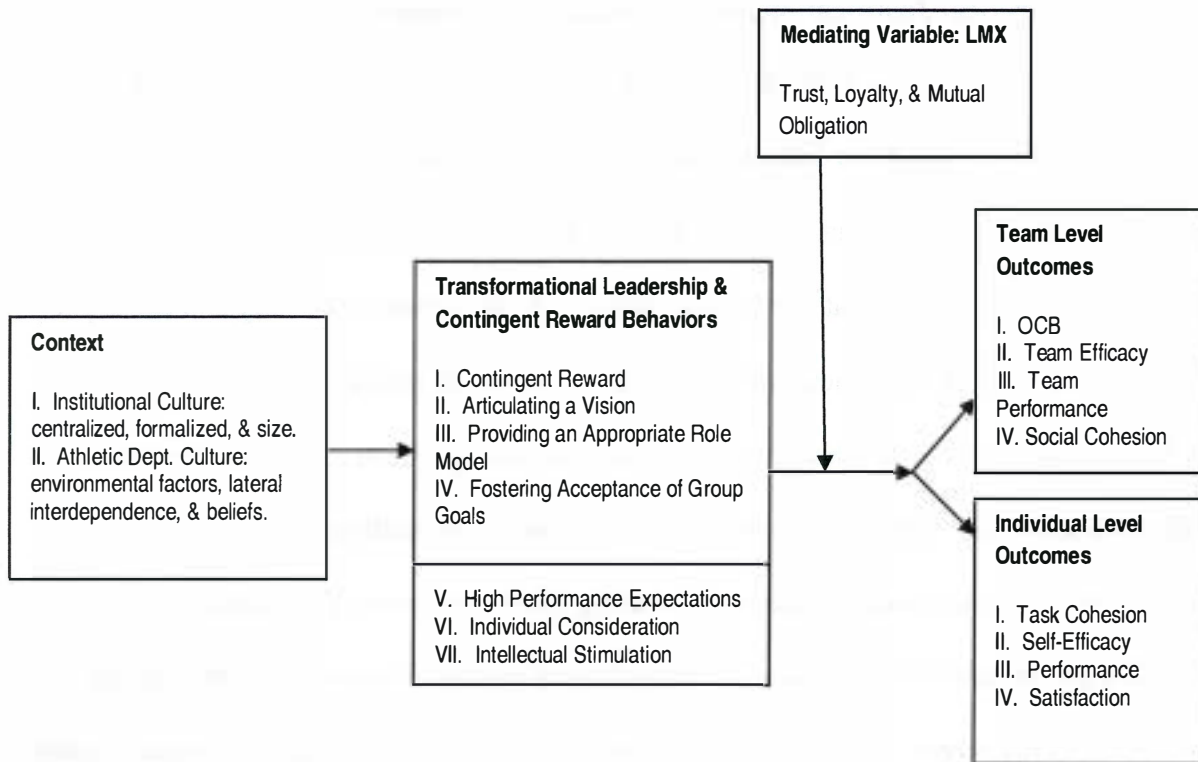
Individual performance in ice hockey is defined by each position (forward, defense, and goalie). Each has different responsibilities and tasks with some overlap between and among positions. Some of the statistics that can be used to measure individual performance are plus/minus, goals scored, assists, face-off winning percentage, game winning goals, shorthanded goals, power play goals, and points per a game. All of these statistics, used together, begin to give a coach and student-athlete tools to measure a player's performance level in games and over the course of the season. Putting individual performance in the context of the CALM, the discussion will look at the relationship between contingent reward and transformational behaviors and individual performance.

Task cohesion is also an individual level outcome of the CALM and can be defined as an "individual's perception of his/her personal involvement in task aspects of the group and the

degree of unity [in regard to the team] the group possesses surrounding task” (Eys et al., 2007, p. 396). Williams and Widmeyer (1991) studied the cohesion-performance outcome relationship with 83 female golfers at the NCAA Division I level and found that task cohesion “significantly predicted” performance outcomes (p. 367). This study is an example of how effective interactive athletic teams combine each team member’s knowledge, skills, and abilities into an interdependent pattern of teamwork that, hopefully, leads each individual to a stronger commitment to the team’s goals and improved performance. Team member commitment can and should stem from the coach’s ability to describe each team member’s role as well as team members accepting that role and performing it within the framework of the team. If a player has always see herself as a “play maker” and the coach now positions her as a support person, the coach needs to articulate why that role is important to the team’s ability to succeed. Simply making the placement and expecting performance will not work. According to the CALM there is an important synergy between the coach’s leadership behaviors in this circumstance (i.e. cultivating an athlete’s “buy in” through empowering her to embrace a new position on the team) and an individual athlete’s task cohesion. The CALM posits a relationship between contingent reward and transformational leadership behaviors and task cohesion.

The CALM: Theoretical Justification and Practical Implications

Figure 4



The CALM (refer to Figure 4) starts with the context within which the coach works (organization and athletic department). The coach chooses a leadership behavior that influences individual and team level outcomes. Leader-Member exchange theory (LMX) mediates the relationship between leadership behaviors and outcomes. The leadership behaviors influence the team and individual outcomes while LMX explains the relationship between the two. Our next discussion will focus on findings that support the CALM and begin to identify which behaviors may help foster positive outcomes and how LMX explains them.

The information below provides theoretical justifications and practical implications for the CALM, starting at the team level, progressing to the individual level, and concluding with the

proposal that the CALM leadership behaviors can be placed in three tiers. The proposed tiers are: foundational, supporting, and developmental (FSD).

Team Level: Theoretical Justifications and Practical Implications

As mentioned above, the CALM for NCAA coaches is conceptualized at the team and individual level. It is important to differentiate the leadership behaviors at the group and individual level “because individuals work in groups, departments, organizations, industries, and other forms of units and findings at one level of analysis do not generalize neatly and exactly to the other levels of analysis” (Schriesheim et al., 2009, p. 604). In sports, group level processes include factors such as team member “buy-in” with team strategy, team member acceptance of role within the team, effective coordination of team member roles with team strategy, and team member identification with and confidence in meeting these objectives (Yukl, 2002, p. 287). The CALM suggests that transformational and contingent reward behaviors influence group level processes in the context of the institution. The goal is to foster outcomes that create a team with a high level of efficacy and OCB behaviors, which implies that the team will be high performing. Moving ahead we will place the CALM in the context of current research as a means for providing theoretical justification and practical implications for the model at the team level.

How does the CALM attempt to explain or depict the relationship between team efficacy and potency? The leadership literature suggests that there is a link between transformational leadership and team efficacy and potency. Nielsen et al. (2009) found a direct relationship between transformational leadership and team efficacy and is consistent with the growing body of research in this area by Chen & Bliese (2002) and Walumbwa et al., (2004) (Nielsen et al., 2009, p. 1242). They also identified that “the relationship between transformational leadership

and job satisfaction was found to be partially mediated by team efficacy” (Nielsen et al., 2009, p. 1242). These findings justify including team efficacy in the CALM as a team level outcome. Model implications for coaches suggest that a team with a high team efficacy rating is more likely to solve problems as a group, productively deal with conflict, and deal with the pressures of the season in a proactive manner.

Schaubrock et al. (2007) found a significant relationship between team potency and transformational leadership. In the Schaubrock et al. (2007) study the results indicate that “team potency mediated the relationship between transformational leadership and team performance” (p. 1025). The results suggest that there is a relationship between transformational leadership and team performance and that team efficacy helps to explain that relationship. The link between team efficacy or team potency and transformational leadership supports the CALM proposal that transformational leadership behaviors may help foster team efficacy.

Wu et al. (2010) provide additional support for the link between transformational leadership and team efficacy. They focused on transformational leadership behavior in groups and found that group focused transformational leadership was positively related to members’ group identification, which was further associated with team efficacy (Wu et al., 2010, p. 99).

The CALM builds on this proposed link between transformational leadership and team efficacy by suggesting that, at the group level, the transformational behaviors of articulating a vision, providing an appropriate role model, and fostering acceptance of group goals are positively related to team efficacy. Individual consideration and intellectual stimulation are not included with the group level transformational behaviors in the CALM because they appear to focus more on the individual than the team (Wu et al., 2010; Kark & Shamir, 2002).

The team level outcome, Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (OCB), has five dimensions: altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship, conscientiousness, and civic virtue. The CALM will suggest a relationship between transformational and contingent reward behaviors and OCB. Podsakoff et al.'s (1990 & 1996) study of transformational leadership within the context of Kerr and Jermier's (1978) substitutes for leadership found a positive relationship between transformational leadership behaviors and contingent reward with OCB. Both studies also found that contingent reward had a significant and positive impact on two forms of OCB, sportsmanship and altruism (Podsakoff et al., 1990, p. 129). These results and the CALM proposition are also supported by the work of Asgari et al. (2008) who explored the relationship between transformational leadership, organizational justice, and OCB with the mediating variables being LMX, perceived organizational support, and trust. Similar to Podsakoff et al. (1990 & 1996), the Asgari et al. (2008) study found a positive relationship between transformational and contingent reward leadership with OCB and that contingent reward had a direct and positive relationship with OCB (Asgari et al., 2008, p. 234-235).

The implications for the CALM and NCAA coaches are that contingent reward forms the foundation for the building of trust and mutual obligation. These findings suggest that coaches may want to focus on behaviors that praise the team or team units for effectively completing a task like penalty kill, power play, or face-offs in the sport of hockey. Once the level of trust and mutual obligation has been built at the team level, findings suggest that the transformational behaviors of articulating a vision, fostering acceptance of groups goals, and providing a good role model may help influence several team specific activities, which may help the team to elevate its performance beyond what was expected and to subjugate individual needs and desires to the needs of the unit and team.

Hence, our review of the research supports the proposal for the CALM that contingent reward, articulating a vision, providing a good role model, and fostering acceptance of group goals are likely to influence team efficacy and OCB outcomes. Podsakoff et al. (1990 & 1996) and Asgari et al. (2008) found that intellectual stimulation has a negative impact on both trust and satisfaction. One explanation for this is that intellectual stimulation, as a coaching behavior, used at the wrong time at the team level may increase role ambiguity, conflict, and stress (Podsakoff et al., 1990, p. 135). Podsakoff et al. (1990 & 1996) and Asgari et al. (2008) also found (in a business setting) that the effects of high performance expectations and intellectual stimulation “were not functional to the organization. Both high performance expectations and intellectual stimulation tended to increase role conflict. In addition, high performance expectations tended to decrease employees’ general satisfaction” (Podsakoff et al., 1996, p. 290). These findings suggest that the timing and context for the use of intellectual stimulation and high expectations is important to the effectiveness of the behaviors in the leader-team relationship. Therefore, the CALM posits that NCAA coaches may want to consider how often and when they urge and exhort team members in practice, meetings, and change line-ups in an effort to find new combinations that may produce a more effective team. Instead, coaches may want to consider encouraging repetition and mastery of skills before changing activities, lines, or challenging teams to play a different system in an effort to reduce the potential for role ambiguity, conflict, and stress. A number of NCAA ice hockey teams already keep the first practice of every week simple and straightforward. “Mindless Mondays” are an effort to build confidence and have the student-athletes feel good about themselves heading into the week and next round of games.

A scan of the literature regarding team efficacy and OCB suggests that contingent reward and transformational behaviors have a positive impact on team performance. The findings also

indicate that team efficacy and OCB play a role in fostering team performance. Additional studies supporting the relationship between transformational and contingent reward leadership behaviors and performance include Limand and Ployhart (2004) and Bass et al. (2003). Schaubrock et al. (2007) also found “that transformational leadership was associated with superior team performance” (p. 1027). Therefore, the CALM model proposes that contingent reward, articulating a vision, providing a role model, and fostering acceptance of group goals are associated with the outcomes of team efficacy, OCB, and performance at the team level.

Bass et al. (2003) studied military units operating under stable conditions to see if the use of transformational behaviors on the part of military leaders could predict subsequent performance of these units under high stress and uncertainty. The study examined transformational leadership and contingent reward with unit cohesion (team level outcome-social cohesion), and potency. The study found that “transformational leadership was significantly and positively related to potency, cohesion, and platoon performance” while “transactional leadership was positively related to cohesion and performance” (Bass et al., 2003, p. 213). These findings support the role that transformational and contingent reward leadership plays in fostering social cohesion, which can include role acceptance and role performance. Implications for the CALM are that a team with a high level of social cohesion is better able to constructively communicate why team needs are more important than individual needs as they relate to team efficacy, OCB, and team performance.

Additional support for the role of transformational leadership in fostering social cohesion comes from Callow et al.’s (2009) study which was conducted in a sport setting. The results found that “fostering acceptance of group goals and teamwork predicted social cohesion” (Callow et al., 2009, p. 407). The literature suggests support for the role contingent reward,

articulating a vision, fostering acceptance of group goals, and providing an appropriate role model play in fostering team level outcomes like social cohesion.

The CALM posits that the relationship between the coaching behaviors and outcomes is mediated by leader-member exchange (LMX) at the team level. Research by Boies and Howell (2006) and Wu et al. (2010) found that LMX explains the transformational leadership and team efficacy relationship. Podsakoff et al. (1990) found that trust, a part of LMX, helped explain the relationship between transformational and contingent reward behaviors and OCB. LMX at the team level involves “patterns of relationship quality within the leadership structure, taking into consideration the criticality of relationships for task performance, as well as the effects of differentiated relationships on each other” (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995, p. 234). For NCAA coaches this would involve evaluating the number of high-quality and low-quality exchanges within the team to establish a mean LMX for the team. Boies and Howell (2006) found that teams with a high mean LMX had high team potency and were less likely to be derailed by conflict. Their study also found that teams with a high level of differentiation reported team potency as strong and positive (Boies & Howell, 2006, p. 251-252).

The CALM posits that NCAA coaches may want to refer to Graen and Uhl-Bien’s (1995) life cycle model to determine what type of relationships they have with each student-athlete. Assessing how many team members are in the “stranger,” “acquaintance,” and “mature” relationship stage may help coaches evaluate the uniqueness of each relationship and measure the team’s mean LMX to see if the team has a high LMX differentiation. These findings also suggest that coaches may want to focus on identifying the emergent leaders and develop a “mature” relationship with these individuals since the players may become the elected leaders of the team. The emergent leaders can then be groomed to help build relationships with other team

members and help reduce the “out-group” effect by helping those team members feel like they are a valued part of the team. Developing team leaders may be especially important for large teams like football, lacrosse, soccer, and ice hockey. Teams with twenty-five members or more represent a challenge for a coach in terms of developing high-quality relationships with every team member.

In summary, Graen and Uhl-Bien’s (1995) life cycle model offers coaches a tool for assessing the team’s mean LMX and determining the level of differentiation within the team. Boies and Howell (2006) suggest “that high differentiation may not always be detrimental to team functioning” (p. 254). Therefore, the development of student leaders through captains or a leadership group could help with communication without losing its “grass roots” effectiveness in terms of spreading the team’s core values and insisting on individual accountability to the team’s stated values and beliefs. The CALM posits that NCAA coaches will have more effective teams if they focus on contingent reward behaviors that define team roles, standards, and values articulated in the vision through direct and timely feedback. The transformational behaviors of articulating a vision, providing a role model, and fostering acceptance of group goals builds on the foundation created by contingent reward behaviors.

Individual Level: Theoretical Justifications and Practical Implications

At the individual level of analysis the CALM proposes several primary outcomes, including the fostering of performance, team member satisfaction, self-efficacy, and task cohesion. With respect to leadership behaviors that may influence individual level performance, Schriesheim et al. (2006) tested the theory that contingent reward negatively moderates the relationship between transformational leadership and subordinate performance and satisfaction at the individual level of analysis (p. 21). They found that “the three strongest correlates of

performance and satisfaction are contingent reward, [fostering acceptance of goals], and [articulating a vision]" (p. 28). These findings suggest that in order for transformational leadership (articulating a vision, providing a role model, fostering acceptance of group goals, and communicating high performance expectations) to be effective the leader must first have earned the loyalty and trust of his subordinates through the use of contingent reward behaviors (p. 33). These results are similar to the group level findings of Asgari et al. (2008) and Podsakoff et al. (1996), which indicated that contingent reward forms the foundation and that the transformational behaviors are what raised the extra-role behavior of team members or created OCB. In other words, if a coach wants to improve individual level performance she needs to focus on contingent reward. For example, specifically praise or correct a team member on a given role or task to build the foundation that then allows the transformational leadership behaviors to address the needs and desires of individual team members. The transformational behaviors should target the individual while he or she learns from the successes and failures.

Vecchio et al. (2008) performed a test similar to the Schriesheim et al. (2006) study. They tested the theory that "transformational leadership positively augments the relationship between transactional leadership and the outcomes of employee performance and satisfaction" as it relates to the principal-teacher dyad in high schools (Vecchio et al., 2008, p. 72). They found that the correlations between contingent reward and the outcome of performance and satisfaction typically exceeded that of the correlations of the same outcomes with transformational leadership (Vecchio et al., 2008, p. 74). The results also showed that contingent reward augmented transformational leadership rather than the reverse (Vecchio et al., 2008, p. 76). The Vecchio et al. (2008) study also found significant interactions among the criterion of performance and the predictors of vision and contingent reward and high expectations and contingent reward

(Vecchio et al., 2008, p. 77). The implications for the CALM are that coaching decisions that focus on successful task completion or that correct a team member when tasks are not completed to a specific pre-set standard have a greater impact, in the short term, on individual level performance. For example, a basketball player who cannot shoot an outside jump shot in a game may be given, by the coach, a specific practice warm-up and after practice regimen, so that he or she can improve on his/her in game performance.

The Schriesheim et al. (2006) and Vecchio et al. (2008) findings continue to support the importance of contingent reward in building the foundation for trust and loyalty with leaders. NCAA coaches need to consider this when they make decisions regarding roster spots, playing time, special team play, and discipline. Student-athletes need to perceive these decisions as being fair, congruent with program values and consistent with the articulated vision and expectations of the team. Coaches who are able to use contingent reward behaviors in tandem with the transformational leadership behaviors of articulating a vision, high expectations, and fostering acceptance of group goals may have a better chance of recognizing individual team member needs, elevating those needs and desires, and developing members' potential for achieving higher levels of performance. Along this path of development the coach is also hoping to influence the individual to subjugate his/her short-term self-interest for contributions that help raise the team's level of performance.

Hardy et al. (2010) conducted two studies that examined the effects of a differentiated model of transformational leadership (DTLI) on follower outcomes. In the first study, 484 UK Royal Marine recruits completed questionnaires about the trainers' leader behaviors and their own attitudes toward training. Training outcome was measured as a successful completion of training or non-completion. The second study examined the effectiveness of a transformational

leadership intervention. The study had 85 experimental and 67 control recruits who completed questionnaires at 5 and 15 weeks of recruit training. “The results indicated that all the transformational leader behaviors measured in this study, except for high performance expectations and intellectual stimulation, contributed to the discriminant function analyses. Interestingly, contingent reward was revealed to have the strongest relationship with training outcome” (p. 26). These results are similar to what was stated about intellectual stimulation at the team level: that the results may be explained by the suggestion that intellectual stimulation at the individual level may increase role ambiguity, conflict, and stress (Podsakoff et al., 1990 & 1996). Hardy et al. (2010) expected contingent reward to be a significant contributor to performance, pass/fail, but not the strongest contributor in their study (p. 27). The transformational behaviors that contributed most significantly to performance were fostering acceptance of group goals and teamwork, appropriate role modeling, inspirational motivation, and individual consideration (Hardy et al., 2010, p. 26). These findings are similar to those reported by Schriesheim et al. (2006) and Vecchio et al. (2008). Therefore, we have strong support for contingent reward having the greatest and most consistent impact on individual performance. The transformational behaviors of articulating a vision, and fostering acceptance of group goals were significant in multiple studies. It is important to include the Hardy et al. (2010) results because in some ways athletics is more like the military than the discussion-driven, mechanistic environment of business or higher education. Coaches need team members to execute plays in a predictable manner in order for the team to be effective. Game situations allow very little time to verbally problem solve or discuss how to handle the other team’s power play or fore-check. Team members need to be prepared when they step on the playing field much like the military trains to be ready for a particular event and must follow direction to be

effective. Once a military exercise or athletic contest has started team members must be able to think on their feet while conforming to the team philosophy or system.

The CALM suggests that there is a relationship between transformational leadership behaviors and individual satisfaction and that it is mediated by LMX. Vecchio et al. (2008) acknowledge that “job satisfaction is driven by many alternative forces, and does not necessarily reflect leadership as its primary component” (p. 78). Therefore, it is important to acknowledge that context may play a role in affecting team member satisfaction, especially satisfaction with the coach or team leader. Factors like the external context that might influence member satisfaction in a positive or a negative way include facilities, budgets, media coverage, or support at home events. Individuals who are able to perform their tasks effectively, feel supported when they do make mistakes, and are given feedback that helps them to be successful most likely feeling satisfied with their team, coach, and role. NCAA coaches may want to consider praising “small victories” to help team members see where they have been successful in an effort to encourage them to push to the next level.

With that in mind, the research findings suggest that contingent reward behaviors clarify task and role for team members and potentially lead to a higher level of satisfaction with leader and leader effectiveness. The transformational behaviors augment the effects of the contingent reward behaviors enhancing team member satisfaction, effectiveness, and overall experience. Judge and Piccolo (2004) conducted a meta-analysis examination of the full range of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire behaviors. In general, their research findings suggest the assertion that contingent reward behaviors have a stronger impact on satisfaction associated with task and role performance while transformational behaviors have a stronger impact on follower satisfaction and motivation (p. 759). In these situations, where the coach is

clarifying the path needed to perform a particular task or achieve a particular goal, coaches are using House's path-goal theory of leadership (Avolio & Bass, 1995, p. 200). Where coaches help student-athletes identify weaknesses and then work with the team member to devise a strategy for turning the weakness into a strength or minimizing the impact of the weakness. Once the path has been established through contingent reward behaviors and House's path-goal theory, NCAA coaches will need to find additional ways to keep the student-athlete engaged and motivated as they move along what can sometimes be an arduous path. It is at this step that the CALM suggests transformational behaviors that influence individual level outcomes. For example, the basketball player who has learned to hit the outside jump shot in critical moments of the game would then be woven into the overall team strategy on a regular basis. The coach could explain how picking the right moments to take the shot helps the team be more effective (fostering acceptance of team goals and articulating team vision), which would be the next step in the development of the individual.

Schriesheim et al. (2006) investigated path-goal and transformational leadership at the individual level of analysis. Their findings also "support the notion that transformational leadership enhances the relationship between transactional (contingent reward) leadership and subordinate performance and satisfaction" (p. 33). The Judge and Piccolo (2004) and Schriesheim et al. (2006) studies suggest that the use of contingent reward behaviors in conjunction with articulating a vision, appropriate role modeling, and fostering acceptance of group goals will have stronger results than relying only on contingent reward behaviors. Podsakoff et al. (1996) provide additional support for the transformational leadership and employee satisfaction relationship. Their study found a positive relationship between

articulating a vision, individualized support, providing an appropriate role model, and employee satisfaction (p. 290).

In summary, the CALM posits that contingent reward, individualized support, articulating a vision, fostering acceptance of group goals, and providing an appropriate role model combine to influence team member satisfaction, but contingent reward can also independently influence team member satisfaction. Therefore, the CALM suggests parameters that NCAA coaches should use to clarify team member roles through a series of transactional exchanges. Once the team member understands the path required to play the role, as defined by the coach, then the coach may want to consider using individual consideration to help the team member understand how the structure benefits the team and how the individual also benefits from the role being performed. An example of this could be when a coach asks a team member to take on a less glamorous team role, like focusing on the defensive aspect of the team's play. The coach would focus on articulating how the team and the individual benefits from the team member taking on this role. The coach may even want to identify a potential role model for the team member to emulate.

A pattern is emerging where contingent reward behaviors help influence role, task, and performance objectives for team members. NCAA coaches may be able to use leadership behaviors such as articulating a vision, providing an appropriate role model, fostering acceptance of group goals, and individual consideration to help elevate team member performance and satisfaction. We shall also see that these five behaviors may play a similar role in influencing self-efficacy or role breadth self-efficacy (RBSE). Self-efficacy describes an individual team member's belief in his ability to play his position, execute the plays assigned to the position, and to produce positive outcomes for the team as a result. In ice hockey, outcomes such as this could

mean breaking the puck out of the defensive zone, offensive zone entry, power play execution, or winning a face-off. An individual who has a high level of self-efficacy or RBSE should be better able to handle the pressure of performing and take proactive measures to solve problems as they arise in practice and games.

Nielsen and Munir (2009) studied how transformational leaders influence followers' affective well-being by exploring the mediating role of self-efficacy. Their "results [support] the reciprocal nature of the relationship between managers' perceived transformational leadership style and self-efficacy" (Nielsen & Munir, 2009, p. 324). These findings support previous research by Dvir and Shamir (2003) and Burns' (1978), in that "leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of morality and motivation" (Burns, 1978, p. 20). Therefore, the CALM suggests a relationship between the behaviors of contingent reward, articulating a vision, providing a positive role model, and fostering acceptance of group goals and self-efficacy. Student-athletes with a high self-efficacy rating may be able to handle the transformational behaviors of high expectations and intellectual stimulation because they have developed the prerequisite skills, knowledge, and confidence to perform the necessary roles and tasks.

A review of the literature indicates the reciprocal nature of the relationship between self-efficacy and transformational behaviors. The implications for the CALM are that articulating a vision, individualized consideration, and contingent reward are important elements of leader behavior which influence self-efficacy in team members. The leadership behaviors of high expectations and intellectual stimulation may be effective with high self-efficacy team members and less effective with low self-efficacy team members. This finding highlights the importance of coaches getting to know their players, so they can discern whether a player has a high level of confidence or a low level of confidence. Understanding where a player is on this continuum will

help NCAA coaches better understand which behaviors may be most effective in fostering self-efficacy and performance at the individual level.

A scan of the transformational and transactional leadership literature revealed a link between transformational leadership and contingent reward behaviors to task cohesion. Bass et al. (2003) studied military units operating under stable conditions to see if the use of transformational behaviors on the part of military leaders could predict subsequent performance of these units under high stress and uncertainty. The study examined the relationship between transformational leadership and contingent reward with unit cohesion. As mentioned earlier, their study determined that transformational leadership behavior was significantly and positively related to cohesion. Contingent reward leadership was also found to be positively related to cohesion (p. 213). The cohesion measure had task and social aspects to it. Task cohesion aspect relates to the complexity of the tasks taken on by a group and “requires a great deal of coordination and clarity concerning who is responsible for achieving specific targets and goals” (p. 215). These findings are similar to what has been reported above that contingent reward plays an important role in building the foundation for role and task clarity which enables followers to meet expectations. These results offer additional support for the CALM proposal that contingent reward provides task and role clarity for team members.

Additional support for the relationship between transformational leadership and task cohesion were found in a study by Callow et al. (2009) in a sport setting. The Callow et al. (2009) study used the DTLI and found that fostering acceptance of group goals and teamwork, high performance expectations, and individual consideration predicted task cohesion (p. 407). However, previous studies reported earlier indicate that high performance expectations may cause role ambiguity, conflict, and general uncertainty (Podsakoff et al., 1990; Podsakoff et al.,

1996; Asgari et al., 2008). So, taken in the context of the literature review the CALM posits that there is a relationship between task cohesion and articulating a vision, fostering acceptance of group goals, individual consideration, and contingent reward behaviors.

LMX theory helps explain how the coach-player relationship develops over time. The CALM and literature suggest that these relationships help explain the performance and satisfaction level of team members. Wang et al. (2005) found “that LMX helps mediate between transformational leadership and performance (task and OCB)” (p. 429). These findings are consistent with the Gerstner and Day study (1997) that found “LMX is consistently correlated with member job performance, satisfaction (overall and supervisory), commitment, role perceptions, and turnover intentions” (p. 836). The implications for the CALM are that transformational relationships may be significantly “stronger for followers who perceive high-quality exchange relationships with their supervisors” (Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006, p. 336). Therefore, the CALM posits that LMX mediates that relationship between contingent reward and transformational behaviors with individual level outcomes.

Conclusion

The CALM attempts to conceptualize and clarify the dynamic leadership process that occurs within the leader-driven model for NCAA coaches. The discussion demonstrates that environmental factors within the context of the institution influence the CALM behaviors and their relationship with team and individual level outcomes. LMX also plays a significant role in helping to explain the outcomes at the team and individual level by serving as the underlying explanation for the leader behavior-outcome relationship.

One surprising result is the opportunity to provide clarity on the interaction and range of transformational and transactional behaviors as illustrated in the literature by the Full Range

Leadership Model (Bass & Avolio, 1994), Transformational Leadership Inventory (TLI) (Podsakoff et al., 1990), and Differentiated Transformational Leadership Inventory (DTLI) (Hardy et al., 2010). A review of the literature suggests that the CALM behaviors may be placed in three tiers. The four tier one behaviors or “foundation behaviors” (contingent reward, articulating a vision, fostering acceptance of group goals, and providing an appropriate role model) provide coaches four behaviors that form the foundation for the potential of the individual and team. Our second tier behavior or “supporting” behavior would be individual consideration, which appears to be most effective at the individual level. Intellectual stimulation and high expectations is the third tier of behaviors or “developmental behaviors”. The CALM suggests that these behaviors help “stretch” individuals and teams, but potentially only in situations where high quality exchanges exist with coaches and/or team members have a high self-efficacy rating.

Figure 5

FSD Leader Behavior Model



The three tier concept or FSD model (refer to Figure 5) clarifies and conceptualizes the leadership behaviors and when they may be most effective within the challenging and changing context of an academic institution. It is important to acknowledge that the FSD model spells out or classifies a conceptual map for NCAA coaches.

Future Research

A number of avenues exist for future research on the CALM. The primary area would be to test the proposed model to see if it is an accurate conceptualization of the leader-follower relationship in the context of an academic institution. The second test would see if LMX mediates the leadership-outcome relationship. The model could be tested across NCAA division I, II, and III, at large schools and small schools, and public and private. This series of questions would test the model's generalizability across various types of institutions, leaders, and sports. Research is also required to see if the CALM is a good fit for individually oriented sports (golf, tennis, or swimming) and team sports (basketball, football, lacrosse, or ice hockey).

Other areas that could be tested are proposals that were made within the paper:

Proposal #1: At the group level, the behaviors of articulating a vision, providing a role model, and fostering acceptance of group goals are related to team efficacy, OCB, team performance, and social cohesion.

Proposal #2: Contingent reward, articulating a vision, providing an appropriate role model, and fostering acceptance of group goals mediated by LMX lead to high performing teams that are more satisfied.

Proposal #3: Contingent Reward mediated by LMX may also independently influence team member satisfaction.

Proposal #4: Articulating a vision, providing a role model, individual consideration, and contingent reward influence self-efficacy in team members.

Proposal #5: High expectations and intellectual stimulation are more effective with high self-efficacy team members and less effective with low self-efficacy team members.

Proposal #6: Articulating a vision, fostering acceptance of group goals, individual consideration, and contingent reward are related to self-efficacy, individual performance, individual satisfaction, and task cohesion.

In Summary, the CALM attempts to provide a description of the relationship between specific leadership behaviors and outcomes, which are mediated by LMX theory. The proposals listed above attempts to provide a starting point for future research, including testing the validity of the CALM or sub-relationships contained within.

Contributions

This paper offers three distinct contributions to the existing body of research on leadership, specifically regarding transformational and transactional leadership. The first contribution is the CALM which conceptualizes the leadership-outcome relationship within the context of the academic institution and is mediated by LMX theory. The second contribution is providing conceptual clarity to the Full Range Leadership Model (Bass & Avolio, 1994), TLI (Podsakoff et al., 1990), and DTLI (Hardy et al., 2010) on the interaction and range of transformational and transactional leadership behaviors. The final contribution is a byproduct of the CALM. The FSD model provides a conceptualization of the leadership behaviors and when the behaviors may be most effective within the context of the academic institution.

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