Nigerian
Journal of
Social
Psychology

NIGERIAN JOURNAL OF SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY

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LEADERSHIP STYLE AND TOUGHNESS AS PREDICTORS OF PSYCHOLOGICAL WELL-BEING AMONG YOUTH ATHLETES

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Abstract

The study examined Leadership Style and Toughness as predictors of Psychological Well-being Among Youth Athletes a study of selected students from department of psychology and sociological studies, faculty of social sciences and humanities, Ebonyi State University, Abakaliki. Two Hundred (200) Students Comprising (97) Males students and one hundred and three (103) Females students drawn from department of psychology and sociological studies, faculty of social sciences and humanities Ebonyi State university, Abakaliki participated in the study. The participants ages ranges from 19-29 years with mean age of 21.3450. Two instruments were used for data collection they include: leadership scale for sports and Ryffs psychological well being scale. Two hypotheses were tested in the study. Result of analysis showed that psychological well being was positively significantly related to leadership style (r=.25, p<.001); but negatively non-significantly related to age (r=-.08, p>.05) and toughness (r= -.001. p>.05). Age was significantly related to leadership style (r=-.15, p<.01); and negatively non-significantly related to toughness (r= -.03, p>.05). Toughness was not significantly related to leadership style (r=-.03, p>.05). Implications of the findings were stated. Limitations and suggestions/recommendations were made for further studies. However, the first hypothesis which stated that leadership style will not significantly predict psychological well being among youth athletes was rejected based on the result while the second hypothesis which stated that toughness will not significantly predict psychological well-being among youth Athletes was accepted based on the result.

Keywords: *Leadership Style, Toughness, Psychological Wellbeing, Youth Athletes*

Introduction

Physical activity has by many researchers been found to increase the level of subjective well-being and has the ability to energize and produce more positive mood (Fox, 1999). In a popular statement, we can say that "exercise makes you feel good". If this would be the case we might expect that an athlete population report higher levels of subjective well being. However, being an athlete also implies various stress factors, which might impact negatively on well-being such as competitions, demanding training regimes, less time for other activities or social relationships.

Physical activities seem to be highly associated with both physical and mental toughness. Toughness generally refers to withstanding some form of strain which is often characterized physically (Perry, 2016). This shows that the extent to which someone can withstand strain without breaking is effectively how tough the person is Dienstbier (1989,

1991), observed that the first notable relationship between physical and mental toughness by examining physiological arousal when confronted with stress and how within person changes could be observed over time when repeatedly exposed to physical stressors due to a change in character. Dienstbier predicted that exposure to mental challenges/stressors would cause mental toughening.

In recent years, there has been increasing attention by the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) to the importance of supporting the psychological well-being of student-athletes. In 2014, the NCAA Innovations in Research and Practice Grant Program began. It "supports research and data-driven pilot programs designed to enhance student-athlete psychosocial well-being and mental health" (NCAA, 2015, p.1).

Also in 2014, the NCAA published the comprehensive guide mind, Body and Sport: Understanding and Supporting Student-Athlete Mental Wellness (Brown, Hainline, Kroshus, & Wilfert, 2014). However, in these efforts, there has been a lack of specific emphasis on the relationships of coaching behaviour to student-athlete well-being despite that research has related coaching behaviours to a wide range of outcome measures, including intrinsic motivation (e.g., Amorose & Horn, 2001; Reinboth, Duda, & Ntoumanis, 2004) and psychological well-being (e.g., Reinboth, 2004; Vealey, Armstrong, & Comar, 1998).

Some researchers have proposed that the basic universal needs of competence, autonomy and relatedness must be satisfied before well-being can be experience (Ryan & Deci, 2000). Ryan and Deci (2000) argued that contexts that are facilitating autonomy, competence, and relatedness lead to a greater integration of intrinsic motivation. This seems to be of major importance when motivating others in achieving top performance. Notwithstanding, Psychological well-being refers to positive mental health (Edwards, 2005). Research has shown that psychological well-being is a diverse multidimensional concept (MacLeod & Moore, 2000; Ryff, 1989b; Wissing & Van Eeden, 2002), which develops through a combination of emotional regulation, personality characteristics; identity and life experience (Helson & Srivastava, 2001).

Psychological well-being can increase with age, education, extraversion and consciousness and decreases with neuroticism (Keyes et al., 2002). But in terms of gender, research has suggested that there is no significant difference between men and women on measures of psychological well-being (Roothman, Kirsten & Wissing 2003). Furthermore, the perception of physical health and spirituality can mediate the relationship between context and psychological wellbeing (Temane & Wissing, 2006a, 2006b). Psychological well-being or positive mental health has been extensively researched over the last two decades (Conway & Macleod, 2002; Ryff, 1989b; Wising & Van Eeden, 1998). Various studies have demonstrated the positive effect of physical activity on psychological well being and psychological well-being on sporting performance (Edwards, Edwards & Basson, 2004; Edwards, Ngcobo, Edwards, & Palavar, 2005; Hayes & Ross, 1986; Scully, Kremer, Meade, Graham & Dudgeon, 1998; Weinberg & Gould, 2007).

Aspects of sports training can however also have a detrimental effect on positive mental health; most notably physical overtraining in the form of addiction can lead to a decrease in psychological well-being. Generally peak or optimum physical training is associated with variable effects on health and optimum performance, with moderate training typically enhancing health above performance and peak training enhancing performance above health. With psychological well-being an essential component of general life, health (World Health Organization, 1946), sport and performance, it is important that variables which could

potentially increase or decrease psychological well-being be thoroughly researched and investigated. It is however challenging, to define leadership as there is no universal definition of what leadership entails because it can mean different things to different people. However, in perhaps the most widely used definition across domains; Northouse (2007) defined leadership as "a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal". This definition is valuable because it includes specific components that are crucial for leadership to exist. One such component is that the individual has influence over others: A person cannot be a leader if they cannot influence others. So while every member of a team has the potential to take on a leadership role, not everyone does (Loughead, HardY, & Eys, 2006). For example, athletes can take on an informal leadership role within the team by motivating team members towards a goal, however if they fell that their motivating actions will not make a difference, they will take no actions towards this role.

Furthermore, even when individuals are assigned as leaders of their small group it does not mean that they will be effective, nor are assigned leaders necessarily the most influential member of a group (Glenn & Horn, 1993; Northouse, 2007). This is important because when leaders are selected there are a number of things that need to be taken into consideration, such as their ability to communicate and exert influence over others. While sport is an excellent context for youth to learn leadership skills, these skills are not learned simply by participating but instead must be taught intentionally (Gould & Voelker, 2012). Leaders may be considered effective when their group is high performing, when there is good group functioning, and when individual members have a positive experience within the group (e.g., desire to return, satisfaction, adherence, etc) (Bass, 1990; Crozier, Loughead, & Munroe-Chandler, 2013; Price & Weiss, 2013). In order to be effective, leaders must address numerous fundamental leadership responsibilities. These include defining collective goals and strategies for how the team will accomplish those goals (Northouse, 2007).

Amorose and Anderson- Butcher (2015) extended the research on autonomy supportive coaching behaviours by examining them together with controlling coaching behaviours and testing both the independent effects and interactions among 301 male and female adolescent athletes who played a variety of school-based sports in the Midwestern United States. Participants completed questionnaires designed to assess coaching behaviours, need satisfaction, sport motivation, and burnout. Hierarchical regression analyses indicated that autonomy-supportive and controlling coaching behaviours significantly predicted athletes' motivation for sport. Positive motivational effects increases with perceptions of autonomy support, especially when combined with lower controlling behaviours. The best motivational outcomes occurred when autonomy support was relatively high and controlling behaviours were relatively low. Amorose and Anderson-Butcher advocated for coaching education that teaches how to increase autonomy-supportive behaviours and decrease controlling behaviours with the goal of increasing positive and decreasing negative outcomes. They indicated that such programs have been developed in physical education while coaching education interventions are rare.

A study by Tsorbatzoudis, Barkoukis, and Lordanoglou (1997) looked at possible differences between individual and team sports coaches' perceptions. The sample of the study consisted of 220 coaches of different individual and team sports. Sixty-two coached soccer, 13 rhythmic gymnastics, 15 swimming, 18 tennis, 10 track and field, 8 gymnastics, 10 martial arts, 10 volleyball, 8 basketball, 2 handball, aerobics, skiing and body-building, 1 boxing and 1 wrestling. Fifty-six coaches did not report their sport. The subjects completed the coach's version of the LSS, which consisted of 40 items describing the five aspects of leader behaviour. From these items, 13 were used to describe Training and Instruction, 9 Democratic Behaviour,

5 Autocratic Behaviour, 8 Social Support, and 5 Positive Feedback. The coaches rated their perceived behaviour on a five point Likert scale ranging from 1 (never) to 5 (always). The results of the study showed that coaches of individuals sports tended to be more democratic than the coaches of team sports. Another study by Mondello and Janelle (2001) looked at the leadership styles of head coaches and assistant coaches at the University of Florida. According to the National Sports rankings, the University of Florida's athletic program has ranked among the nation's top 10 programs for 16 consecutive years (1983/84-1998/99), along with ranking as the best combined men's and women's program in the Southeastern Conference in 9 of the previous 11 years. Thirteen head coaches and 24 assistant coaches 15 participated in the study, and they each completed the 40 item LSS. Leadership styles of the head coaches and assistant coaches were analyzed with five separate analyses of variance (ANOVAs).

The results showed that no main effects or interactions were identified for autocratic behavior, democratic behaviour, or training and instruction. Under social support, a significant effect emerged for coaching status. Head coaches exhibited more social support behaviour than did assistant coaches (M=24/63, SD=5.02). Researchers have shown that the many factors are directly affected by coaching behaviours and more specifically, leadership. Also, the type of leadership behaviour displayed by the head coach can have a significant effect on the performance and psychological well being of the athlete, as mentioned earlier Horn, T., (2002). Case (1998) suggested that although leadership behaviours is often discussed, it is one of the least understood aspects of coaching. More so effective leadership can help an organization or team develop new directions and promote change towards proposed objectives Bennis, W., & Nanus, (1985) Jung and Avolio (1999) results concluded that the same leadership style can be perceived differently and can have different effects on motivation and performance for followers from different cultural groups. For example, a transformational leader's encouraging followers to come up with long-term ideas that challenged the current state of the school; it is within this intimate coaching relationship that the leader identifies and supports the strength, weakness, and needs of the follower Cadmus (2006).

Each member of your team has a potential for personal greatness; the leader's job is to help them achieve it Jambor, E. A., & Zhang, (1997). It has yet to be determined which leadership style correlates to successful performance outcomes in sport Wooden J. R et al (2005). College coaches assume diverse leadership roles including teacher/instructor, organizer/planner, counselor, communicator, and motivator Gould, D. (1987). College coaches often assume dual roles as both teachers and coaches. They must be able to provide instruction, guide skill development, and offer performance Nanus, (1985) Jung and Avolio (1999) results concluded that the same leadership style can be perceived differently and can have different effects on motivation and performance for followers form different cultural groups. For example, a transformational leader's encouraging followers to come up with long-term ideas that challenged the current state of the school; it is within this intimate coaching relationship that the leader identifies and supports the strength, weakness, and needs of the follower Cadmus (2006).

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success of their athletes and athletic teams, influencing factors such as their athlete's self-esteem Barnet, N. P., et al (1992) skill learning Chelladuria (1984) mental development Gould, D. (2002). Sport performance satisfaction Horn, T., (2002), as well as performance outcomes Home, T., & Carron (1985). Since leadership style affect not only the athletes' physical performance but also their psychological well-being, it is important for an effective coach to become attuned to the many personal and individual needs of their athletes. Thus, in addition to the technical skills of their sport, effective coaches may be required to occupy many roles within the lives of their athletes.

These may include being a leaders, follower, teacher, role model, limit setter, psychologist? Counselor and for mentor (ANSHEL, 2003). Effective coaches are those who are prepared to meet the individual needs of their athletes and realize that they can make a difference in the team performance by improving their own coaching skills and understanding the effect that their behaviour can have on their athletes (ANSHEL 2003).

In fact, it has been proposed that athletes are more satisfied when their preferred leadership behaviours are similar to how they perceive their coach's leadership behaviour (Andrew, 2009). This suggests that an athlete will feel more fulfilled in their team involvement if his or her coach's leadership behaviours are similar to how the athlete prefers them to be. This is especially true for the dimensions of training and instruction and the two decision-making behaviours (i.e., autocratic and democratic behaviours), which are the most salient dimensions for coach leadership (Andrew, 2009; Loughead & Hardy, 2005).

Although both democratic and autocratic decision making styles are possible for coaches to adopt, athletes typically describe coach decision-making behaviours as being autocratic (Loughead & Hardy, 2005). However, the predominance of autocratic styles among coaches is concerning for athletes, who commonly prefer more democratic approaches and are likely to be more satisfied under such circumstances (Andrew, 2009). Whereas behaviours displayed by the coach can have an impact on athletes' satisfaction, the overall relationship between the coach and athlete can also have an effect.

Research based on the coach-athlete dyad suggests that subjective well-being and performance can be enhanced by a positive coach-athlete relationship that includes closeness (i.e., emotional connectedness that can include trust and support), commitment (i.e., desire to maintain the relationship), complementarily (i.e., cooperation and affinitive interactions that occur mostly in training and practice), and co-orientation (i.e., shared knowledge and understanding of the other's roles and values: Jowett & Felton, 2014).

These relationship components are important over-and above leadership style because they may generate positive perceptios of the group environment, such as collective efficacy (I-lampson & Jowett, 2014) and cohesion (Jowett & Chaundy, 2004). Clearly, appropriate coaching behaivours not only lead to improved player satisfiaciton and perofmance, but are likely to enhance coach athlete relationships and group environments more generally. The positive leadership outcomes were also perceived to be greater when the athletes had high cognitive and affect-based trust in the leader. This is not surprising, as the same transformational leadership behaviours that were found to lead to positive leadership outcomes were also the transformational behaviours that led to an increase in cognitive and affect –base trust. Furthermore, there have been a number of previous studies that have found that trust in the leader is related to a number of positive outcomes such as organizational citizenship behaviours, psychological well-being, and a positive attitude and behaviours (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Kelloway et al., 2012; Podsakoff et al., 1990).

As for the intentions to return findings, it appears that trust in the team captain is somewhat important in youth athletes' intentions to return to the team the following season. This is especially true if the athlete has high cognitive –based trust in his or her team captain. Therefore, it appears to be more of the perception of the leader's skills or competence that will draw a youth athlete back to playing with the same team captain, rather than their emotional connectedness to them. While previous literature has not yet considered how an athletes' trust in their peer leaders can impact their intentions to return to the team the following season, lack of trust in senior leaders has been cited as a reason why employees leave their job (Yazinski, 2009).

In particular, the transformational component of idealized influence (attributed) was significant for every relationship (i.e., both cognitive-and affect-based trust as well as all of the positive leadership outcomes). This suggests that idealized influence (attributed) may be the most important leadership behaviour for youth sport peer leaders. From the results it would appear that the second greatest transformational component for youth leaders to display would be intellectual stimulation. While this component was only a significant contributor to trust through cognitive – based trust.

As stated by Parham (2005), sport is a unique environment, with sport psychology being unequivocally context-dependent and, as 'context is everything' for the effective practicing of sport psychology, people need to be considered in context in order to fully understand their behaviour. By expanding the research on gender and cultural diversity, not only can sport psychology aid in challenging people's world view along with advancing and enriching the scholarship, professional and public interest, but it can also promote sport for all and ensure that the expertise and benefits of the discipline are not limited to the elite sport participants (Gill, 2007).

Vealey et al. (1998) investigated the relationships of perceive coaching behaviours to competitive anxiety and burnout among 149 female college athletes who played basketball or softball at Division I, II, or III colleges in the Midwestern United States. The questionnaire include measures of coaching behaviours, sport anxiety, and athlete burnout. Regression and correlation analyses indicated that athlete's perceptions of coaching behaviours were related to burnout but not to competitive anxiety. Perceptions of coaches as less empathetic, more autocratic, and more emphasizing of dispraise over praise and winning over athlete development were related to athlete burnout measures of emotional/physical exhaustion, negative self-concept, feelings of devaluation, and psychological withdrawal.

Perceptions of coaches as more empathetic, less autocratic, and more emphasizing of praise over dispraise were related to athlete perceptions of accomplishment and congruent coach-athlete expectations. Vealey et al. (1998). Explained the finding of coaching behaviours being unrelated to competitive anxiety as possibly due to the measures of competitive anxiety in this study representing a more enduring quality (i.e. trait versus situational anxiety, whereas burnout was more representative of interactions between individual characteristics and aspects of the sport context) Men and women have generally scored differently on personality measures since the beginning of personality psychology (Bird, 1940; Stogdill, 1948). Research has found this to hold true for locus of control, competitiveness, goal-orientation and win-orientation as well. In a study of male and female volleyball captains, male athletes were found to be significantly more internal, and captains were found to be more internal in general (Aguglia & Sapienza, 1984). Also, in a study of college students, women tended to be significantly more external in their locus of control (Rao & Murthy, 1984).

Statement of Problem

Experts proposed that some form of psychological well-being is required for psychological skills to be effective. Meanwhile in the world of sport today researcher are very such interested in identifying those factors that is capable of affecting the athlete's performance and their general psychological well-being in sport activities. However. Vealey et al (1998). Found that the Perceptions of coaches by the athletes as more empathetic, less autocratic, and more emphasizing of praise over dispraise were related to athlete perceptions of accomplishment and congruent coach-athlete expectations as well as their general psychological well-being but not much has been done in area of leadership styles and gender on the psychological well-being of youth athletes hence the following questions are raised:

i.   Will leadership style be a significant predictor of psychological well being of youth athletes?
ii.   Will toughness be a significant predictor of psychological well-being of youth athletes?

Purpose of the Study

Research conducted by Goris (2006) with Belgian youth, indicated that need-supportive leaders/coaches produce athletes with superior psychological well-being, greater progress and heightened performance. Need-supportive leadership entails a leader satisfying the three fundamental psychological needs for autonomy, competence and relatedness. Furthermore, iii view of Gill's (2007) and Ram, et al.'s (2004) emphasis that a strong void exists in toughness and leadership sport-related research, hence the study tends investigate whether leadership style will significantly predict psychological well being among youth athletes.

Theoretical Framework

Self-Determination Theory (Deci & Ryan, 2000)

One productive area of research related to leadership styles and its impact on athlete well-being is based on self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 2000) and its relationship to intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Vallerand, 2000).

Self-determination theory holds that the extent to which individuals feel both self-determining (having personal control and choice) and competent is related to their and Horn motivation (i.e., participation in an activity for reasons such as fun or the personal satisfaction of versus extrinsic reasons such as material rewards approval). Using a correlation design, Amorose (2001) investigated the relationships of collegiate athletes' perceptions of coaching behaviours to changes in intrinsic motivation from pre-to post-season in athletes' first year of eligibility.

The participants were 72 male and female Division 1 athletes from a variety of sports. They completed the sport oriented version of the Intrinsic Motivation Inventory (McAuley, Duncan, & Tammen, 1989) as pre-and post-measures and the Leadership Scale for Sports (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1978, 1980) as a post-measure. There was a positive relationship between the coaches' provision of training and instruction and increases in athletes' intrinsic motivation Amorose and Horn (2001) also suggested that a coaching leadership style emphasizing training and instruction may convey beliefs of control and competence regarding athletes' performance, thus leading to increased intrinsic motivation. In the same study, the researchers also found that increases in athletes' intrinsic motivation were negatively associated with coaches' autocratic behaviours. Such behaviours reflect a leadership style stressing the coaches' personal authority for decisions regarding the team, whereas a

democratic leadership style encourages the input of athletes in decision making for the team. However, Amorose and Horn (2001) explained results as consistent with self determination theory. The lower the frequency of autocratic coaching behaviours, the more self-determination and increasing intrinsic motivation we might expect among athletes.

In another study rooted in self-determination theory, Reinboth et al. (2004) investigated coaching behaviours and their relationships to intrinsic need satisfaction and psychological and physical well-being among 265 British, male, adolescent soccer and cricket players. On one occasion before or after a practice, the participants completed a questionnaire including a variety of measures comprising the variables of interest. Using structural equation modeling, Reinboth et al., (2004) found that athletes' perceptions of coaches' behaviours of autonomy support, mastery focus, and social support were associated with athletes' satisfaction of the intrinsic needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness, respectively. The needs for autonomy and competence were, in turn, related to two measures of psychological well-being: subjective vitality and intrinsic satisfaction/interest in sport.

Based on these findings, Reinboth et al. (2004) suggested that coaches can act to foster a culture that promotes intrinsic need satisfaction and thereby well-being. Coaches can promote autonomy by offering athletes choices and providing rationales for expectations. They can promote competence by emphasizing effort and self-referenced improvement in evaluating athletes. Amorose and Anderson-Butcher (2015) extended the research on autonomy supportive coaching behaviours by examining them together with controlling coaching behaviours and testing both the independent effects and interactions among 301 male and female adolescent athletes who played a variety of school-based sports in the Midwestern United States. Participants complete questionnaires designed to assess coaching behaviours, need satisfaction, sport motivation, and burnout. Hierarchical regression analyses indicated that autonomy-supportive and controlling coaching behaviours significantly predicted athletes' motivation for sport. Positive motivational effects increased with perceptions of autonomy support, especially when combined with lower controlling behaviours. The best motivational outcomes occurred when autonomy support was relatively high and controlling behaviours were relatively low. Amorose and Anderson-Butcher advocated for coaching education that teaches how to increase autonomy-supportive behaviours and decrease controlling behaviours with the goal of increasing positive and decreasing negative outcomes. They indicated that such programs have been developed in physical education while coaching education interventions are rare.

Transformational Approach (Bass and Burns, 1985)

The transformational leadership approach (Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978) is a relatively contemporary idea that was developed in the business literature. The essential feature of the approach is that the focus of leadership study is directed on the relationship between leaders and subordinates and the interactions of various behaviours between the two groups which goes a long way in determining their level of psychological well-being. Overall, the approach is represented by several different theories that possess this element (e.g., leader member exchange theory, Graen & Cashman, 1975; implicit leadership theory [ILT], Lord, Binning, Rush, & Thomas, 1978 Lord, De Vader, & Alliger, 1984; Lord, Foti, & De Vader, 1986). As the followers in the leader-follower relationship began to command more attention, additional insight was gained into how effective leadership can be created. For example, in the ILT approach, leadership is defined through the perceptions of followers. In other words, the behaviour of leaders is judged solely on comparisons with the expectations or cognitive representations that followers have formed of what type of leadership they would like to

experience and this "schema" is based on past behaviours and know traits of the leader. Kenney, Schwartz-Kenney, and Blascovich (1996), utilizing the ILT framework, examined preconceived expectations of followers for both appointed leaders and elected leaders judged to be worthy of influence. Participants were asked to imagine being in a situation in which the leader was elected or appointed and then posed the question, "what characteristics and /or behaviours does this person have to exhibit in order for you to allow him or her to influence your attitudes, beliefs, and behaviours?" (pp. 1131). Participants generated 108 behaviours/attitudes for the appointed-leader situation and 131 behaviours/attitudes for the elected leader situation. Researcher were able to group the two sets of information such that 14 basic level behavioural categories were created for the appointed-leader condition, including being funny, caring, interested, truthful, open to others' ideas, imaginative, knowledgeable, responsible, active, determined, influential, in command, aggressive, and finally speaking well.

Nineteen basic level behavioural categories were created for the elected leader condition, including being tall, clean-cut, open to others' ideas, friendly caring, honest, enthusiastic, humorous, popular, knowledgeable, responsible independent, influential, determined, aggressive, in command, taking risks, speaking well, and respecting group members. Evidence from this study supported the notion that followers can identify leadership behaviours they perceive to be effective and this information can then be used to define effective leadership. A transformational leadership approach has been applied to the sport context in the past (Case, 1998; Charbonneau, Barling, & Kelloway, 2001). Charbonneau et al., collected data on 123 males' and 45 females' responses to charisma (e.g., optimistic view of future), intellectual stimulation (e.g., utilizes different perspectives indecision asking), and individualized consideration (e.g., aware of various needs and abilities of athletes) scales on the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire – Form 5X (MLQ; Bass & Avolio, 1995). The MLQ measures athletes' perceptions of coaching leadership, and researchers used this measure to test to see if the scales of the measure correlated with the intrinsic motivation level and/or overall performance of athletes. Conclusions of leadership ability are made through the perceptions of followers.

Results showed the charisma factor of coaches did not correlate with measure of performance and did not seem to influence the intrinsic motivation of athletes. Intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration were, however, related to intrinsic motivation. Overall, transformational leadership as measured through athletes' perceptions of a coach's charisma, intellectual stimulation abilities, and individualized consideration for athletes, was found to account for 50% of the variance associated with intrinsic motivation, which in turn accounted for 65% of the variance in sport performance. Therefore, effective leadership can be defined through athletes' perceptions of what enhances their own intrinsic motivation and again, intrinsic motivation was found to be closely related to successful performance. So the focus here remained on the subordinates' judgments of effective leadership and what they felt could raise their intrinsic motivation to successfully execute sport skills.

The Charismatic theory of leadership: (Yurl, 1993)

The charismatic theory of leadership, (House, 1977; Yurl, 1993). This theory, and similar contemporary theories (e.g., attribution theory of charismatic leadership, Conger & Kanungo, 1987; visionary theories of leadership, Bennis & Nanus, 1985) focuses on leader relationships with subordinates and charismatic features of leaders at the top of organizational structures. In essence, this theory combines trait (e.g., charisma of leader) and transformational (e.g., relationship between leader and subordinates) components in order to explain leader effectiveness. House and Shamir (1993) have identified leader behaviours under the umbrella

of this theory that seem to significantly contribute to effective leadership and they include behaviours that involve visionary, empowering, role-modeling, image-building, and risk-taking elements. Aditya, House, and Kerr (2000) reported charismatic leaders are also thought to be self-confident and have a strong need for power, enthusiasm behind the morality of their beliefs, a risk-taking, and the ability to overcome adversity. Neocharismatic/value-based leadership theories represent the new form of the charismatic leadership theory. Although the new theories contain the same general idea as the traditional approach, specifically that leadership can be defined through the charismatic elements of the leader and how subordinates react to these features, new ideas have been introduced.

For example, Howell and House (1992) identified two dimensions of charismatic leadership personalized and socialized. The personalized dimension involves more negative qualities such as self-aggrandizing, exploitative, and authoritarian traits and the socialized dimensions refers to more positive qualities such as altruistic, collectivistic, and egalitarian traits. As researchers began to examine these contemporary approaches more closely, specifications were made regarding the motivation behind why charismatic leaders desire to lead. Overall, research in the area of charismatic leadership has been dwarfed by the amount of theory-generation completed so future studies will have to determine the validity and usefulness of the approach, especially the contemporary theory.

Yukhymenko-Lescroart, Brown, and Paskus (2015) examined the relationships of ethical and abusive coaching behaviours to well-being among 19,920 NCAA students athletes from all 24 sports and three divisions of the NCAA and from 609 NCAA member institutions. Data for this study were collected from a subset of items included on a large scale national study conducted by the NCAA on the academic, athletic, and social experiences of NCAA student athletes. Variables of interest in the Yukhymenko-Lescoart et. Al., (2015). Study were athletes' college choice satisfaction, perceptions of the team's inclusion climate, willingness to cheat to win, ethical leadership, and abusive coaching behaviour. Correlational and regression analyses indicated that ethical coaching leadership was positively related to perceptions of a team inclusion climate and college choice satisfaction. Abusive coaching behaviour was positively related to willingness to cheat to win.

The researcher noted that the pattern of results was such that the positive (ethical) coaching behaviour predicted the positive outcome variables while the negative (abusive) coaching behaviour predicted the negative outcome variables. They suggested that future research expand to include exploration of other outcome variables to better understand the differential effects of positive and negative coaching behaviours. Yukhymenko-Lescroart et al. also encouraged the development of educational interventions for coaches to promote positive behaviour and avoid negative ones.

They pointed out that this might not only benefit student-athlete well-being but increase retention and graduation rates. Some researchers have used a qualitative approach to explore coaching behaviours and their effects on athletes, as well as coaches' reasons for behaviour change.

According to Jeffrey Coleman (2012) in his work titled "a functional model of team leadership for Sport". The purpose of this study was to provide a new framework of team leadership in sport. More specifically, the aim was to examine a functional leadership paradigm in sport where full range of leadership behaviours by the coach and by the collective athletes influence team cohesion, and thereby increase the likelihood of team goal achievement. Data were utilized from 518 NCAA Division 1-111 athletes from 36 softball teams and 13 baseball

teams. The participants completed the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Avolio & Bass, 2004), the Team Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Avolio & Bass, 1996), the Group Environment Questionnaire (Carron, Brawley, & Widmeyer, 1985), and the Team Outcome Questionnaire that was created for this study. Structural equation modeling was used to assess the relationships among the variables in the model. The results indicated that the original hypothesized model did not fit the data, but an acceptable alternative model was found which included transformational leadership and two transactional leadership variables as three separate leadership styles influencing perceptions of cohesion. It was discovered that transformational leadership had a significant positive effect on cohesion, which in turn appeared to have a significant positive effect on goal achievement. The author discusses a potentially fruitful direction in the examination of team leadership, within which the first step would involve a closer examination of measurement of coach leadership, team leadership, and cohesion.

Stirling and Kerr (2013) utilized open-ended interviews and grounded theory to study retired, elite athletes' experiences of emotionally abusive coaching behaviours. They chose this methodology based on the lack of available research on the effects of emotionally abusive coaching, as this form of study allows for the emergence of themes of data and can thus be beneficial in both generating understanding in a relatively new research area and in pointing to directions for future research. Stirling and Kerr defined emotional abuse as "a pattern of deliberate non-contact behaviours within a critical relationship between an individual and caregiver that has the potential to be harmful" (p. 87), and they clarified a critical relationship as one that "has significant influence over an individual's sense of safety, trust, and fulfillment of needs" (p. 87). Emotionally abusive coaching behaviours may include physical actions such as throwing objects, verbal actions such as insulting and humiliating athletes, and denial of support such as ignoring athletes. Stirling and Kerr found that all 14 athletes in their study reported experiencing emotionally abusive coaching behaviour. Many of the athletes reported negative psychological effects. Twelve athletes reported low mood resulting from coaching behaviours such as criticism and yelling. One of those was quoted as saying, "He (coach) started criticizing me personally about things that he knew nothing about, about my schoolwork, about my friends, that's when I started to feel like s-t all the time" (Stirling & Kerr, 2013, p. 93).

Seen athletes reported low self-efficacy related to insulting and ignoring behaviours from coaches. Others reported negative psychological effects included anger, low self-esteem poor body image, and anxiety. Stirling and Kerry (2013) further found that many athletes also reported negative effects on training stemming from emotionally abusive coaching behaviours. Seven athletes reported decreased motivation from coaches' yelling behaviours. One was quoted as saying, "You lose your own personal boost to train when you have someone constantly yelling at you" (Stirling & Kerr, 2013, p. 94).

Other athletes reported negative training effects including reduced enjoyment, impaired focus, and difficulties with skill acquisition that they attributed to emotionally abusive coaching behaviours such as insulting comments and emotional outbursts. Seven athletes also reported negative effects on performance that they related to emotionally abusive coaching behaviours. One was quoted as saying, "I always felt that I could have done even better without this (abuse)" (Stirling & Kerr, 2013, P. 95). While these negative effects on psychological wellbeing, training and performance reported by so many of the athletes are striking, it must be noted that some athletes attributed some positive effects to emotionally abusive coaching practices. For example, three indicated that successful performances were more rewarding after enduring abusive coaching. It must also be noted that some reported positive side effects

relating to abusive coaching behaviour does not make abuse acceptable. Some athletes may be able to cope with abusive coaching and still have some positive outcomes. With this study, Stirling and Kerr provided an excellent foundation in beginning to understand athletes' perceptions of emotionally abusive coaching behaviours; however, they acknowledged it as exploratory and suggested future research that will help to investigate more specifically and comprehensively which coaching behaivours are associated with which outcomes.

Notwithstanding the need for more research, based on their findings of athletes' perceived negative effects of emotionally abusive coaching, they also called for measures to protect athletes from abuse. Stirling (2013) also utilized a qualitative approach to study coaches' perceptions of their own prior use of abusive coaching behaviours. The participants were seven male and two female coaches at the national or international level of competition in Canada. Data from in-depth interviews revealed origins of emotional abuse and reasons coaches stopped these behaviours. Five of the nine coaches interviewed indicated that they had used emotionally abusive coaching behaviours, which included making verbally demeaning comments and physical aggression such as kicking equipment and dragging an athlete across and out of a training area.

Coaches' reflections on the reasons for these behaviours identified two origins that were categorized as expressive or instrumental. The expressive origin of emotional abuse describes behaviours that arise from a coach's personal lack of emotional control, and the abusive behaviours serve as a means to express anger, frustration, stress, or other affect with which the coach is not coping effectively. One of the coaches described this by saying that his frustration and stress over poor performances led him to verbally abusive behaviours even though he recognized that his behaviour was inappropriate. The instrumental origin of emotional abuse refers to emotionally abusive behaviours that are intentionally used to achieve a goal. The coaches who described this type of abuse indicated that they believed their abusive behaviours were consequences that would lead to development of the athlete.

Stirling (2013) found that all of the coaches who reported using abusive coaching behaviours indicated their beliefs were due to normalization of these behaviours within the sport context, for reasons including their own experiences of abusive behaviours by parents or coaches, other exposure to this behaviour, lack of education regarding other coaching strategies, and athletes' acceptance of abusive coaching behaviours. Despite their use of abusive coaching, coaches expressed care for athletes and feelings of closeness in the coach-athlete relationship. All of the coaches who admitted to prior abusive coaching behaviours indicated that they no longer used them at the time of the study. Reasons given for changing included self-reflection, harmful effects brought to their attention, coaching experience, and education. Four coaches mentioned realization that their abusive behaviours were contributing to ineffective athletic performances. One coach described changing his behaviour after being told by an athlete's parent that the athlete no longer wanted to play the sport because of the coach's behaviour. Some coaches attributed changing their behaviour as they gained coaching experience and learned other motivational strategies.

Zahra Rajabi (2012), in his study relationship of coach's leadership style and player performance outcomes surveyed the relationship of coach's Leadership Style and player performance outcomes. The research was descriptive. With a population which consisted of sport coaches Tabriz city of Iran in 2011. The sample was selected suing by convenience sampling. The instruments for data collection included demographics questionnaire, leadership Scale for Sport. The data were analyzed using Spearman's rank correlation coefficient (p=0.05). The result showed that there is a significant positive relationship between Training

and instruction and Democratic with wining, but there is no significant relationships between Autocratic, Social support and Positive feedback with wining. However, a significant negative relationship was observed between Autocratic, Social support and Positive feedback with failure.

Toughness and psychological well being

The ultimate aim of athletes and coaches is the positive impact of toughness on performance, which manifests in the psychological well-being of athletes. Gucciardi, Hanton, Gordon, Mallett and Temby (2015) defined mental toughness as a personal capacity to produce consistently high level of subjective or objective performance. Researcher, acknowledge that mental toughness is a key component of athletic performance (Connaughton and Hanton, 2009). Toughness could be classified into physical toughness and mental toughness but they work together to produce better performance. Mental toughness model known as 4Cs model: challenge, commitment, control and confidence was proposed to understand the personality trait that determines in large part how people deal with challenge, stressors and pressure, irrespective of prevailing circumstances (Clough, Earle & Sewell, 2002). However, well being supersedes every other impact of sports and other life endeavours, hence, researchers revealed that mental toughness is related to increases sleep quality and psychological functioning (Brand, Kalak, Gerber, Clough, Lemola, Piishe, Holsboer, Trachsler, 2014.

Research on the relationships between leadership style and athlete well-being is, still in early stages, but the existing body of work represents a strong foundation in beginning to understand these relationships, and it has suggested many directions for future research and ideas for coaching education and evaluation that could benefit both coaches and athletes. Studies based on self-determination theory (Amorose & Anderson-Butcher, 2007, 2015; Amorose & Horn, 2001; Conroy & Coatsworth, 2007) have been fruitful, and results have consistently found autonomy – supportive coaching behaviours to be positively related to positive outcomes while controlling coaching behaviours have been negatively associated to positive outcomes. Stirling and Kerr (2013) studied retired athletes' perceptions of emotionally abusive coaching and found that it had negative effects on athletes' psychological well-being, training, and performance.

Hypotheses

- Leadership style will not be a statistically significant predictor of the psychological well being of youth athletes.
- Toughness will not be a statistically significant predictor of the psychological well being of youth athletes.

This study based on transformational leadership approach (Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978) is a relatively contemporary idea that was developed in the business literature. The theory believes that people are motivated by the task that must be performed. The more structured an organization is, the greater the success. People give their all to the organization which can be their primary need and they will place their individual interests second. There is an emphasis on cooperation and collective action and stress is included in the long-range goals of an organization. Individuals exist within the context of the community, rather than competing with each other. Accordingly, tasks are designed to be challenging and desirous. The whole system adjusts to place the community above individual egos.

Method

Participants

The participants for the study are made up of 200 undergraduate student athletes selected from Ebonyi State University, Abakaliki. Development of Psychology and Sociological studies psychology option, which constituted the sample for the study. The participants were drawn from 200-300 levels in the department. Their age range was between 19-29 years with a mean age of 23.5 years and standard deviation of 6.5. All the respondents' volunteered to participate in the study as they have been representing their departments during the inter-departmental and inter-faculty football competitions.

Instruments

Two instrument(s) were used in data collection.

i.   Leadership scale for Sports
ii.   Ryff's psychological well-being scale.

Leadership Scale for Sports (LSS; Chelladurai & Saleh, 1980).

This scale was developed to measure five dimensions of leader behaviour. Two of the dimensions (the Democratic and Autocratic Behaviour subscales) assess the coach's style of decision-making (i.e., for the degree to which coaches allow their athletes to participate in sport-related decisions). A third subscale (Training and Instructional Behaviour) assesses coaches' focus or emphasis on hard and strenuous training, skill instruction, and sport tactics. The fourth and fifth subscales (Social Support and Positive Feedback) assess coaches' tendencies to create a positive and supportive team atmosphere and to provide positive and encouraging performance feedback.

Three versions of the LSS were developed (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1980) to assess coaches' perceptions of their own behaviour, athletes' perceptions of their coaches' behaviour, and athletes' preferences for their coaches' behaviour. All three versions include 40 items divided into the five subscales. For the preferred version, the item stem is: "I would prefer my coach to" and the response format for each item includes five choices (ranging from never to always).

The instrument was validated by my supervisor using face validity and also the instrument was subjected to test and retest method of reliability using Pearson Product Moment Correlation Analysis.

Ryff's Psychological Well-being Scale

Ryff's (1989b) standardized psychological well-being scale was used as an outcome measure to assess the teams on the six dimensions of psychological well-being such as autonomy, personal growth, environmental mastery, purpose in life, positive relations with others and self-acceptance. The scale was initially constructed as a twenty items questionnaire and has been standardized in 3, 9 and 14-item forms.

The instrument was validated by my supervisor using face validity and also the instrument was subjected to test and retest method of reliability using Pearson Product Moment Correlation analysis.

Procedure

With authority letter to conduct this research from the HOD of Psychology and Sociological Studies, the researcher got approval to conduct this study, the coach of psychology and sociological studies department before gaining participants' permission to participate. Participants were informed verbally of the general nature of the study and the voluntary nature of participation was discussed before the start of a sports science lecture. Anonymity and confidentiality were guaranteed. 200 copies of questionnaire were administered to the participants simultaneously and collected immediately after the duration of 30 minutes. Out of the 200 copies of questionnaire administered, 180 copies were used for data analysis while 20 copies were rejected for wrong filling.

Design/Statistics

The data collected were analyzed using Correlation statistics to establish the prediction of leadership style and toughness on the psychological well-being of youth athletes.

Result

Table 1: Means, standard deviations, and correlations for age, leadership style, and toughness on psychological well-being

S/N	Variable	*M*	*SD*	Age	Leadership	Gender	Psych-well being
1	Age	21.35	2.36	-			
2	Leadership	71.27	14.38	-.15**	-		
3	Toughness	1.52	50	-.03	-.03	-	
4	Psych-well being	37.48	7.19	-.08	.25***	-.001	-

Note: **=p<.01 (two-tailed), ***=p<.01 (two – tailed).

Result of correlation table show that psychological well being was positively significantly related to leadership style (r = .25, p< .001); but negatively non-significantly related to age (r = -.08, p > .05) and toughness (r = -.001, p > .05). Age was significantly related to leadership style (r = -.15, p<.01); and negatively non-significantly related to toughness (r = -.03, p>.05). Toughness was not significantly related to leadership style (r = -.03, p>.05).

Table 2: Showing the prediction of 'psychological well being' from control variable-age, leadership style and toughness

	R	*R2*	*R2Δ*	B	Beta(β)	T
Model 1						
Age	.08	.01	.01	-.2.5	-.08	-1.17
Model 2						
Leadership	.25***	.06***	.06***	.12	.24	3.46***
Model 3						
Toughness	.25	.06	.00	.06	.00	.06

Table 2 result indicated that the demographic (age) did not significantly play role on psychological well being of student athletes (β = -.08, t = -1.17). Leadership (β = .24, t = 3.46, p<.001) entered in model two of the equation significantly played role on psychological well being student athletes. It however accounted for 6% variance in the explanation of psychological well being student athletes (R2Δ = .06, p< .001). Thus better leadership style appears to translate to increase in psychological well being of youth athletes. But toughness

entered in model three of the equation was a non-significant predictor of psychological well being of youth athletes (β = .001, t = .06).

Discussion

The finding of this current research, suggests that both leadership style and toughness statistically significant related psychological well being of youth athletes. The first hypothesis showed that psychological well being of youth athletes was positively significant related to leadership style. Hence, the first hypothesis is not confirmed. Our results indicate that a leader's style of leadership is significantly related to their psychological well being. The result from the analysis in chapter four shows that leadership style has a mean score of 71.27 which means leadership style is significantly related to psychological well being of youth athletes. These studies extend our understanding of the positive effects of transformational leadership, and practical application of the current results suggests that leadership training in this area could be associated with an increase in the psychological well-being of youth athletes (Barling, Weber, & Kelloway, 1996; Kelloway & Barling, 2000).

This finding is related to Zahra Rajabi (2012), in his study relationship of coach's leadership style and player performance outcomes surveyed the relationship of coach's Leadership Style and player performance outcomes. The results showed that there is a significant positive relationship between Training and instruction and Democratic with wining, but there is no significant relationship between Autocratic, Social Support and Positive feedback with winning. However, a significant negative relationship was observed between Autocratic, Social support and Positive feedback with failure. The theory that supported the assertion was self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 2000) and its relationship to intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Vallerand, 2000). In conclusion, these studies have found a significant positive relationship between transformational leadership and psychological well-being that was mediated or partially mediated by the meaning found in work. These are two of the first studies to empirically investigate mechanisms linking transformational leadership and psychological well-being. As such, the results provide broad empirical evidence to support one of the central tenets of transformational leadership theory that leaders can transform followers' beliefs to enhance well-being.

The result of the finding shows that toughness did not significantly predict psychological well being of student athletes. Hence the second hypothesis is confirmed. The finding is in line with Mills, Grasmick, Morgan, and Wenk, (1992) who conducted a study on the effects of gender, family satisfaction and economic strain on psychological well-being, the study concluded that gender did not statistically significantly predict psychological well being of athletes.

Implication of the Study

The present research attempted to further examine the relationship between leadership behaviour styles of football coaches and overall team psychological well being. The results revealed that coaches who utilize a more transformational leadership style produce more successful significant performance outcomes than those who don't. For a new head coach, this information may be influential in developing an overall coaching style.

For an experience coach looking to improve, this information may shed some light on successful and unsuccessful approaches to the profession. For an administrator (i.e., Athletic

Director), looking for the right coach to hire and lead a successful program, this information may be vital in choosing the right candidate for the job.

In view of the implication of toughness in psychological well-being of youth athletes, this finding supports the prediction that toughness does not significantly have any impact on psychological well-being of youth athletes since toughness differences does not predict psychological well-being of youth athletes; this information may help stakeholders in youth and sports development to expand their development strategies to be all inclusive. This suggests that they should consider both physical and emotional toughness in their development strategies to ensure equitable toughness sensitivity. In view of the implication of this study, it is pertinent to note that for improvement on psychological well-being of youth athletes, there is need to modify the leadership style of coach athletes to improve internality among sportsmen. Better modification strategies should be emphasized among stakeholders and sportsmen. There should be regular mind training, proper orientation and education of youths on importance of internality of sportsmanship. Toughness inclusion should be a factor worthy of attention. There should be adequate enlightenment at the primary school level to build intrinsic interest in youth athletes irrespective of toughness differences. Above all, emphasis should be laid on government sponsorship of better and practical programmes towards behaviour modification for the optimal improvement on psychological well-being of youth athletes.

Limitation of the Study

Despite the contribution of this study, it is however not devoid of limitations arising from several aspects of the work that may not meet the expectation of the readers. Such as, Time constraint; more so there was no grants from the government to finance the study.

Also, the number of variables studied in this work is another limitation of the study. Therefore, such variables like economic status, self-concept, locality and a host of other variables if studied can impact more on youth sport participation.

Suggestion for Further Studies

The association between leadership style and psychological well being toughness warrants further exploration. Future research must incorporate statistical modeling that allows for analysis of other related factors that can predict psychological well being.

If replicated, these findings have important clinical implications for improving psychological well being of youths. They may pinpoint for therapists specific psychological mechanisms used by individuals in enhancing psychological well being.

With regards to the numerous limitations from this study the following suggestions are put forward by the researchers for further researches:

1. Embarking on a similar study with more participants from more than one institution and state in the country.
2. Embarking on related study using such variables like age, locality, economic status, self-concept and a host of others as variables that may impact on psychological well-being of youth athletes.
3. More so, more number of participants should be involved in subsequent studies

Conclusion and Summary

This (study has) clearly shown with emphasis the need to improve the leadership style of youth athletes without toughness bias in other to develop a high psychological well-being of youth athletes. It is concluded that the sport psychology research on leadership style, toughness and psychological well-being among youth athletes must be given optimal attention as many studies on psychological well-being have not been explicitly on sports and athlete's leadership style.

Researcher investigating athlete's leadership style, toughness and psychological well-being on a global level should adopt established in-depth base on sport psychology. At the contextual sports level it is concluded that the knowledge level of what constitutes sport-related psychological well-being and locus of control seems presently shallow. Therefore, it is apparently crucial to note that future qualitative research is warranted to enable the exploration of sportsmanship leadership style and psychological well-being in a greater depth. An increased understanding of leadership style, toughness and psychological well-being in athletes is needed, this knowledge could potentially address aspects of challenges in sports that constitute obstacles, so as to facilitate student athletes' possibilities to flourish and use their full potentials as both humans and athletes. Moreover, an increasing body of evidence suggests that interventions geared towards increasing internality may enhance psychological well-being and overall health over time, which facilitates adaptive long-term coping resources. Therefore, sport psychologists, team couches, workers and stakeholders in schools and sports development as well as the government and other philanthropist and helping professionals should pay productive attention to these important factors as they are obviously tantamount to building Psychological Well-being in sportsmanship among the students athletes and ensuring all inclusion to eradicate toughness biases and stereotype.

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