

Transformational leader integrity: An investigation of coach social cognition.

John P. Mills

Thesis presented for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy



**UNIVERSITY OF
BIRMINGHAM**

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Dedicated to

My father, John Edwin Mills.

Although he did not get to see me achieve this goal, he was and will always be my
inspiration.

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Abstract

The majority of psychological research investigating leadership integrity has relied on self or other report methods as the primary approach to data collection. While such approaches have advanced the literature greatly, prominent theorists (Barling, Christie and Turner, 2008; Christie, Barling and Turner, 2011) have called for alternative measures that are less prone to socially desirable responding. As leaders lacking in integrity are thought to be manipulative and deceptive (Bass and Steidlmeier, 1999), developing a measure that negates socially desirable responding is imperative. Further, as sport is relatively insular and is, as Bredemeier and Shields (2006) suggest, experiencing something of an ethical crisis, the instrument was developed within a sporting context. However, as no prior research had examined the integrity of sporting leaders, the present thesis began by examining the antecedent cognitive processes of expert football managers. Building upon this exploration and a review of the literature, an implicit association test was developed within study two. Results suggest that the instrument is capable of assessing automatic attitudes towards leader integrity and is more sensitive than existing measures. The research

also offered support for concurrent (i.e., differences in automatic attitudes between organisational cultures) and convergent validity (i.e., between the new instrument and a previously validated measure of ethical integrity), test-retest reliability and good internal consistency. Finally, study three examined the instrument's predictive and divergent validity. Results suggest that automatic attitudes towards leader integrity predict player reported commitment. In sum, the present thesis has sought to understand the social psychological phenomena of leader integrity from a social cognition perspective. The result of these investigations is a robust, sensitive, and complimentary measure of leader integrity, which will assist researchers to better understand the psychological processes that underpin leadership integrity at an automatic level.

Declaration

The work in this thesis is based on research carried out at the School of Sport, Exercise and Rehabilitation Sciences, University of Birmingham, England. No part of this thesis has been submitted elsewhere for any other degree or qualification and it is all my own work unless referenced to the contrary in the text.

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Author Biography

John P. Mills is a Doctoral Fellow at the University of Birmingham. His research focuses on the psychological mechanisms that underpin leader integrity within sport and performance environments.

Publications and presentations

Publications:

1. **Mills, J.P.** (2015). An auto ethnographic account of constructing, deconstructing, and reconstructing a coaching identity. *Qualitative Research in Sport, Exercise and Health*. Advance Online Publication: <http://goo.gl/z8MvAI>
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2. **Mills, J.P.** (2012). Sport Science and Social Media. The Sport and Exercise Scientist, 34.

In all cases of work that has been published, presented and submitted for publication, the work has been directly attributed to me as the Ph.D. candidate. All investigations, analyses and reporting have been solely undertaken by myself in keeping with the requirements of a Ph.D. candidature. However, those acknowledged have assisted with the formulation of research ideas and reviewed manuscripts.

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Prologue:

An auto ethnographic account of
constructing, deconstructing, and
partially reconstructing a coaching
identity.

0.1 Abstract

This reflective auto ethnography illuminates the intricate mechanisms that impact identity construction and deconstruction. Set within the context of football coaching, the author draws upon lived experiences to show his struggle to establish and maintain an identity. By taking the unusual step of exposing his self-doubts and fears, it is the author's hope that the article will offer comfort to other coaches (and young people in general) experiencing similar difficulties. Signposts are also offered, which direct the reader to the relevant identity literature. Finally, the narrative is evaluated and the benefits to the coaching and psychology communities are discussed.

0.2 Introduction

What follows is a brief narrative of my experiences as a young person trying to assert an identity within the role of an association football (also known as soccer) coach (McCall and Simmons 1978). Stets and Burke (2000) define identity as the categorisation of the self as an occupant of a role, while incorporating the self into the meanings and expectations associated with the role and its fulfilment. As Oyserman, Elmore, and Smith (2012) suggest, identity can be focused on the past (e.g. what used to be true of the individual), the present (e.g. what is true of the individual now) or the future (e.g. the person the individual expects, hopes or feels obliged to become; or the person one fears one may become). If identity is dynamic and related to developments in an individual's concept of self over the lifespan (Lally, 2007), then exploring the social and environmental factors that contribute to its changes is of interest (Callary, Werthner and Trudel, 2012).

Using an auto ethnographic approach, I explore my lived experiences through a number of rich, contextualised vignettes: drawing meaning and connections to extend **my** understanding of identity (Ellis and Bochner, 2000). Like McMahon and Denin-Thompson (2008) I have adapted Sparkes' (2004) personal and academic voice framework to highlight the distinction between relived experiences (i.e. personal voice) and sections offering reflections, explanations and signposts (academic voice[s]). Italics and quotation marks are also used when reliving my experiences (Denzin, 2000) to differentiate between thoughts, feelings and doubts (italicised) and spoken comments (quotations). My story begins with 'what do you want to do when you grow up' which highlights how the role of football coach initially became

intertwined with my identity (Donnelly and Young, 1988). Next ‘from fantasy to reality’ offers a snapshot of experiences at both the start and end of my career, before ‘return to the pitch’ explores how threats to my self-concept created cognitive dissonance and how impression management mechanisms were used to reinforce a reemerging identity image. Each story is based on my perceptions of the events and are potentially fallible (Hammersley, 1992; Miles and Huberman, 1994; Pawson and Tilly, 1997). However, these perceptions identify how I make meaning of my lived experiences (Chase, 2005; McGannon and Spence, 2010). They also go beyond me as an individual and reveal the social and cultural contexts that shape the construction of my story (McLeod, 1997) and allow a platform to express the hopes, fears, and vulnerabilities felt during the experiences discussed (Carless and Douglas, 2013). With this in mind, I have also taken the somewhat uncomfortable decision of coming out from behind the third person hegemonic voice (Boje, Luhman and Baack, 1999). Like Smith (2013), it is my hope that through the use of everyday language, the narrative will be engaging, thought provoking and easily understood by multiple audiences.

Unlike research using the positivist or post-positivist paradigms, this narrative takes an interpretivist approach. Situating the stories presented towards the evocative end of the continuum (Ellis and Bochner, 2006) the aim of this auto ethnography is to write a meaningful and moving narrative based on my emotions and experiences to illuminate human experience (Carless and Douglas, 2013). It is hoped that the stories told may provide comfort to coaches (and anyone in general) who find themselves attempting to construct a new identity after negotiating the difficult transition

between careers (Ellis, 2004). In line with the interpretivist approach taken throughout (House, 1978) a knowledge-orientated evaluation approach (Patton, 1998) is used to gather subjective feedback from a sample of working and aspiring coaches to identify the benefit, if any, drawn from the auto ethnography (Smith, 2013). Although primarily used within the sport to evaluate interventions (Mahoney et al., 2002), knowledge-orientated evaluations also offer a relatively simple way to appraise the quality of research (Patton, 1998) and whether the theory has been translated or stimulates personal change.

0.3 From fantasy to reality: personal voice

0.3.1 What Do You Want To Do When You Grow Up?

Beep beep, beep beep, a deep breath leaves my body as I swing an arm over to hit the alarm. Conjuring all the effort available to me, I force my eyes open to the darkness and traipse my weary body into the shower. The steam starts to clear my head and the water washes away the night. It's 5am and I'm awake. No 14-year old should be up at this time, but I am – all in the name of football. The floor boards flex as I tiptoe down the stairs – *I mustn't wake mum*. I flick the small switch on the back of the kettle and anxiously wait for the white steam to rise from the spout. It seems to take an age, but eventually the button clicks and I'm rewarded with the brown fluid my body craves. Sluggishly I negotiate my way to the lounge and sit on the sofa – the cold of the leather excites my skin. It is a rare sensation in a house where the temperature rarely falls below sub-tropical. Fumbling for the remote I

eventually find the right button and the television stirs into action. Creaking and cracking, a blue light fills the room and the screen begins to focus, it's time for my weekly dose of Football Asia. Fascinated by the culture, I sit frozen to the spot; concentrating on absorbing everything I can, while fantasising about standing in a dugout. As the programme draws to an end, so does the perceived highlight of my day – *I better get ready for school*. White shirt, loosely knotted tie, black jogging bottoms and a pair of white trainers. The unofficial school uniform for 'people like me'. Generally I hate school. I don't hate learning, far from it, I hate the environment and the teachers. I hate it when they won't answer my questions, not that I bother asking anymore, if I do they scream "because I said so" and send me to the corridor. Today should be a good day though, as the career guidance people are coming in. The teacher has told us that they have some new computer programme that will calculate what career we're best suited to. I can't wait, I'm going to fix it so it says football coach. That way people won't think it's such a stupid idea. One by one my friends and I head into a glorified cupboard, waiting to find out our destiny. I'm ready. "So John" the career counsellor starts "Do you like working inside or out?", "outside" I reply. "Do you like working with others or by yourself", *this is a tough one, managers kind of make decisions on their own, but coaches work in a group* "with others" I proclaim. "Are you active – fit and healthy?" he continues, "Very" I respond. There is a delay as the computer whirs. The air is stale and the pale, slightly dishevelled man stares blankly at the screen. "OK John, the computer suggests that your ideal career is – road digger. How do you feel about that? Does that sound like something you might want to do?" There

is silence as I sit open mouthed. My mind races – *road digger?! Who aspires to dig bloody roads!* “Erm, not really” I somewhat exasperatingly exclaim. “OK John, what would you like to do?” there is a slight pause as the blood rushes to my cheeks and the air leaves my body. I know it’s stupid, enough people have told me, but what the hell, “Honestly, I want to be the England Manager.”

0.3.2 The Start of my Coaching Career

“Psst” a noise comes from three desks across to my left, “gaffer... Joh[sic]” a hushed voice calls. “What?” I quietly, but abruptly bark. “How are we gonna play on Saturday?” the voice asks. We’re in a cold, white laboratory, which although set up for science lessons rarely sees them. Instead, like usual, my classmates and I frantically try to write what the teacher puts on the white board for an hour. However, I have three problems: (1) I’m shortsighted, (2) I’m sat at the back of the class and (3) I’m surrounded by friends who want to talk about our new football club. As I squint at the board and copy the person next to me a new voice comes from the right “am I going to start on Saturday?” I put the pen down. Since creating a team of my school friends, this is a question that I have been asked a lot, “you know I don’t tell the players until Friday”. I look up and see the familiar sight of the teacher’s back. With her tousled brown, shoulder length hair she stretches for a space at the top right hand of the white board to continue the final leg of our writing marathon. Looking down at my writing I become aware of the white space left remaining on the page. I’ve tried to keep up, but have fallen too far behind. The lesson only has ten minutes remaining and I know that I’ll never finish copying

what the teacher has written. Instead, I jot down a few formation ideas and pass them around “what do you think?” I ask. There may be ten minutes to go, but for us the academic lesson is over.

0.3.3 The ‘Perceived’ End of my Coaching Career

My eyes are open, strained and exhausted. I can almost feel the blood vessels swell and burst as they frantically twitch within my skull. The world is black and I have never felt more alone in my life. My wife sleeps soundly next to me, but my dry eyes, tired of staring at the blackness won’t close. I’m afraid. Afraid to let my mind wander, because if I do the demons will come back. My dad, best friend and number one supporter has terminal cancer. That evil fucking bastard of an illness has come back after ten years in remission. It’s not fair. At 49 years of age he’s too young to have had to face this twice. I have to coach in the morning, but it’s too much, I can’t deal with the utter pointlessness of the bickering; everything pales into insignificance. Should I quit, everyone would understand, everyone except perhaps my dad. When I first told him that I wanted to be a coach he supported the idea when most laughed. Am I being a coward and using my dad’s illness as a cover for my failure to make it as a coach? I’ve done ok, I’ve worked at a couple of professional clubs, managed senior amateur teams, and worked as a player development officer for Major League Soccer, but I’ve not really made it. I can’t quit, he likes coming to the stadium and chatting with the fans about being the assistant manager’s dad. My being a coach is usually the first thing he tells people when he mentions he has a son. I’m trapped. I can’t let him down, I need to concentrate on the football.

I try to think about who should play up front on Saturday, but a voice inside my head won't be silenced *your dad is dying*.

At 6am on Thursday the 31st of March 2010, my father passed away. I then spent the rest of that day and the next locked in a numb, tear soaked daze trying to understand what had just happened. On the Saturday I pulled on every ounce of strength in my body and went to manage the team¹. On Sunday, emotionally drained and feeling as if I had been kicked in the stomach I quit my role as manager and gave up coaching.

0.4 From fantasy to reality: academic voice(s).

While research examining the identities of players (Smith and Sparkes, 2005; Lally, 2007; Douglas, 2009; Carless and Douglas, 2013; Sparkes and Smith, 2013) has begun, there has been little exploration into the identities of coaches. To date, only Jones (2006) has offered a reflection of his experiences as a dysfluent coach, which although similar to the present study in as far as it also discusses impression management processes to construct and maintain aspirational identity images, it is focused on a fixed moment in time. In contrast, the present study uses stories to examine various experiences during different stages in my life. This is highlighted by the first two vignettes above whereby I begin the process of developing an identity by fantasising about a coaching identity while being exposed to media, stereotypical identity images, and possessing misconceptions about role behaviours (Donnelly and Young, 1988; McGannon and Spence, 2010). Like many young men, I aspired

¹roughly a year had passed at this point and I had since taken a full managerial position.

to 'be somebody' and chose to emulate the stereotypical images of coaching that I had viewed on television (Agnew and Drummond, 2014). In the second part of the first vignette I also began to determine how the role identity of a football coach would complement or extend my existing self-concept, while beginning to evaluate the perceptions of others when revealing my aspirations (Donnelly and Young, 1988; Piliavin and Callero, 1991). In the first element of the second vignette I begin to receive social encouragement from my peers. Miller and Kerr (2002) and Adler and Adler (1989) suggest that uncertainty about my self-identity during this formative stage may have resulted in my placing increased significance on how my peers perceived me within the role - ultimately, as the team and my peer group were successful, both in terms of enjoyment and results, my role identity was reinforced. During the period not discussed within the 'fantasy to reality' vignette, I came to label myself as a football coach (Piliavin and Callero, 1991) with my identity within the role becoming increasingly narrowed (Markus, 1977; Adler and Adler, 1989; Sparkes, 1998; Kerr and Dacyshyn, 2000). The narrative then fleetingly considers the relationship I had with my father. Until writing this story I had not reflected on the impact my father had on my identity. **I, like Douglas (2009), was involved in sport both for and to have communion with, my father. As such, I continued with my coaching career to maintain the relationship we had enjoyed, which demonstrates my consideration for how he had also invested in my identity.** Although I acknowledge this within the vignette, I had not considered why he was one of only a handful of people who supported my decision to become a coach and continue within the profession. I can only imagine

that it seemed an exciting profession to a man who became a father at a young age and felt compelled to put providing for his family before his own career ambitions. Perhaps a part of it was also that he was proud of himself in the role of a father for creating an environment in which his son could follow his dreams instead of battling like he had (Stryker, 1980); if he wasn't proud of this, he should have been. While this narrative has been difficult to share, I believe the relationship described played a key role in the maintenance of my identity.

0.5 Return to the pitch: personal voice

Moving forward 18-months I had completed my degree and had moved to the other side of the United Kingdom to start a Ph.D. I still thought of myself as *primarily* a coach, but something had changed. While back home everyone had known me as a coach, here I was being judged for pontificating to other coaches I had met without “walking the walk”. My new peers were not abusive, they just did not see me as a coach and openly challenged my claims; usually through the half-mocking *banter* of new friends. Why should they think of me as a coach, I was still calling myself one without doing any coaching. I struggled to argue my point, but it was of no use, without context the role meant nothing - like a teacher and a student within a school, the roles of coach and player are defined within the social structure of the club. As the new season drew nearer the pressure built, before eventually it was time to put up or shut up. A colleague was acting as the player manager of a local team and based on his recommendation the club offered me the role of manager. Somewhat nervously I succumbed and agreed to return to coaching.

0.5.1 The Training Ground

On a late September evening, with the sun already descending below the horizon, I arrived at a slightly dilapidated hotel where training was to be held. Armed with little more than a few cones left over from my previous stint in coaching and a couple of semi-deflated footballs I had purchased earlier that day, I waited nervously in the car park. Distancing myself from the players I thought: *What the hell am I doing here? I'm not a coach anymore, I really don't need all this shit again!* Eventually I composed myself and entered the pitch. With each step I could feel the frost starting to crystallise the grass under my boots. Carefully, I placed cones on the icy turf and listened to the gentle crunch as the cone met the grass. Feeling a unified gaze penetrating the back of my head I looked over and saw the players huddled and looking in my direction. I wondered what they were discussing, what their initial reactions of me were and if I was ready: *This session is going to be worse than terrible and the players would be better off without me. If this goes badly I doubt I'll even be able to show my face at their games.* Eventually my desire to be professional silenced this inner monologue and I composed myself; I had a job to do: *Maybe Steve² (my friend, work colleague and the teams former caretaker manager) hasn't told them anything about my background and anything will seem good after not really having a coach for so long. On the plus side they're all having a laugh and a joke, perhaps this doesn't need to be as serious as I am making it.*

With a sense of panic I checked my watch and attempted to suppress my doubts: *Shit look at the time, we should have started 3 minutes ago. Bloody hell; I've got to*

²Excluding the first author, pseudonyms are used throughout

do it now. I'm a good coach, I'm a good coach! It'll be fine, I'm sure it'll be fine. Right let's do it! After finally plucking up enough courage to disguise my nerves, I jumped straight into coaching mode and started my first drill, only to be instantly pulled up by one of the senior players for not introducing myself. With a surge of blood rushing to my cheeks and a wide-eyed expression, I apologised and proceeded to tell my coaching 'life-story'. The younger players looked bored and I could tell from the dirty looks they were giving to the player who had pulled me up that they were wondering why he had to ask. Despite the difficult start, the players responded well to my ideas, although, I knew that I was more than a bit rusty. After running a 90-minute session, I was done. I had half ideas of things I wanted to do, but unlike my former, confident self, I was too nervous to wing it. The team didn't appear to notice that I was faking confidence and if they did, they were polite enough to pretend that they hadn't. Although not a run-away success I was at least coaching again.

As my slightly blue hands gripped the steering wheel on the drive home, my thoughts quickly turned to my first game in charge. With only one session under my belt, consisting of only half the squad, I was apprehensive that the team would be humiliated and that if they were, that I would not be able to recover my credibility with the players (and myself). With the heater blasting and a prickling sensation in my cheeks, I decided that once home, I would do something unusual and email my individual match instructions to each player. As anyone who coaches an amateur football team will confer, players don't usually respond well to things that are unusual. They like routine, 4-4-2, and chips as a post match meal, but

given the lack of time available it was worth the gamble.

0.5.2 The Dressing Room

Amateur football dressing rooms are rarely attractive places, but this one was an absolute hole. The stench of sweat and damp hit me almost as hard as the wall of noise coming from the players who, despite the conditions, seemed jovial and exerted a nervous electricity. It may not be pretty but this would be our sanctuary before and after the match. Conscious of the time I tried to take the lead, but could not get a word in edgewise: *I really need them to shut up so I can get my instructions across*. The metaphorical devil on my shoulder tries to persuade me that it might be better if I kept quiet: *Perhaps you don't need to talk to them as a group, you could just speak to everyone individually; that would be easier*. Before the angel on the other shoulder interrupts: *No, you have got to remind them of the instructions as a team or no one will know what the others are doing*. Gathering both my thoughts and composure I find a resolution to the debate occurring inside my mind: *OK, stay calm, I'll speak to Leo one on one, then have a drink and speak to the group...* Leo had recently moved to the UK from Spain and although he spoke reasonable English, he had told me that he only really understood about 50% of what I was saying. I began: "Leo, if you get the chance today I want you to look for the pass in behind." With a shrug of his shoulders and a tilt of his stubbly chin Leo nodded, but I was not convinced that the message had been received. Time was ticking away and I decided to leave it. Meekly I interrupted the players' discussions to hear if they'd received my instructions. Despite receiving nothing back all week, I was pleasantly

surprised that most of the squad had read them and took the ideas on board. There was of course an air of sarcasm associated with the whole idea, but at least most of them had given it a go. With the clock ticking down to kick-off I took the players out to warm up. Some of the players wanted to do their own warm up - unsurprisingly the ones who hadn't read my instructions, which made me wonder if their lack of group participation was an attempt at dominance, as if to say "I know better", but I shelved my insecurities and focused on the task in hand. After 30 minutes we were back in the disgusting dressing room and the nerves were still present. Ten minutes before kick off and the players were all still chatting. I needed to go through some final points and make sure they understood my instructions before kick-off, but a break in the conversation never came. Luckily one of the senior players seemed to sense my apprehension and quietened everyone down. After only completing one training session together and knowing that we were away to the team sitting at the top of the league, I tried to ease the players' nerves by suggesting that we had nothing to lose and that developing an understanding of how I wanted them to play would take time. Really I thought we were going to lose and was trying to buy myself a bit of time should things go horribly wrong. The message seemed to lift the players. I continued with my speech: "I hear this team will try and bully us, but we will not be bullied." I tried to instill a confidence in the team that we were strong and encouraged them to look after one another. The opposition were known for being a particularly nasty bunch from an area of town where most avoid, but I was determined to quell my insecurities and lead from the front. However, inside, I was worried in equal measure, for my team's safety, my reputation, and particularly

what a heavy defeat would do to the fledgling re-emergence of my coaching identity.

0.5.3 The Match

During the first half an hour we were under pressure, the opponents were everything I had expected and were dominating us, however, they hadn't scored. The players started bickering with one another, but I tried to nip it in the bud early on by reminding them of my team-talk and that it would take time to understand each others role within the team. As the half fizzled out, we grew in confidence and started to play as I had asked. Little by little, we pushed them back until as the half-time whistle blew we were the only team that looked like scoring. During the half-time team-talk, I again could not find a gap in the conversation. One of the older players, who had done his own warm up, had started chatting with some of the players on the way off the pitch and still hadn't shut up after 5 minutes of getting into the dressing room: *If this prat wants to lead the team so much why didn't he take the job?* Feeling an increased sense of annoyance: *This is a bloody joke, they clearly don't see me as a leader yet. If they don't want a coach then why am I here wasting my time!* I gave the player a tap on the shoulder and half joked about who was in charge. Convincing myself that I was not the problem (although my lack of confidence probably had a factor) I took charge of the situation and suppressed my annoyance. I encouraged the players to build on the last fifteen minutes and explained that the opposition were tiring, while we were getting stronger. I made some slight tactical tweaks and encouraged one of the other senior players to share his thoughts as he looked like he may burst if I hadn't. Luckily, he just wanted to

back up what I had said, encourage the boys to follow the instructions and that he felt we could win the game. I appreciated the sentiment and began to feel more comfortable in my role and part of the team, but had been in the game long enough to know kind words are quickly forgotten if results are not going well.

As the second half began the opposition were even more aggressive than in the first, with the supporters and coach becoming increasingly vocal at the referee to give them decisions - to which he frequently obliged. I wondered if I should also try to manipulate the ref, but a shout of “don’t sink to their level” from a senior player seemed to focus the players and quickly reinforced my belief that I should stick to my principles. I wondered whether the other manager had considered his ethical beliefs or how his behaviour was affecting the decisions of his players and the fans, but I shelved my thoughts and turned my attention back to the game. As the half progressed, we went from strength to strength, hardening against our opponents efforts to intimidate us, while also displaying our superior fitness. I sensed that the players could feel the change and within sixty minutes we were in front.

Growing tired of being a goal down to a team from the wrong end of the table, the tackles became even more ferocious. Despite being battered and bruised we stood strong. The fans bayed for blood and the opposition players responded by attempting tackles that wouldn’t look out of place in a Bruce Lee movie. Despite the physical assault my players were enduring I could almost see the confidence oozing back into the side. We became more expansive, adventurous and firmer in the tackle. In an attempt to stop the turning tide, the opposition ‘hard-man’ clattered into one of our players sending him flying into the air, boots above head and arms flailing,

before returning from orbit to land firmly and squarely on his back: “REF! Come on you’ve got to do something about this lot, they ain’t (sic) here to play football.” Covered in sweat, the ‘hard-man’ stopped his attack on my team and instead began to confidently stride towards me. Taking umbrage with my comment to the ref a torrent of abuse flew in my direction. At 6’4 and built like a brick shit house, I yielded around 5 inches and a third of my body weight to someone who I later found out had spent time at Her Majesty’s pleasure. Although my head was telling me that I didn’t need the trouble and that this was most definitely an occasion for flight rather than fight, I couldn’t run. How would that have looked to my team after telling them that we wouldn’t be bullied? I decided to give as good as I got, doing my best to act confidently - convincing myself that a black-eye would be less painful than being seen as a hypocrite in the eyes of my new team. A voice inside my head reminds me that he is pretty big, but I tell myself that: *I’ve dealt with bigger*. The argument gets a little out of hand, but I convince myself that if it kicks off that the team will back me up; *bloody hell I hope they do as he’ll kill me!* Noticing my heart pounding and hands sweating I realise the need to keep control: *Stay calm. I’ll give as good as I get, I’ll front him out*. Eventually we agree to deal with our disagreement after the game.

Following my lead the team stood up to the continued onslaught and looked the better side, creating the better chances and hitting the post. We kept the pressure up, creating chance after chance, until eventually, a beautifully threaded pass from Leo (our Spanish midfield maestro) allows our pacey forward to burst through the opposition defence and slot the ball past the goalkeeper into the bottom corner.

“Come on!” I quietly pump my fist, being careful to maintain a respect for the opposition, despite the fact they had been nothing but disrespectful to us. The joy is clear on the players’ faces, but they know that they still need to see the game out. I expected my players to face a torrent of abuse; instead, in almost unison the opposition players hung their heads and I knew the game was over. A few minutes later the final whistle blew and we had done it; the team had finally won a game and it had come against top of the league. **Full of adrenaline, I approach the guy I had had a disagreement with and offer to shake his hand. However, he’s not having any of it and tells me in no uncertain terms to “fuck off”. I’ll take that, classing an expletive as a win by comparison of what was on offer earlier.**

After the match I try my best to appear nonchalant, after all I had predicted that the game would go the way it did, although, I hadn’t really believed my own words. There is shouting and talking as I enter the dressing room, but this time Steve spontaneously shouts “Oi listen up”. As one of the people who had originally challenged my claim to be a coach, the sentiment of this act had not gone unnoticed: *Great, hopefully this means that the players have accepted me. They should, if anyone (myself included) needed any proof that I could coach, leading this team to their first victory of the season is a good start. Bloody hell we’ve won! Amazing!* Controlling my excitement I remind myself of the need to keep calm, the team has made massive strides today, but they/I must not get carried away, it is only one win and I want a lot more! I congratulate the players on their performance and courage:

Well done boys, it was a hard day, but you came through it. They were

tough, but we were tougher and I am very proud of you for not sinking to their level. It is not going to be easy getting used to how I want you to play, but you should remember how you stuck together today and definitely enjoy tonight, you've earned it!

The players nod their heads in unison, before turning to one another to continue the discussions and no doubt congratulate themselves on their first win of the season.

0.6 Return to the pitch: academic voice(s).

The journey discussed within this narrative focuses on a transitional period both personally and professionally, which covers my return to coaching. Prompted by the offer of a coaching position, 'return to the pitch' uses three vignettes (i.e. [1] the training ground, [2] the dressing room, and [3] the match) as reflexive mechanisms to discuss my emotions and experiences when attempting to reconstruct a coaching identity on re-entering the profession; offering an opportunity to walk in my shoes and feel some of what I felt (Knowles and Gilbourne, 2004). Building on Jones (2006), the stories depicted here demonstrate how impression management supports identity construction in addition to managing the impression others form (Leary and Kowalski, 1990). Like Jones (2006), I 'acted the part' of a football coach (Goffman, 1959): presenting the impression that I was confident, in control and capable of leading the team (Schlenker, 1975). That said, when aggressively confronted by an opponent, I did not want to be seen as a hypocrite and as such, I was impression motivated to construct and alternate presentation of self (Leary and Kowalski, 1990). In constructing such an impression, I adopted multiple self-presentation strategies

(Baumeister and Jones, 1978) to present a self that was ‘true’ to the goals I had originally set, while attempting to avoid a more spontaneous goal of not being punched in the face (Leary and Kowalski, 1990). I was also motivated to be seen as authentic and strategically used self-presentation strategies to convey identity images to my players of a phenomenal self (Sosik, Avolio and Jung, 2002) who was trustworthy, credible, and of moral worth (Gardner and Avolio, 1998). My attempts and desire to be authentic contradicts with my deliberate presentation of emotions and qualities I knew I wasn’t feeling at the time. However, for me, this felt like an aspirational identity pursuit rather than deceitfulness (Snyder, 1987). It was me trying to gain esteem from my players (Gronn, 1995) in order to be the coach I knew I could and wanted to be, even if I wasn’t strictly that at that moment. Once I became more confident in my re-emerging identity, the need for impression management strategies subsided (Leary, 1995).

Elements of the auto ethnography reflected upon my behaviour as a leader; some of which could be considered transformational in nature. While auto ethnographic accounts of transformational leadership behaviours are rare (Jackson and Parry, 2011), Gardner et al. (2005, p. 328) place self-reflection at the base of “of all new positive forms of leadership, including transformational leadership”. Jackson and Parry (2011, p.10) suggest that by taking the type of “warts and all” auto ethnographic approach adopted here, transformational leaders are able to better understand their own experiences and essentially become truer to their authentic self. While such authenticity (see Walumbwa et al.,

2008 for a review of authentic leadership) is seen as a strength within leadership, it is important to note that within the transformational leadership literature, it is not a requirement (Bass and Steidlmeier, 1999). Instead, authenticity is seen as a concept that polarises transformational leaders (Price, 2003). At one end, truly transformational leaders understand their core self and use this knowledge to align their needs to those of their followers. In contrast, Base-pseudo-transformational leaders, while being authentic to self, are selfish and open in their baseness.

The narrative also discusses the two transformational leadership behaviours I demonstrated through my leadership (Podsakoff et al., 1990; Bass and Riggio, 2006). The first, acting as an appropriate role model, refers to the examples where I demonstrate professionalism (e.g., in training) and also when maintaining my ethical position when the opponent was attempting to manipulate the match official. The second transformational leadership behaviour discussed, is individual consideration. In this instance, by attempting to get to know my players at a human level, I became aware of Leo's lack of fluency in the English language. As such, I attempted to be individually considerate, by supporting him on a one-to-one basis.

Finally, transformational leadership was relevant to the ethical decisions I faced as a coach during a competitive fixture. While I never want to win by gamesmanship, as the opposition had clearly come to win by any means, I questioned my principles and wondered if winning and being

seen as a successful coach again was worth momentarily compromising my beliefs. Although the temptation was present, I considered how the young players within the team might model such behaviours in the long-term (Bandura, 1977) and if it would effect their commitment to both me and the team. As is the case with true transformational leadership (Price, 2003; Bass and Steidlmeier, 1999), I attempted to behave in a way that was befitting of my ethical values. However, when under the kind of pressure the aforementioned match placed me, I found myself questioning these values and whether I should, temporarily, suspend my ethical beliefs (Trevino, 1986) in order to advance my team's chances of winning. Such conflicts are typical of the differences demonstrated between spontaneous and deliberate attitudes (Paxton and Greene, 2010). On the one hand, I was aware of how I should act, but when under the types of time-pressurised, stressful and tiring conditions described by Bargh (1996), an automatic evaluation of my ethical attitude emerged, which under different contextual conditions (e.g., the team and environment) may have seen me respond differently.

0.7 Evaluation: are the stories of benefit?

In an attempt to capture the benefit this narrative may offer to the sports coaching community, a knowledge-orientated evaluation (Patton, 1998) was conducted with a group of 60 current and aspiring coaches undertaking a coaching science degree. As with the auto ethnographic element explored above, the evaluation was undertaken

in an interpretivist manner (House, 1978) to explore whether the paper had successfully: (i) translated theory to non-specialists, (ii) stimulated personal change, and (iii) met its aims (Chelimsky, 1997). Once the paper was read, the group was asked to offer their subjective feedback. Due to the public environment of the evaluation, evaluators were also offered the option of providing feedback privately (via email) and a sample of these responses are shared anonymously below:

Dave: Thank you for reading your coaching story out today. As a young coach too I can appreciate a lot of what you wrote about. I'm sure some a lot of people here won't get it, but I appreciate what you were trying to achieve.

Eric: I saw a lot of myself in what you presented and feel that I have trodden a similar path. Today has really made me think about the way I coach and it is nice to hear that someone else has struggled. That sounds wrong, not that it is nice that you've struggled to know who you are when changing careers, but nice to know that it's not just me. Hopefully I can learn from some of the experiences you've had.

Chris: It's great that you've actually experienced some of the things you are teaching us about and are willing to share both the good and the bad.

The comments from Dave and Eric also suggest that the stories discussed have stimulated the evaluators to reflect on their own lived experiences, which in turn may contribute to personal change. Finally, Eric's

comment also demonstrates that the narrative has the potential to provide support to coaches who experience similar experiences. While not an initial aim, the comments also highlight how personal narratives can be a useful tool to gain credibility and engage students.

0.8 Summary

In sum, this narrative specifically contributes to the literature by examining the story of the challenges faced when developing a coaching identity in three ways. First, through the use of creative non-fiction, the paper translates knowledge in an engaging and easily understood manner, which is accessible to both specialist and non-specialist audiences. Second, the narrative offers theoretical signposting to assist the reader in both understanding and identifying complex processes. Third, by gathering evaluative feedback, the paper goes beyond talking about the potential benefits it may offer and begins the process of understanding how the story is interpreted and the influence it may have on those who read it. Beyond its contribution to the literature, it is also hoped that this narrative may provide support to other coaches and bind those who share similar experiences together to tell their collective stories (Richardson, 1990).

While I would like to offer a happy ending to my story (Smith, 1999) and explain that I rediscovered and fulfilled my adolescent dreams, I haven't. Coaching is still an important aspect of my self-concept, but it no longer defines me in the same way as it did and is not the dominant aspect of a narrowed identity (Markus, 1977; Adler and Adler, 1989; Sparkes, 1998; Kerr and Dacyshyn, 2000). As Denzin and Lincoln

(1997) suggest:

Auto ethnography is setting a scene, telling a story, weaving intricate connections among life and art, experience and theory, evocation and explanation... and then letting it go, hoping for readers who will bring the same careful attention to your words in the context of their own lives.

Although this may not offer a neat conclusion to the reconstruction of my coaching identity, at this stage of my story, like Defenbaugh (2008) I am not able to offer a definitive concluding statement. Our identities are dynamic, open to change, and as evidenced by this story, easily influenced by social and environmental factors (Lally, 2007; Callary, Werthner and Trudel, 2012).

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Chapter 1

Transformational leader integrity in sport: A narrative review.

1.1 abstract

The purpose of the current narrative review was to (a) examine the transformational leader integrity literature, (b) discuss the measurement issues associated with the assessment of socially sensitive integrity attitudes, (c) outline transformational leader integrity's application to sport, and (d) highlight a range of avenues for future study. In addressing these aims, this review suggests that while there is strong evidence for the study of transformational leadership within sport, a greater focus to the cognitive antecedents of such behaviour is required in order to better understand the phenomena. From a transformational leader integrity perspective, the combined use of guided introspection and methods that assess spontaneously accessed automatic attitudes is recommended based upon the findings of this review.

1.2 Introduction.

Players frequently experience ethical dilemmas during the course of competition, be it the snap decision to dive to win a penalty, use a hand to save a goal bound shot, retaliate aggressively, racially abuse a rival, the deliberate attempt to fix a match/outcome or chemically seek an unfair advantage through the use of performance enhancing drugs. As such, sport offers ample opportunity for the integrity of players to evolve. Like all social cognition (i.e., the medium in which our words are construed and our actions initiated; Fiske and Mcrae, 2012), attitudes within sport are often developed based on the player's personal experiences and the influence of significant others (e.g., coaches, team-mates, parents, teachers, etc.). The coach, as leader, plays a hugely influential role in shaping the player's moral attitude and behaviour within sporting contexts (Dodge and Robertson, 2004). For example, Dodge and Robertson (2004) found players felt justified in *bending* the rules when doing so was exemplified by the coach. According to Dodge (1998), if the coach values winning above sportsmanship and personal standards, it is likely this will be reflected in the player's approach to sporting participation. With this in mind, understanding coach integrity and the impact it may have on the players he or she works with is essential. No longer is coach integrity simply a desirable "feel good" quality, but rather an essential component of team success (Parry and Proctor-Thomson, 2002).

1.3 Sports leadership.

While sporting leadership has received considerable interest over the near 40-years that have passed since Chelladurai (1978) proposed his multi-dimensional model of leadership, to date, the automatic attitudes¹ of leaders within a sporting domain are yet to be examined. Instead, and as in the organisational psychology literature (Day and Antonakis, 2012), the focus has been on behavioural models (e.g., Horn, 2008; Jowett, 2007; Mageau and Vallerand, 2003; Amorose and Horn, 2001; 2000; Côté et al., 1995; Smoll and Smith, 1989; Smith, Smoll, and Hunt, 1977). More recently, another behavioural approach, transformational leadership, has emerged as a credible approach to studying leadership within sport (Horn, 2008). Although initially developed outside of sport (i.e., within the military, education, and most prominently, business), over the past decade, transformational leadership has been used to examine multiple facets within sport.

However, before reviewing the sporting transformational leadership literature, it is important to first offer an overview of transformational leadership as a theory; particularly why it is relevant to sport. Bass and Riggio (2012; Burns, 1978) describe transformational leadership as the phenomena in which some leaders use a set of behaviours to inspire their followers to perform beyond expectations using a specific set of leadership behaviours (see below). Within all levels of sport, such behaviours are invaluable within the construction of a positive and productive team dynamic (Vella, 2010). Further, as the higher echelons of sport become

¹Automatic attitudes are those formed spontaneously without deliberation (Fazio and Olsen, 2003).

more akin to postmodern organisation (Hawkins and Tolzin, 2002) new forms of leadership that promote and inspire superior performance are vital. Gone are the days of the professional sports manager who handles everything from coaching to contract negotiations. Instead, contemporary coaches are required to work collaboratively; generating symbolic power by creating and communicating an idealistic and shared vision for the future (Bass and Riggio, 2012). They do this by expressing clear expectations for how to achieve the shared vision and by differentiating tasks to stimulate and consider followers' needs, forming a strong emotional attachment in the process. As sport becomes more positioned against the backdrop of various interpersonal relationships, the ability of the coach, as transformational leader, to inspire, motivate, communicate, foster team-work, role model appropriate behaviour, and understand their players and staff becomes of paramount importance (Vella, 2010). Podsakoff et al. (1990) and latterly Callow et al. (2009) argue that the aforementioned mechanisms fall within six broad dimensions:

1. Inspirational Motivation refers to the coach's ability to motivate and inspire players to perform. The term is derived from charismatic leadership (House, 1977), which describes the transformational or charismatic leader as behaving in a way that inspires and motivates those around them. Bass and Avolio (1994) took this a stage further by suggesting transformational leaders challenge their followers to fulfil a shared vision, creating team spirit in the process. This creates an enthusiastic environment where followers want to work for the leader and are optimistic about what can be achieved. Furthermore, the transformational leader adopts these values (i.e., a goal or standard consid-

ered either consciously or subconsciously, especially worthy), reaffirming the belief (i.e., an accepted attitude) that the leader is committed on reaching the goals outlined within the shared vision.

2. Individualised Consideration discusses the coach's ability to understand and meet the individual developmental needs of each player. Coaches who demonstrate individualised consideration offer differentiated support, encouragement, and developmental opportunities (Bass and Riggio, 2012). Individually considerate coaches offer individual attention and recognition to players, which in turn, makes them feel valued and integral to the completion of the shared vision.
3. Appropriate Role Model refers to the extent a coach provides a positive behavioural model for the players to emulate. Providing an appropriate role model is essentially setting an example for players to imitate (House, 1977) that is congruent with the leader's beliefs (Bass and Riggio, 2012) and models desired behaviour (Kouzes and Posner, 1987).
4. Fostering Acceptance of Group Goals and teamwork refers to the extent the coach can promote cooperation amongst team members (Bennis and Nanus, 1985), encouraging them to share responsibility (Bradford and Cohen, 1984) and work together for shared goals (Kouzes and Posner, 1987).
5. High Performance Expectations refers to the coach's ability to communicate and inspire their players to achieve and expect behavioural excellence and/or high performance (Bass and Riggio, 2012).

6. Intellectual Stimulation discusses the coach's ability to cognitively challenge his or her players to re-evaluate their assumptions regarding their behaviour and performance.

The first dedicated study of transformational leadership within sport examined the extent to which parental role modelling impacted the leadership behaviours of their children (Zacharatos, Barling, and Kelloway, 2000). Based on a sample of 112 high school students and their respective parents, the study suggested the children of parents who demonstrate transformational leadership behaviours were more likely to display such behaviours themselves within a team sport context. Next, Charbonneau, Barling, and Kelloway (2001) investigated whether intrinsic motivation mediated the affect of transformational leadership on sports performance. Based on a sample of 168 student players, their results suggested the relationship between player perceived coach transformational leadership behaviour and coach ratings of player performance may be mediated by player reported intrinsic motivation. Next, Rowold (2006) tested the relationship between perceived transformational leadership behaviours and perceptions of coach effectiveness, effort, and player satisfaction. Based on a sample of 200 martial arts students, the results suggest inspirational motivation was linked to perceptions of effort and effectiveness, intellectual stimulation was related to perceived effort, while individualised consideration was linked to perceptions of leader effort and player satisfaction. However, due to the instrument used to measure transformational leader perceptions within these studies (i.e., Multi-Factor Leadership Questionnaire-X5; MLQ-X5), one of the behaviours measured (i.e., idealised influence) does not directly map on to those measured within

the following studies discussed within this introduction (see Rafferty and Griffin, 2004 for a review of the MLQ-X5). Although the MLQ-X5 is the most widely used tool to assess transformational leadership (Avolio and Yammarino, 2002), the instrument has received mixed empirical support regarding its discriminant validity and factor structure (Avolio et al., 1995; Bycio, Hackett, and Allen, 1995). This has led a range of scholars to construct alternate measures adopting a variety of different approaches including: measuring transformational leadership as a global construct (i.e., Dvir et al., 2002), and as a reduced (e.g., Barling et al., 1996; Charbonneau et al., 2001; Beauchamp, Welsh and Hulley, 2007; Spitzmuller and Ilies, 2010) or enhanced set of factors (e.g., Podsakoff et al., 1990; Antonakis et al., 2003).

Building upon the work of Podsakoff et al. (1990), Hardy et al. (2010) developed a differentiated sport-specific measure of transformational leadership. Although the instrument is still in its infancy, to date, the DTLI has demonstrated adequate factor structure (Hardy et al., 2010). Callow et al. (2009) utilised a sample of 309 ultimate Frisbee players to test the hypothesised factor structure through confirmatory factor analysis, before examining the relationship between the measure's seven factors (see section 1.1) and cohesion (i.e., task and social) and performance. These analyses showed three factors (i.e., fostering acceptance of group goals and promoting team work, high performance expectations, and individual consideration) to be linked positively with the desirable

player outcome of task cohesion. Smith et al. (2012) continued this work by examining whether intrateam communication mediated the relationship between these three dimensions of transformational leadership and task cohesion. Using a sample of 199 ultimate frisbee players, Smith et al. (2012) found intrateam communication did mediate the relationship between the aforementioned transformational leadership behaviours and task cohesion. Finally, from a group outcome perspective, Vella, Oades, and Crowe (2013) investigated whether transformational leadership behaviours impacted perceptions of a positive developmental experience within 455 youth soccer players. The results of this study demonstrated three perceived coach transformational leadership behaviours (i.e., individual consideration, intellectual stimulation, and appropriate role modelling) were associated with positive developmental experiences.

The line of enquiry then deviated somewhat from primarily examining the outcomes of transformational leadership and instead began to investigate antecedents of transformational leadership such as leader and follower characteristics. Arthur et al. (2011) examined follower narcissism² as a moderator of the coach behaviour-coach effectiveness relationship. Using a sample of 209 youth players, their results suggested that the **effect** of coach transformational leadership behaviours (i.e., fostering acceptance of group goals and teamwork, high performance expectations) and player effort was positively moderated by the level of player narcissism. Ong

²Narcissism, in this instance, refers to extreme selfishness, a grandiose view of one's own ability and a craving for admiration (Rosenthal and Pittinsky, 2006).

et al. (2015) has since furthered this area of investigation by examining whether individuals higher in narcissism have leader emergent tendencies and also whether perceptions of such leadership qualities are stable over time. Based on two samples (i.e., $N = 112$ and $N = 152$), Ong et al. (2015) reported narcissism was positively associated with peer-rated leadership during initial group formation but these perceptions were not stable over time. Also, the combined score of all six transformational leadership factors significantly mediated the relationship between self-reported narcissism and perceptions of emergent leadership.

1.4 Transformational leader integrity.

As Bauman (2013, p.1) states “Any discussion of the moral character and behavior of leaders must eventually discuss the concept of integrity”. However, as Palanski and Yammarino (2009) rightly argue, the problem with such discussions is the lack of agreement on how integrity is defined. While the broad nuances of defining integrity have been discussed at length (see Bauman, 2013; Palanski and Yammarino, 2009), for the purpose of the present research, Becker’s (1998, p. 157-158) definition of integrity is modified as follows: Integrity is a commitment in thought and action to a morally justifiable set of principles and values. In this instance, the morally justifiable set of principles described are based on those set out by Bass and Steidlmeier (1999). For Bass and Steidlmeier

(2009, p. 197) “true³ transformational leaders differ from imposters (i.e., pseudo-transformational leaders) by their virtues of authenticity, truthfulness, and credibility”. Building upon Burns’ original theory and the work of Ferris et al. (1995; Carey, 1992; Howell, 1989; Bass, 1985), Bass and Steidlmeier (1999) argue that true transformational leaders are identified as morally uplifting (Burns, 1978), liberating (Carey, 1992), trustworthy (Carey, 1992) and altruistic (Kanungo and Mendonca, 1996). Although true transformational leaders are also thought to demonstrate integrity (Parry and Proctor-Thomson, 2002), high moral and ethical principles and, authenticity (Avolio and Gardner, 2005; Luthans and Avolio, 2003), doing so is not a requirement of transformational leadership (Bass and Steidlmeier, 1999).

In contrast, pseudo-transformational leaders either consciously or subconsciously base their beliefs on an immoral foundation and act in bad faith’ (Bass and Steidlmeier, 1999). **Like dark leaders (Cruickshank and Collins, 2014), pseudo-transformational leaders are described as manipulative and Machiavellian (Judge et al., 2009),** but also abusive, unethical, immoral, and egoistic (Barling, Christie and Turner, 2008; Choi, 2006; Price, 2003; Dasborough and Ashkanasey, 2002; Bass and Stedlmeier, 1999). Furthermore, they are similar to the personalised charismatic leaders discussed by Howell (1989) who generate follower identification with the leader for self-aggrandising and exploitative purposes (Choi, 2006),

³For linguistic clarity, the author has used the term true transformational leadership (Dasborough and Ashanasy, 2002) rather than the common authentic transformational leadership (Bass and Steidlmeier, 1999; Price, 2003; Barling, Christie and Turner, 2008; Christie, Barling and Turner, 2011).

pseudo-transformational leaders are controlling and possess a need for power, promoting dependency within their followers and manipulating them to internalise their own flawed vision (Ferris et al., 1995). Although it may appear otherwise, pseudo-transformational leaders have little empathy or regard for those who follow them (Simola et al., 2010), instead, followers are simply a means to help them achieve their egoistic goals (Price, 2003). Although true-transformational leaders may have to be manipulative at times for what they judge to be the common good (Bass and Steidlmeier, 1999: 186), if the manipulation is not for the common good, then the transformational leader is no longer truly transformational.

1.5 Theoretical and empirical models of true and pseudo-transformational leadership.

As previously established, to date, the transformational leader integrity of coaches and the impact such attitudes may have on their players has not been examined. Therefore, given the paucity of such research within the sporting literature, broadening the search to include the disciplines of organisational and moral psychology was a logical step. However, even within these traditionally leadership focused disciplines, transformational leader integrity has only received scant attention (Christie, Barling and Turner, 2011; Rowold, 2008; Turner, Barling, Epitropaki, Butcher, and Milner, 2002; Parry and Proctor-Thomson, 2002). However, since Bass and Steidlmeier (1999) offered a conceptual distinction between true and pseudo-transformational leadership, two theoretical models and one empirical model have emerged within the

literature (i.e., Dasborough and Ashkanasy, 2002; Price, 2003; Barling, Christie and Turner, 2008). While not specific to sports leadership or coaching, such models provide a starting place to begin the examination of transformational leader integrity within the sporting domain.

Although each of these models discuss different approaches to the identification of true and pseudo-transformational leaders, ultimately, they are all interested in the characteristics associated with, and theoretical outcomes of, such leadership. The first model to extend Bass and Steidlmeier's (1999) conceptualisation of true and pseudo-transformational leadership does so by considering the role of followers and more broadly, the leader-follower dynamic (Dasborough and Ashkanasy, 2002). Dasborough and Ashkanasey (2002) focused their attention on the attributions followers construct based on their perceptions of the leader's motives; proposing the relationship between leader and follower is likely to suffer if the follower perceives their leader to be pseudo-transformational. However, as true and pseudo-transformational leaders are theorised to use the same means for different ends (Ferris et al., 1995). **For example**, it is unlikely that true and pseudo-transformational leaders could be accurately distinguished based on follower perceptions alone.

The second model (Price, 2003) builds upon the leadership conceptualisations of Aristotle and a critique of Bass and Stiedlmeier' (1999) framework. Within this model three types of pseudo-transformational leaders are theorised: (1) Base, (2) Incontinent, and (3) Opportunistic. Price (2003) first describes Base-transformational leaders, as openly committed to their egoistic values and as such, their actions reflect these beliefs. Second, Incontinent-transformational leaders are those with a

discrepancy between what they say and what they do. Like Simons (1999) who suggests there is often a mismatch in the values some leaders espouse and the actual values presented within their behaviour, Price (2003) labels such leaders as incontinent, suggesting they **will say the words followers wish to hear**, but behave in the opposite way. They understand that true transformational leaders should possess altruistic values and present the impression that they too are altruistic. However, when given the opportunity, these leaders will ultimately act in their own self-interest. Price (2003) suggests such leaders will have exposed their true attitude and as such, their followers will no longer trust further self-presentations to the contrary. Finally, Opportunistic-transformational leaders are those who present the impression of true transformational leadership and are perceived to be working for the advancement of others. However, again, such leaders are only presenting this image, as at that moment, there is congruence between the needs of the leader and those of the follower. This leads the follower to trust the leader and ultimately, for the time being, the leader is successful in his or her presentation of self.

The final model discussed is the only one to adopt an empirical approach. Barling et al. (2008) developed and tested a model of pseudo-transformational leadership based on two transformational leadership behaviours; namely, idealised influence and inspirational motivation. Within this model, pseudo-transformational leaders are defined, based on follower perceptions, as low in idealised influence and high in inspirational motivation, with true transformational leaders both high in idealised influence and inspirational motivation. Using a sample of 611 executives, their results suggest followers of pseudo-transformational leaders (i.e., low idealised

influence and high inspirational motivation) reported higher levels of leader abuse; felt more dependent on, obedient to, and fearful of their leaders; and had higher levels of job insecurity, compared to followers of transformational leaders (i.e., high idealised influence and inspirational motivation).

While such models have undoubtedly advanced our understanding of true and pseudo-transformational leadership, these models rely on the explicit⁴ perceptions of followers. This is problematic when you consider such perceptions are of pseudo-transformational leaders whom Bass and Steidlmeier (1999, pp. 186) describe as deceptive and manipulative. As such, models that rely on follower perceptions of true and pseudo-transformational leadership are limited, in that, for the behaviour to be perceived it must have occurred.

As Christie, Barling and Turner (2011) suggest, relying on follower perceptions alone to identify true and pseudo-transformational leaders may result in inaccurate classifications. Within their research, Christie, Barling and Turner (2011) asked 179 students to watch the film *12 Angry Men* (Fonda, Rose, and Lumet, 1957) and based on the film's fictional characters, identify those displaying both true and pseudo-transformational leader behaviours. According to Christie, Barling and Turner (2011), within the film, characters demonstrating pseudo-transformational leadership behaviours encourage blind obedience in followers, are self-important, reject the input of followers, and have a desire for power. True transformational characters were, in contrast, group focused, open-minded, and referent with power.

⁴Note that for the purposes of this introduction, the term explicit refers to a form of direct measurement rather than a level of awareness (Fazio and Olsen, 2003).

However, Christie and colleagues found that the students were unable to accurately differentiate between the true and pseudo-transformational leadership characters. As Barling et al. (2008) point out, Bass and Steidlmeier's framework is formed around the implicit⁵ values of the leader. Yet, to date, such an empirical investigation is yet to be provided.

1.6 Social cognition.

Although the aforementioned literature has undoubtedly enlightened the processes involved within transformational leadership, these studies have, as previously stated, largely been reliant on follower perceptions. While such methods may offer an insight into the leader's behaviour, they do not directly access the leader's attitude. While follower or in this instance, player, perceptions are valuable, when the target of perception is someone whom Bass and Steidlmeier (1999, pp. 186) describe as potentially deceptive and manipulative, such perceptions may be fallible (Fazio and Olsen, 2003; Berinsky, 2004) and open to attribution error (Ross, 1977). In other words, when an player perceives his or her coach to be transformational, it is likely they will link these positive behaviours with those of the leaders' character (i.e., if my leader behaves in a transformational manner then he/she must be of integrity). However, as Price (2003) states, this may not be the case. Further, contextual issues may also cloud the player's perception (Gilbert and Malone, 1995). For instance,

⁵Note that there is some linguistic ambiguity within the literature regarding the term *implicit*. For the purposes of this introduction the term implicit refers to an indirect measure of assessment (see Fazio and Olsen, 2003) rather than an automatic or unconscious response (De Houwer, 2006).

consider two players, one has worked with an abusive coach before forming his or her perception of a new coach, while the other trained under another coach who could only be described as saintly. In this scenario, it is unlikely each player will fully consider these situational factors and their subsequent judgement is likely to be affected (i.e., the first player will likely overestimate perceptions of their coach's integrity, while the second player may underestimate such attitudes).

The obvious solution to this issue is to directly assess the integrity of the coach. However, as Price (2003) suggests, leaders who possess an attitude towards pseudo-transformational leadership principles are likely to conceal their core⁶ beliefs. To add further confusion, individuals may or may not be aware of such beliefs and may hold separate spontaneous and deliberate attitudes (i.e., dual process model; Paxton and Greene, 2010; Greene et al., 2001). While recent research (Hahn, 2014) has gone some way to challenge the popular representations of implicit attitudes as unconscious and inaccessible to introspection (Hahn, 2014), this is still an early line of enquiry which has many questions left to examine (e.g., at what point does awareness of attitudes begin).

Like Hahn, Bandura (1991) argues that individuals have some knowledge of their core beliefs. However, rather than experiencing a lack of accessibility to introspective attitudes, Bandura (1991) suggests many choose to avoid the act of introspection in an attempt to protect their desired identity image. **When introspection of**

⁶Note that there is some conceptual ambiguity regarding what constitutes a core attitude (see Hughes, Barnes-Holmes and De Houwer, 2011 for a introduction). For the purposes of this introduction, the term core refers to an automatically activated attitude formed outside of deliberation.

morally questionable conduct is required, Bandura (1999) suggests that individuals may attempt to cognitively restructure their morally disengaged actions as benign or worthy through the use of (a) moral justification, (b) sanitising their language and or through the construction of advantageous comparisons, (c) by diffusing or displacing personal responsibility, (d) disregarding or minimising the impact of their actions, and (e) attributing blame to, and dehumanisation of, those in whom they have abused. In contrast, Greenwald et al. (1995, p. 5) suggest such cognition may exist at a deeper level below consciousness:

“introspectively unidentified (or inaccurately identified) traces of past experience that mediate responses”.

However, they have since clarified this statement to mean a lack of awareness of the source of the attitude (Hahn, 2014).

Both Bandura (1991) and Greenwald et al. (1995) suggest that in cases where the individual, for whatever reason, is not aware of their beliefs, they are likely to self-present deliberately reported attitudes in line with what they deem to be the social norm. In this instance, Price (2003) suggests there may be a further challenge in that the leader may be conscious of their beliefs, but choose to conceal them in order to present themselves in a more favourable light (i.e., Social Desirability Bias; Crowne and Marlow, 1960). This still creates two problems when assessing transformational leader integrity: (1) pseudo-transformational leaders may know their beliefs and attempt to manipulate the process, and (2) leaders may not consciously be aware of their beliefs (Nisbett and Wilson, 1977) and instead report perceived culturally

accepted attitudes (Fisher and Katz, 2000).

Fortunately, in recent years indirect measures have emerged, which circumvent the need for participants to deliberately report on the desired information (Fazio and Olsen, 2003). Examples of such measures include: the recording free implicit association test (IAT; Rothermund et al., 2009), single block IAT (Teige-Mocigemba, Klauer and Rothermund, 2008), single category IAT (Karpinsky and Steinman, 2006), implicit association test (Greenwald et al., 2003; 1998), Go/No-Go task (Nosek and Banaji, 2001), and sequential priming task (Fazio et al., 1995). Strack and Deutsch's (2004) Reflective Impulsive Model (RIM), automatic attitudes can be described as spontaneous mental representations (i.e., the residue of previous observations, thoughts, and experiences) that are automatically formed. Such automatic evaluations are thought to shape the spontaneous decision making process, essentially providing a fast and efficient approach to the evaluation of environmental cues; ultimately shaping behavioural orientation (Hofmann, Friese and Wiers., 2008). To be clear, while the source of such mental representations may be unconscious (Greenwald et al., 1995), the attitudes themselves need not be (Hahn, 2014). Nor are they necessarily distinct from deliberately held attitudes (Fazio and Olsen, 2003). Instead, awareness of such attitudes is likely graduated along a continuum (Hofmann and Wilson, 2010) with direct access based on the individual level of introspection and self-presentation. However, as stated previously, when an attitude is socially sensitive, an awareness of an attitude will not necessarily result in the individual honestly reporting on that attitude (De Houwer, 2006).

According to Fazio's (1990) MODE Model of attitude-behaviour, automatically

activated attitudes should guide behaviour, unless people are motivated and able to control the influence of these attitudes. This is particularly relevant within sport, as Bargh (1996) suggests that when faced with a time-pressurised, stressful and tiring environment, automatic attitudes become relied upon over deliberate attitudes. Similarly, Strack and Deutsch (2004; Fazio and Towles-Schwen, 1999) support this notion and suggest individuals are likely to respond based on automatic impulses when tired, distracted or rushed. Collins and Jackson (2015) offer an alternative explanation and instead argue the importance of automatic attitudes may increase in line with an increase in cognitive demand and argue this may explain why, when overwhelmed, some leaders lose self-control and behave in a destructive manner. With this in mind, it is important to utilise indirect measures within sport; particularly to assess socially sensitive and potentially destructive behaviour, such as coach transformational leader integrity.

1.7 Summary and future research directions.

Over the last decade interest in applying transformational leadership to sport has burgeoned. Yet as this introduction has shown, only a fraction of the potential processes within this domain have been explored. While there is strong evidence to suggest transformational leadership behaviours are transferable to sport and have an impact on various player centred (e.g., **attitudes**) and group (e.g., cohesion, performance, communication, etc.) outcomes, further examination of such outcomes, and importantly the antecedents of such relationships, is required. As outlined here, one such antecedent of transformational leadership behaviour requiring investigation is

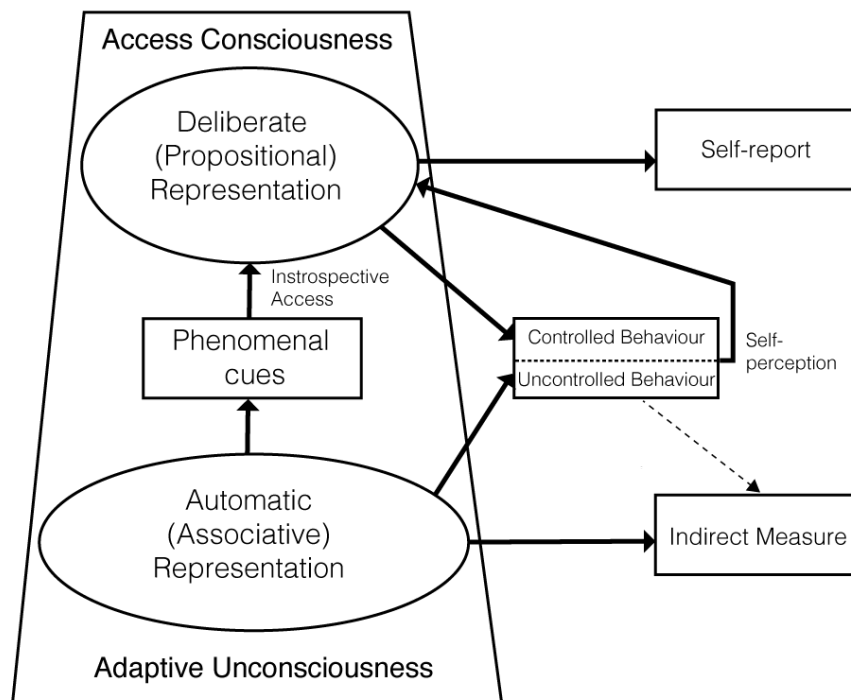


Figure 1.1: A self-inference model of implicit-explicit consistency (adapted from Hoffman and Wilson, 2010).

leader implicit social cognition. As sport is a dynamic concoction of interpersonal relationships and frequent, pressurised contexts, it offers the ideal environment to assess automatic attitudes and their affects. Yet despite its obvious benefits, to date, sport has largely ignored implicit social cognitive methods and has instead relied on traditional, pencil and paper approaches. Although valuable, such measures may only highlight one, deliberately considered aspect of the overall picture.

More broadly, further research into the components of transformational leader integrity is also required (Barling, Christie and Turner, 2008); particularly empirical studies that untangle some of the philosophical issues surrounding transformational

leader integrity. However, before such research can occur, it is prudent to build upon the author's personal experiences (Mills, 2015) and first explore integrity, in-situ, through the use of qualitative, inductive methods. Once the phenomena is identified, implicit social cognition may then be used to decipher automatic attitudes towards transformational leader integrity and ultimately examine the forms of true and pseudo-transformational leadership (i.e., differentiated based on their attitudes and self-presentation) discussed by Price (2003). Once such an indirect bi-dimensional assessment of automatic attitudes, based on Bass and Steidlmeier's (1999) theoretical framework, that can inherently classify attempts to control responses (Price, 2003) can be developed, it would undoubtedly advance the field significantly. Once such a reliable approach to measuring indirect transformational leadership attitudes exists, second generation questions, which tease apart and predict the impact both attitudes and behaviours have on followers can be empirically investigated. Therefore, the overall aim of the current thesis is to examine transformational leader integrity within performance environments (primarily sport) and ultimately develop and validate an indirect measure of transformational leader integrity. The specific purposes of the three studies conducted during the course of this thesis are detailed below.

1.7.1 Purpose of the studies listed within this dissertation.

The current programme of research builds upon the author's personal experiences of amateur and academy level football management (Mills, 2015) and seeks to advance the literature by examining the cognitive processes that underlie coach leadership

and integrity. To achieve this:

Study one

Study one adopts a qualitative approach by exploring social cognition in expert coach leaders who have previously worked in elite, top-level professional football. Three descriptive interviews are undertaken to assess the reflections of expert football managers when discussing transformational leader integrity, behaviours, and self-presentations. Using the rich, in-depth introspective transcripts, the data acquired within study one is used to begin the process of untangling the psychological mechanisms associated with transformational leader integrity within an elite, performance driven environment.

Study two

Study two then utilises an implicit social cognition approach to answer Christie, Barling and Turner's (2011) call for a measure that differentiates leaders based on their automatic attitudes towards the mechanisms of true transformational leadership (Bass and Steidlmeier, 1999). Based on a heterogeneous sample, study two utilises the terms generated within study one and amalgamates these constructs with the existing organisational and moral psychology literature to create an automatic measure of transformational leader integrity. The face validity of the measure is then discussed, before evidence of the reliability, construct and convergent validity of the instrument is presented.

Study three

Building on the findings from study one and study two, study three then further develops the instrument within a sporting sample by examining whether the automatic measure of transformational leader integrity is a predictor of athlete reported commitment. To achieve this, athletes' are asked to report on their level of commitment to the team, in addition to offering their perceptions of their coach's ethical integrity. Likewise, coaches are asked to complete the indirect measure of transformational leader integrity developed in study two. It is hypothesised that automatic attitudes of transformational leader integrity will provide greater predictive ability as compared to deliberately formulated athlete perceptions of their leaders' ethical integrity due to a lack of deliberation on the part of the athlete and subsequent attribution error.

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Chapter 2

The coach as transformational leader: A descriptive and intrinsic case study of three expert soccer managers.

2.1 Abstract

Background and Objectives: The present study is the first to examine transformational leadership behaviours (Podsakoff et al., 1990) and integrity attitudes (Bass and Steidlmeier, 1999) of expert, former Premier League and International level football managers. To provide a rich, detailed exploration of the expert managers' experiences, a qualitative, holistic content analysis approach was adopted to explore the narrative career histories of three expert soccer managers. Constructed narratives revealed some transformational leadership behaviours to be more present than others with the expert football sample utilised. The key behaviours discussed **were** inspirational messages or team talks (i.e., inspirational motivation), empathy (i.e., individualised consideration), introducing new training methods (i.e., intellectual stimulation), using exemplar players (i.e., appropriate role modelling), and goal setting (i.e., high performance expectations). However, the use and effect of such behaviours varied greatly between managers. Each of the managers also claimed to have been willing to "bend the rules" as a player and frequently used euphemistic labels (Bandura, 1991) to describe such action. However, upon entering management, all three managers claimed to have adjusted such attitudes without providing an explanation for this.

2.2 Introduction

Becoming an expert sports manager¹ requires a great deal of time, dedication, and skill (Abraham, Collins and Martindale, 2006). Within association football (also known as soccer, futbol or simply football), the vast majority of expert managers started their sporting careers as players; eventually beginning a career in management or coaching at the conclusion of their playing career (Bridgewater, 2010). **While coaches within other sports may also experience similar challenges (Gilbert, Côté, and Mallett, 2006), it is fair to say that as the Premier League is a global product at the apex of international attention, this creates added pressures and financial rewards to those involved within the competition. Although comparable to other top international competitions, at a domestic level, the challenges faced by top-level football coaches are incomparable.** Therefore, due to its progression pathway, relatively insular nature, and its position as the dominant domestic sport, the Premier League offers a unique environment to study coach transformational leadership behaviour and integrity.

Over the past decade, sports leadership scholars have increasingly turned to transformational leadership (Bass, 1985) in an attempt to better understand leadership behaviours in sport (Smith et al., 2012). However, much of the present literature has focused on either student (see Zacharatos, Barling, and Kelloway, 2000; Char-

¹In this instance, the term Manager encompasses all roles from the traditional perception of the manager as responsible for multiple facets of the club's running through to the more contemporary term of Head Coach.

bonneau, Barling, and Kelloway, 2001) or amateur populations (see Callow et al., 2009; Arthur et al., 2011; Smith et al., 2012; Vella, Oades and Crowe, 2013). To date, no research has examined the transformational leader integrity or behaviours of expert sports coaches. Before discussing how transformational leadership behaviours and integrity are applicable to sport, it is important to first provide an overview of transformational leadership as a theory. Burns (1978, p. 20) defines transformational leadership as “a process where leaders and followers engage in a mutual process of raising one another to higher levels of morality and motivation”. Like Burns, Bass (1985) suggests transformational leaders build relationships with their followers; using personal, emotional, and inspirational interchanges, which motivates followers to exceed performance expectations. However, it is worth reemphasising that Bass disagrees with the Burns assertions regarding morality with Burns (1978) suggesting that immoral characters could not be transformational leaders. According to Podsakoff et al. (1990) transformational leaders raise performance and motivation by adopting the following six behaviours: (1) inspirational motivation, (2) individualised consideration, (3) intellectual stimulation, (4) high performance expectations, (5) appropriate role modelling, and (6) fostering the acceptance of group goals.

In sport, managers high in inspirational motivation are likely to use both words and actions to challenge their players to achieve the team’s shared vision; creating an enthusiastic team environment in the process (Bass and Riggio, 2012). For example, current Swansea City manager Garry Monk, discusses how his former manager (while Monk was still playing), Brendan Rodgers, inspired him to enter management:

He’s a great guy, someone I look up to. He’s a fantastic manager and

a person. He's someone I speak to regularly – we have chats, not just about football but about everything. He is someone to try and aspire to. Look at what he's done in his career, from where he was at Reading and Watford and within a couple of years of coming here he was managing Liverpool, so he's definitely an inspiration to someone like myself. (2014, December).

In the aforementioned quote, Monk discusses how Rodgers demonstrates inspirational motivation (i.e., the leader's ability to motivate and inspire his or her followers to perform) through his openness to and by discussing his pathway as a manager. Managers may also attempt to intellectually stimulate their players; testing their ability to creatively find solutions to problems (Bass, 1985) in order to achieve high performance or behavioural excellence (Bass and Riggio, 2012) on the pitch. Similarly, managers who take an interest in their players to make them feel valued (e.g., as in the quote), both as players and as human beings are likely to be individually considerate. Likewise, managers who foster the acceptance of team goals and teamwork will encourage the players to share responsibility (Bradford and Cohen, 1984) and work together for shared goals (Kouzes and Posner, 2007). Football managers who demonstrate such behaviours are likely to be deemed an appropriate role model by their players; especially if the behaviours are desired (Kouzes and Posner, 2007) and deemed to be congruent with the manager's core beliefs (Bass and Riggio, 2012).

Given the extraordinary power authority figures are able to exert (see Milgram, 1974), it is unsurprising that coaches have a highly influential effect on the integrity and behaviours of their players (see Dodge and Roberston, 2004). As someone

who is meant to model appropriate behaviour (Bass and Riggio, 2012; Podsakoff et al., 1990), the manager, as team leader has a responsibility to guide his or her players both through their words and actions. While transformational leaders are able to support their followers to perform beyond expectations (Bass, 1985), the outcomes exceeded may not be shared by all. Should the coach manipulate their followers and use their transformational leadership ability for their own selfish gains, Bass and Steidlmeier (1999) would describe such leaders as pseudo-transformational. In contrast, if the coach uses transformational leadership behaviours for the advancement of the players, then they would be described as truly transformational. Broadly, true transformational leaders are seen as moral (Burns, 1978), trustworthy (Carey, 1992) and altruistic (Kanungo and Mendonca, 1996). Alternatively, pseudo-transformational leaders are immoral and egoistic (Bass and Steidlmeier, 1999), manipulative, abusive, self-aggrandising and exploitative (Barling, Christie and Turner, 2008; Choi, 2006; Price, 2003; Dasborough and Ashkanasey, 2002; Bass and Steidlmeier, 1999). Unlike true transformational leaders who are referent with power, pseudo-transformational leaders crave control over others.

The coach plays a key role in developing the ethical culture within the group (Dodge and Robertson, 2004). Somewhat worryingly, however, it appears that many coaches model immoral behaviours. For instance, based on a sample of youth players, Shields et al. (2005) reported 36% of coaches had yelled at a player for making a mistake, while 8% had encouraged their players to injure an opponent. Shields et al. (2005) also reported 4% of the coaches they had assessed had hit or kicked one of their players. Given such figures are gleaned from youth sport, reported instances

may be even more frequent within the pressurised environments of professional sport. While such reports highlight the presence of abusive leadership in sport, they do not explore the processes involved with such behaviour or the integrity of the leaders themselves.

Due to the paucity of existing literature examining transformational leadership behaviours and integrity in sport presently, an exploratory approach has been selected. As little is presently known about the leadership behaviours and integrity attitudes of expert coaches, a narrow subset of expert football managers operating at arguably, the highest levels of English, European, and International competition were selected. The aim of such a specific approach was to facilitate a greater understanding of the types of leadership behaviours presented and integrity attitudes held, while also collecting rich data (Silverman, 2006), from those with first-hand experience (Fletcher and Arnold, 2011).

2.3 Methods

2.3.1 Methodology

The present study uses collective stories generated and adopts an intrinsic and ideographic case-study approach (Stake, 2005). While there are many forms of more commonly adopted case study designs (Thomas, 2011), intrinsic case-studies tend to be exploratory in nature and focused on a perceived interest in the case itself rather than in extending theory or generalising across cases (Stake, 2005). For the purpose of this ex-

ploration, interviews were conducted with three expert football coaches (c.f., Abraham, Collins, and Martindale, 2006) with the aim of enhancing our limited understanding of coach leadership behaviour and integrity attitudes at arguably the highest level of professional sport. Patton (2002) suggests that when the aim is to explore dynamic, intricate career reflections case studies and qualitative interviews more generally are deemed to be appropriate methods.

While such an approach is not without criticism (see Miles, 1979), a critical realist stance was adopted throughout the study; with participants' experiences considered real for the individual, while acknowledging the derived data was subject to the participant's and researcher's perceptions of the cultural, social, and historical context in which they occurred (Bunge, 1993). Further, although the participants were encouraged to introspect, it is also acknowledged the reflections presented here are likely to have been influenced by the way the participants experienced, made sense of, and recounted the phenomena discussed (Braun and Clarke, 2006). That said, in an attempt to reduce such issues and negate the potential use of self-presentation, each of the managers were assured, to the best of the researcher's ability, that their identities would be kept confidential.

2.3.2 Participants

Given the specific nature of the target sample, purposeful sampling was used to recruit expert coaches, who had held professional managerial employment with elite adult teams, at the top-level of domestic or international soccer (cf., Abrahams et al., 2006). Further, to aid recall and access the experiences of contemporary managers, only those who had exited their most recent management position within the last decade were included (i.e., 2003-2013). The sample was comprised of three unemployed expert managers who ranged in age from 52 to 68 years. The three managers had a combined total of 48 years professional management experience and spent an average 2.8 years in each position at a total of 17 clubs ² (two of which were the participants' respective National teams). Each manager interviewed had achieved their Union of European Football Associations (UEFA) Professional Coaching License and had played professionally for a number of years before entering into management.

2.3.3 Procedures

Once written informed consent was given and familiarisation completed, semi-structured, in-depth interviews were conducted. An interview guide (**see appendix one**) was developed after a review of the literature (Patton, 2002); this had previously been distributed to participants to aid introspection and enable trust to develop between the interviewer and interviewee (Smith and Sparkes, 2005). During each interview, the researcher took a facilitative stance, acting as an active listener in order to let

²Details of the leagues managed in have been excluded to maintain confidentiality.

the participants control the conversation and tell their stories in their own words (Smith and Sparkes, 2005).

2.3.4 Data Analysis

The **three** interviews ranged in duration from 40 to 79 minutes and were transcribed verbatim. Once the data were transcribed the author undertook holistic content analysis (Lieblich, Tuval-Mashiach, and Zilber, 1998). **To achieve this, each career history was initially kept intact rather than identifying commonalities or themes across the raw data from participants. As the focus of the study is to examine transformational leadership behaviour and integrity attitudes, by preserving the chronological order of events and the fragmented nature of the stories, the results are able to first discuss the individual, before tentative connections between the collective stories can be made in the discussion. As Smith and Sparkes (2012) state “[While] other analyses, such as content analysis, provide a way in which researchers may conceptualise all independent themes that are present in a narrative; they do not, however, provide a way for researchers to link those themes in relation to an evolving story”.**

Following Lieblich, Tuval-Mashiach, and Zilber’s (1998) protocol, the author first immersed himself within the stories, before initial narrative summaries for each participant and collective global impressions were written. Through this process, the focus of each story was then identified and key events highlighted. The individual stories presented were

then written and re-written with consideration given to the representation of the individual's behind the stories. The author then further examined the stories for contradictions, overlaps, and to understand how they contributed to the emerging narratives, before integrating the analyses (Denzin, 1978). Once the inductive element of the analysis was completed, the author then adopted a deductive approach by identifying tentative theoretical connections within the existing literature (Strauss and Corbin, 1998). On completion, the transcripts and summaries of the results were sent to each participant to test the credibility of the enquiry, establish whether participants believed they had been fairly represented, and that the analyses were accurate. The results are presented below using direct quotes to enable readers to better understand how the transformational leadership behaviours were employed and the integrity of expert soccer managers formed (Biddle et al., 2001).

2.4 Results

In the cases that follow, the reflections of James, Simon, and Fergus (pseudonyms) are discussed using direct quotes. However, as in this instance, the researcher is the primary instrument through which the data were collected (Patton, 2002), information regarding the author's background should be disclosed so the credibility of the findings can be appropriately judged. As previously stated, the author conducted all of the interviews and analysed the data. He was a 31-year old, male, Ph.D. candidate in his third year of postgraduate study. His academic background was in psychol-

ogy, and his professional background was in amateur, youth and semi-professional football coaching. As such, the interviewer had some background knowledge of the demands of football management, and the terminology used by the respondents. This prior experience assisted with the initial access to, and also in building a rapport with, the participants (e.g., each interview began, without the author's control, with the participants conducting their own interview of his background). Both his previous qualitative and sporting experience were also of assistance during the analysis process, as he was able to consider the situations discussed from the participant's viewpoint (Eklund, 1993; Fontana and Frey, 1994).

2.4.1 Fergus: The inspirational leader.

Having started his career in the lower leagues Fergus "fought his way up to the top divisions" as a player and was rightfully proud of his achievements in doing so. As a player he classed himself as an "observer" on the periphery, rather than inside the group. As his playing career drew to a conclusion, he began to consider going into management as he had worked under good role models as a player and wanted to see if he could replicate the successes of his mentors. He completed his coaching qualifications while still playing and eventually took up a player-manager position at a club within a lower level foreign league. Having enjoyed his first foray into management, he was asked to return to the club where he had experienced the most success as a player to manage the club's reserve team. After a brief period he made the step back up to first team manager within the lower echelons of English football. Like he did as a player, Fergus worked his way up to the top-flight as

a manager, eventually landing an international managerial position and a job in the Premier League. However, events did not go as planned and he found himself becoming disillusioned by the lack of “loyalty”, constant need to “spin plates” and loneliness. As a manager he had carried forward the distance he had felt as a player, which led him to feel lonely when managing. Despite having a team of support staff around him, he discussed how on one occasion a coach had walked out of a meeting, stating ultimately the decision was Fergus’s. This seemed to have an effect on his view of management and the responsibility he felt for the team; believing the coach was right and that the ultimate decision rested on his shoulders. Although he stated football management was a lonely profession, he was quick to point out the loneliness he felt was only due to the profession and not his personal life.

Fergus states his integrity may have been influenced by his playing career. While a member of a particularly famous team of underdogs, he recalls feeling justified in using any means to “level the playing field”

As a player we would push it... we would bend the rules as far as they could be bent. And we thought that was fair game to be frank. We thought it was fair game because we weren’t paid as much as them. They had all the flaming equipment we never had, they’re massive clubs and we weren’t and therefore anything that levelled it up we considered fair game. You know we played loud music in the corridors at rooms, we did things that bent the rules, didn’t break them but bent them as far as they could be bent. You know if a player went down injured we were all around the referee trying to get the player sent off or such like – you

know all the stuff that would be frowned upon now.

However, he sees such issues differently now as a manager and states he “would not bend the rules now” and has “never discussed” diving with his players. Instead he “ignores” such issues and even though he has managed some players “who would go down at the drop of a hat” he believes “it is for the referee to sort out”. Again, he appears to believe moral issues should also be sorted out by others and suggests such attitudes should come from the team:

Suarez is a great case. You would have thought one or two of your team mates would have told you in no uncertain terms that he was right out of order [for biting an opponent], but you know the whole club tried to defend his actions. His team-mate has written in the paper defending him saying he’s a great character. Well he obviously isn’t because he’s a racist and a serial biter. If somebody in your office was to bite people regularly they wouldn’t be considered a great character would they?

From the interview, it is clear he develops/selects players from a similar mould to what he was himself (i.e., an underdog): “I want them to be honest, honest on the field, honest off the field and I will be, within the scriptures of being a manager, as honest, as I can with them. The way I treat them with respect, I expect to be returned”. He also discusses that he tries to behave authentically with the players and avoid giving a “false impression”. He states he has “distanced myself from the players because my own personality is of that ilk and I think that if I’m suddenly gregarious with my players it would look false and therefore it wouldn’t work”. Despite giving the impression throughout the interview that he was genuine with

his players, when directly asked if his players got to see the real him he stated that the players did not get to know the “real” him. However, it was clear from the interview that he felt his identity, as a person, was directly linked to that of a football manager.

As a leader he believes his main strength is the ability to “hold players up” (e.g., inspire and motivate players to perform to their highest capability). However, during the interview he demonstrated his concern that he could not maintain this function over a sustained period of time. That said, his approach is to try to:

...raise them [the team] up to the highest they can be – that’s basically my philosophy. I don’t expect miracles I just believe that if you follow what I’m doing and do as I ask that we can perhaps achieve more than if you didn’t.

However, towards the perceived end of his managerial career and five years at a club, he recalls a player telling him “he wasn’t giving the same [inspirational] speeches before games anymore”. Although disappointed, he was aware that he had lost a little of the spark he had previously felt, but felt helpless to halt the decline: “there is nothing new I can say; it’s hard work trying to think of inspirational things to say each week”.

His most notable achievements were arguably at international level where he transformed a struggling team to one that was highly competitive. He suggests international management suited him due to the limited contact time and number of matches (i.e., he could inspire the players for ten games a year, but not forty or fifty).

After a conflict with a player he showed his adaptability by changing his initial transactional behaviour of passively managing by exception (i.e., waiting for an issue to come up before resolving it), as he felt such an approach was not congruent to modern football.

...we're training and one of the players is mucking about when I'm trying to talk to someone else about some aspect of something and I turned round and I bollocked him, as I would do as a lower league manager you know, "fucking listen to what I'm fucking doing" I bollocked him and thought nothing of it at the time. The player didn't speak to me for the next two days, in fact he never spoke to me again. It changed my philosophy. When I was a player you got bollocked, you fucked up and you got bollocked, you got told in no uncertain terms you were crap. Once you'd finished you forgot it and you went home and the next day you start again. That experience made me think, can you manage by explaining to players where they're going wrong rationally all the time? And that's it... I changed my management theme based on that one incident and I thought just be rational with them [the players] at all stages.

He states when starting out in management "he wanted to do everything", but has since learnt to delegate tasks out to his coaches. As his career progressed he also learnt to be more rational in both his approach to players and his overall behaviour as a coach. He argues to some it may appear that he has lost some of the passion for the job, as he no longer feels the need to run up and down the touchline, but

that such behaviour has no bearing on the manager's overall passion for the job. Although his career has been in decline for the past few years, he does not feel he is primarily responsible for his team's failings and instead blames his players and the clubs he worked within. That said, he does acknowledge that he played a part in his team's failures by suggesting he has asked himself why the players had underperformed.

2.4.2 Simon: The teaching focused leader.

After a number of years playing within a lower league club, Simon was presented with an opportunity at "a small club" to coach the club's reserve team due to injury when in his early 30s. Having originally considered coaching a temporary way of keeping involved during his rehabilitation from injury, he found that he "quite liked it", which led to him retiring from playing to "focus on coaching". He then spent a number of years as an assistant first team manager within an emerging lower league team, before one of the largest clubs in world football appointed him as their assistant first team coach. After "eight or nine years" working as an assistant, he felt ready to take on the challenge as a first team manager. Based on his vast experience as an assistant, he achieved his initial first team managerial position with a mid-table Premier League team and stayed within this position for a number of years. His career then progressed into international management, however, this was short lived and he was quickly dismissed. After nearly a year out of work, he found employment within a number of European leagues and has since returned back to England.

Simon saw himself as being on the inside with the players as a coach, however, he believes he has to be more distant now as a manager. During the interview Simon came across as someone who was professional and systematic in his position as manager. He is “task-orientated” and places improving the “player and team at the centre of everything” he does. This theme emerged throughout the discussion as he states his primary aim is to make players “better when they leave than when they come in”. He tries to do this by creating an “enjoyable and worthwhile” training environment. He also attempts to “motivate [the players] by trying to inspire them”. He does this primarily through role modelling “examples of other players” to demonstrate “what can be achieved”. He suggests he “very much” tries “to be a goal setter” and support each player “to over achieve and do what they’re capable of”. He also makes sure to “get good coaches around” and is referent with power; delegating tasks and responsibilities to his staff. Simon not only relies on his staff in a coaching capacity, but also to help to “create and enforce a professional culture” where the players understand their “roles and responsibilities”.

Simon believes his players and staff only get to know him as Simon the manager rather than Simon the person. It is only after staff have known him for many years that he shows his true self. This form of controlled self-presentation was also present throughout the interview, as he was somewhat guarded and gave one word answers to questions, which makes it difficult to infer further meaning from his words. However, he was keen to portray his professionalism and his reflectivity. Although he was often guarded, he mentioned he takes “a reflective approach to management” and tries to “assess mistakes and learn from it”, before moving on. He sees himself as someone

that has “changed enormously” throughout his career and believes this is due to his willingness to learn. As a manager, he believes himself to be a “teacher” and someone who behaves “in the right way”; trying to make sure the players go onto bigger clubs and are better players for working with him. However, should a player not adhere to his “basic principles” and cross the “lines in the sand which you can’t cross (i.e., having a poor attitude, both on and off the field)” and is not “valuable to the team then he’ll be out”. That said, if the player is “valuable to the team” he will “spend time” to “teach”, but that it “depends on the individual”.

Simon claims that as a player he “was always trying to cut corners with rules and things”. He uses the label “craft” to describe seeking an unfair playing advantage, but claims his “philosophy has changed on that” now he is a manager. Again, he was somewhat guarded on this subject, but stated he “likes to win the right way” and he would not encourage his players to seek an unfair advantage. Like many components of his managerial approach, he takes a pragmatic approach to such issues and suggests “it’s a thin line” and “every incident is different and very difficult” to judge.

2.4.3 James: The player centred leader.

James was something of a football prodigy; making his First Division³ debut at the age of 17. However, after growing “impatient” at the lack of playing time, he eventually moved on to a team where he was “guaranteed first team football”. While he had enjoyed his career and was happy to continue playing “as he was addicted

³Now known as the Premier League.

to football”, he found himself out of the football league in his late twenties. Unexpectedly, he received a telephone call from a former manager who had recommended him for a managerial position. At 28 years of age James felt he was “too young” to be a manager, citing both his age and that he was “still playing” as evidence he was unsuitable for the role. However, the chairman refused to accept his rationale and instead told him “if you’re good enough you’re old enough”. James spent a number of years as manager of this non-league club, which he terms “his apprenticeship”.

Having learnt his trade he accepted a full-time coaching position within a league club and where he eventually worked his way up to become the first team manager. Within this first, full-time managerial position, he led the team to numerous promotions, before eventually reaching the top division of English soccer. James “survived” the challenge of managing the team for nearly nine “wonderful years”, before leaving to take over as manager at one of England’s most successful clubs. After a number of shorter spells with teams, both within the Premier League and Championship, he eventually slipped away from management and took alternative roles within football (i.e., Director of Football, Scout, Consultant, Pundit, Ambassador, etc.).

James believes his managerial identity was shaped by first-hand experience of “suffering bad management”, believing he learnt from the mistakes the managers he had worked under as a player: “when you realise a man’s deficiencies you think I wouldn’t have done it that way”. Unlike the managers he had played for who were “unsympathetic, poor mentors, discouraging and disorganised”, he tried to be “patient, listening to their [the players] point of view, and treating everyone

similarly”. While he considers his patience to primarily be a strength, retrospectively he “can think of a couple of occasions” where he probably “could have been tougher”. That said, overall he was happy with his leadership ability and his skill in keeping “players involved and thinking all the time”. He discusses his desire to work with “creative players” and he wanted them to “think creatively” to solve problems on the pitch. Unlike his former lower league managers, he tried to be “organised” and behave a little differently:

It’s a different world lower down, things are often jumbled up, coaching is disorganised and I learnt from all that you know we have to be organised. We have to get people in who give a different thought. I brought a man in who did wonderful things with their [the players] body movement. I also brought a guy in, who I learnt from, who did sessions in rhythmic music.

Within the interview James came across as someone who cares deeply about football and in particular the players he works with. He appears empathetic and suggests he spoke in a way that “players appreciate”. While some coaches “hounded players very aggressively”, he acknowledged many young players are “very sensitive” and do not need the added pressure. With this in mind, he “tried to be calm and it’s very important for you to try and be calm, in my opinion”, while presenting the impression of someone who can be trusted.

As a leader, James placed a huge emphasis on the team’s work ethic⁴ suggesting that while he wanted to treat each player “equally” it became difficult once he began

⁴An ethical principle that places the greatest value on hard work and diligence.

to work with more well known players with “international caps and bigger wages”. However, he was keen to stress to these players that within a team “you need the artists and the artisans”. Although a “very difficult” balance, he believes he tried to “give as much criticism or indeed praise, regardless of the player’s stature”. James also considers himself to be a “fair motivator” and relied on “psychological ploys” such as: “playing for your family and your next contract” as well as “playing for each other”. Rather than attempting to increase the pressure on his players, he used such statements so they could draw from inspiration in their personal and professional lives. Although he claims he does not know whether he was viewed as inspirational by his players, he “hopes” he was, but admits he relied heavily on his captains to handle a lot of the dressing room. Despite his considerable achievements in football, James comes across as a humble man who is quick to downplay his own impact and praise others. For example, he believes he was fortunate to inherit a number of great captains throughout his career who were “leaders of men”, many of whom went on to become successful managers and contact him for advice, which gives him “great pleasure”.

In terms of integrity, although he does not consider himself to be a “referee baiter”, he recalls an incident where he acted aggressively and was accompanied by “two policeman”, off of the pitch after remonstrating with the referee. While “[it was just] a bit of finger wagging, nothing majorly swearing or whatever”, he did lose his temper, which required him to explain his actions to the Football Association – although they failed to take any action. He also mentioned one story in which he experienced racial tensions between a group of his players, which resulted in

a “bubbling antagonism and jealousy” that damaged the team spirit. However, despite observing the issue, he claims he “probably never got that together as well as I should have done”. James also described another incident where he made a flippant remark about a player, which was picked up by the national press. Although he suggests there was no malice to the comment, he suggests the incident “turned very badly against me and the player attacked me in the press the following week, you know, [for being] disrespectful”.

When asked whether he felt those within football behaved morally, James answered:

Certainly the answer on a broad basis would be no, erm, but certain people at certain clubs do things correctly... I’m not saying the game is corrupt, but there is a cynicism that goes on in the game. Some of the bullshit, some of the rubbish we read is frightening to an ex-manager... in my era the managers were more moral, more honest... the people within the game weren’t corrupted by the massive financial incentives that are now awash in the game.

In terms of on field behaviour, he suggests he “never spoke about it (i.e., players diving or acting outside of the rules of the game)”. Pointing to one example, he suggests were an opponent player on a booking, he would move his most skillful player across to play against him, but noted this action is within the rules, if not necessarily the spirit of the game. While he does not condone breaking the rules he believes “it’s down to the referees to make greater punishments and the only real sanction for any team that continually abuses the rules is for a points deduction”.

2.5 Discussion

The in-depth, qualitative, interviews clustered around the participant's transformational leadership behaviour, self-presentation, and integrity. Each of the participants demonstrated transformational leadership behaviours and discussed motivating the players to perform beyond the level of their normal expectations (Bass, 1985). However, while this was Fergus's forte, he found he could only "hold a team up" for a relatively short period of time. This is consistent with much of the transformational leadership literature (Shamir, 2011; Yukl, 2006), which suggests that while behaviours such as inspirational messages (i.e., team-talks) may have a strong effect on follower's emotions and efficacy perceptions in the short-term, these effects are likely to be temporary and may subside or disappear when expectations are not met.

Two of the three managers (i.e., Simon and James) instead, primarily discussed inspiring and motivating their players through role modelling using exemplar players. However, the use of exemplar others as an appropriate role model is not, to the author's knowledge, explicitly referred to within the literature. Instead, the role of modelling appropriate behaviour generally falls to the leader. In this instance, both managers immediately referred to playing examples, when discussing appropriate role models which, given Simon's limited playing experiences and James' age, may be unsurprising. Of the behaviours they role model, both of the managers primarily discussed exemplified being organised and disciplined. According to Avolio and Bass (2008) such behaviours can be construed as emanating from truly transformational leader integrity in the sense that, disciplined and organised individuals behave in such a manner due to their placing the good of the group beyond their own needs.

In terms of communication, from the discussion it appears that Fergus primarily communicated at a group level, while both James and Simon appear to be more individually considerate. For example, James discusses his attempts to empathise with players, while Simon mentions his use of goal-setting to help each player to over achieve. Although there is no one correct way of approaching the management of players (Bass and Riggio, 2012), it is relevant to note that individual consideration can take a number of forms and can be closely related to the transactional behaviour of contingent reward (Avolio and Bass, 1995). Based on the discussions, it appears that, coupled with his attempts to intellectually stimulate players (i.e., introducing new training ideas [rhythmic exercise] and asking the players to creatively solve problems; Bass and Riggio, 2012), James may demonstrate more positive aspects of individualised consideration (e.g., taking an interest in the person and adapting to meet their needs) rather than the process, goal-driven approach, more akin to transactional leadership mentioned by Simon. While both approaches can be effective, leaders displaying transformational behaviours may be more effective within a time of turbulence and crisis (Avolio and Bass, 1995).

Each of the managers proclaimed to have changed their attitude towards immoral behaviour in sport upon entering management. However, while playing, Fergus and Simon, in particular, illustrated use of a couple of moral disengagement processes (i.e., euphemistic labelling⁵ and displacement of responsibility; see Ban-

⁵Euphemistic labeling involves the selective use of language to cognitively disguise culpable activities as less harmful, while the displacement of responsibility occurs when people view their actions as resulting from social pressures which they are not personally responsible for (Bandura, 1999).

dura, 1991). For example, the phrase for seeking an unfair advantage was renamed bending the rules or cutting corners. Such language is known as euphemistic labelling and involves the individual cognitively disguising culpable behaviours as less harmful (Bandura, 1991). In these examples, both Fergus and Simon attempt to sanitise their language to conceal the true intention of their action (Boardley and Kavusannu, 2011). Other euphemistic labels discussed were: diving (i.e., all three), going down at the drop of a hat (i.e., Fergus), and referee baiter and finger wagging (i.e., James). Equally, all three of the managers suggested it was the role of the referee to control immoral behaviour within football. Again, this is also a form of moral disengagement known as the displacement of responsibility (Bandura, 1991). According to Bandura (1991) the displacement of responsibility occurs when an individual perceives his or her behaviour as outside of their personal accountability and as a result of social pressure or instruction from an authority figure. In this instance, each of the managers displace the responsibility of controlling immoral behaviour within sport on to the referee. Such an avoidance approach to dealing with immoral behaviour may also suggest the managers assessed lack truly transformational leader integrity.

In terms of transformational leader integrity, the notion of honesty and loyalty emerged from each discussion, as did behaving morally. Likewise, each of the managers discussed their awareness of acts that could be construed as immoral (i.e., diving, biting, and racially abusing a teammate). However, none discussed how they had resolved such issues and instead either implied or explicitly stated they had ignored such indiscretions. While the managers did not condone such actions,

by failing to act, it could be argued they had implicitly reinforced the behaviour (Bandura, 1971). Fergus in particular discussed an incident involving Luis Suarez; claiming someone from Liverpool Football club (Suarez's employer at the time of the incident discussed) should have attempted to resolve the matter. However, when indiscretions were discussed within his own team (although not to the same level as the example discussed) he intimated he had ignored such issues. This suggests there is an element of in-group bias occurring within the discussion (Tajfel and Turner, 1979). In this instance, Fergus may have been attempting to increase his own self-image by enhancing the moral attitudes displayed within his own group (i.e., in-group), while damning those displayed within other groups (i.e., out-group).

While each of the managers may have claimed to have adapted their attitude towards immoral behaviour within sport upon entering management, this may not be the case. Instead, as none of the managers offered an explanation for why their attitude had altered, it is likely they were simply offering what they perceived to be a socially desirable response (Crowne and Marlowe, 1960). As they appear to be aware of their willingness to break or bend the rules as a player, it is likely they will have introspected, at some point on their behaviour; even if only to cognitively restructure their conduct through the moral disengagement mechanisms previously mentioned (Bandura, 1991). While within some industries leaders claim to avoid introspection (Bandura, 1991), due to the frequency of moral decision making, public interest, and massive pressures within the elite levels of sport, it is unlikely such an avoidance strategy would be possible. This also leads to the possibility that the expert managers presented here were selectively choosing to conceal their current

attitude towards transformational leader integrity. That said, of the two managers that discussed self-presentation (i.e., Fergus and Simon) only Simon consistently gave the impression he was self-presenting to his players and staff. While Fergus mentioned his players did not see the real him, he had previously argued he does not impression manage, as he does not want to suddenly “appear gregarious”.

Price (2003) suggests pseudo-transformational leaders may deliberately attempt to conceal their beliefs, as in doing so, they can adopt the behaviours and resultant outcomes associated with the presentation of transformational leadership. While this may be the case for some sporting leaders, given the perceived honesty demonstrated about their own playing career, it is difficult to draw conclusions regarding the cases presented. As each of the managers were considerably more willing to describe their actions as a player than as a manager, it may suggest some form of bracketing of the phenomenological self is occurring. In this instance, this may lead to it being easier for the managers to discuss indiscretions of a past self rather than those of the current self. Additionally, it may also be considered as socially acceptable to discuss prior indiscretions once the managers claim to have adjusted such attitudes.

2.6 Limitations and Future Research Directions

The emergent findings should be interpreted with the limitations of the work in mind. First, due to the homogeneous sample selected, the results of this study are specific to a select group of top-level, expert football managers – as was the intention. While a purposefully sought homogeneous sample, such as the one presented here, allows for focused, rich, in-depth data collection, it does limit the relevance

of the findings to a narrow subset of expert football managers. Second, as participants were interviewed after varying times away from management, the process could be criticised for the potential risk of bias or poor recall. **Third, the triangulation process utilised within the present study was limited to member checking alone. While member checking is deemed an appropriate strategy (Lincoln and Guba, 1985), additional triangulation techniques such as additional data collection methods (e.g., interviews from former players/staff members or the media, questionnaires, video analysis of training sessions [where possible] or competitive situations) could have facilitated greater confidence in the interpretations (Hammersley, 1992).**

As the managers within the present study claimed to have changed their attitude towards transformational leader integrity on becoming a manager, future research may wish to investigate this process further. Further, as two of the managers claimed their followers (i.e., players and staff) did not see the real them, the attitudes presented here may not be wholly accurate. Instead, the managers may either be unwilling or unable to report their true feelings. Therefore, in contrast to what was deliberately disclosed within the interviews, the managers may not have altered their attitudes towards transformational leader integrity and may instead be disclosing what they believe to be a socially acceptable response. Therefore future research may wish to examine the implicit social cognition of managers using an indirect measure of transformational leader integrity. Once such an instrument is developed, the implicit social cognition of sports managers can be assessed and importantly, how such attitudes affect players can be examined.

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Chapter 3

Developing an indirect measure of automatic transformational leader integrity.

3.1 Abstract

Since Bass and Steidlmeier (1999) offered a conceptual distinction between true and pseudo-transformational leadership, a number of extended theoretical and empirical models examining true and pseudo-transformational leaders have emerged within the literature (Dasborough and Ashkanasey, 2002; Price, 2003; Barling, Christie and Turner, 2008). While such models have undoubtedly advanced our understanding of true and pseudo-transformational leadership, these models are either conceptual or rely on the explicit perceptions of followers. This is problematic when one considers such perceptions are of leaders whom Bass and Steidlmeier (1999) describe as deceptive and manipulative. Further, Conger and Kunungo (2000) state followers of such leaders are unlikely to know their leaders' motives, until their trust has been abused and the leader's egoistic interests identified. The present study rectifies these issues by developing a novel implicit measure of true transformational leader integrity (Transformational Leader integrity Implicit Association Test; TLI-IAT). Findings suggest the TLI-IAT was more sensitive than existing explicit measures in identifying the ethical motives of leaders, relatively stable over time, and able to identify differences in organisational cultures.

3.2 Introduction

Contemporary theories of leadership consistently advocate the importance of leader morality, ethicality, integrity, and authenticity (Walumbwa et al., 2008; Avolio and Gardner, 2005, Bass and Steidlmeier, 1999), as can be demonstrated by the number of relevant theories presented within the literature (e.g., Riggio et al., 2010; Walumbwa et al., 2008; Brown, 2005; Parry and Proctor-Thomson, 2002). However, each of the aforementioned concepts have primarily been examined from a descriptive ethics (i.e., the study of moral perceptions) perspective (e.g., Kohlberg and Hersh, 1977). While relying on perceptions alone may not impact the assessment of those with integrity, it may be problematic when those lacking in ethical principles are the target of assessment (Parry and Proctor-Thomson, 2002). Pseudo-transformational leaders are one such example and are characterised as lacking in integrity (Bass and Stiedlmeier, 1999). They also have an inherent need for power and as such, promote dependency within their followers by manipulating them to internalise their own flawed values. Furthermore, Ferris et al. (1995) suggest they are controlling, while Simola (2010) argues that although it may appear otherwise, pseudo-transformational leaders have little interest or empathy for those who follow them. In contrast, true transformational leaders (also known as authentic transformational leaders; Bass and Steidlmeier, 1999) are considered moral, of integrity (Parry and Proctor-Thomson, 2002) and seen as liberating and empowering (Price, 2003), value centred (Bass and Steidlmeier, 1999), and have a commitment to assisting their followers' development, even when this means they are required to transcend their own personal, egoistic desires (Avolio and Gardner, 2005). They

also understand themselves and their values, and are perceived as considerate of the values of their followers. Subsequently, they use this understanding to create an idealised and ethical vision for the future, based on mutual trust and respect (Fairholm, 2009), which benefits and satisfies their followers (Howell, 1989), while recognising them as individuals (Avolio et al., 2004).

While perceptual approaches to leadership assessment may be effective in identifying true transformational leaders, due to the manipulative nature of pseudo-transformational leaders, such an approach may not identify those who are successful in constructing an alternate version of self. According to Price (2003) there are three forms of pseudo-transformational leader (i.e., opportunistic, incontinent and base), which can be differentiated on their impression motivation and the success of the impressions constructed. First, opportunistic pseudo-transformational leaders present the impression they possess the qualities associated with true transformational leadership, but they only do so as there is a congruence between the needs of the leader and that of the follower. Such opportunistic pseudo-transformational leaders are highly impression motivated; successfully presenting themselves as truly transformational to their followers.

In contrast, Price (2003) suggests incontinent pseudo-transformational leaders will be unsuccessful in their attempts to construct the perception that they are true transformational leaders. While equally impression motivated, their followers identify a discrepancy between what they say and what they do. Finally, base pseudo-transformational leaders are the last discussed within Price's (2003) theoretical model. Unlike incontinent and opportunistic, base pseudo-transformational lead-

ers are not impression motivated. Instead, they are openly committed to their egoistic values and their actions reflect this. Essentially, base pseudo-transformational leaders lack integrity and are bad characters. However, as previously stated (see section 1.2), integrity is not necessarily a requirement of transformational leadership behaviour (Bass and Steidlmeier, 1999). Essentially, as incontinent and opportunistic pseudo-transformational leaders are, according to Price (2003), attempting to conceal their true attitudes, relying on traditional, direct instruments (i.e., self or follower report) alone is somewhat problematic. While follower perceptions may identify incontinent (i.e., unsuccessful self-presenters) and base (i.e., openly lacking integrity) pseudo-transformational leaders, such perceptions may be fallible (Fazio and Olsen, 2003; Berinsky, 2004) when attempting to identify those successful in presenting the impression of true transformational leadership (i.e., opportunistic pseudo-transformational).

Fortunately, instruments have come to the forefront in recent years (see Rothermund et al., 2009; Teige-Mocigemba, Klauer and Rothermund, 2008; Karpinsky and Steinman, 2006; Greenwald et al., 2003; 1998; Nosek and Banaji, 2001; Fazio et al., 1995) that indirectly assess attitudes (Fazio and Olsen, 2003). Instead of explicitly asking participants to deliberately consider their attitudes, indirect instruments assess spontaneously retrieved, automatically formed, summaries of mental representations (i.e., the residue of previous observations, thoughts, and experiences). While such mental representations may be formed within the unconscious (Greenwald et al., 1995), as previously eluded to, the attitudes themselves need not be unconscious (Hahn, 2014; Fazio and Olsen, 2003). While some pseudo-transformational leaders

are likely to be aware of their attitude towards transformational leader integrity (e.g., true transformational leaders and base pseudo-transformational leaders), others may actively avoid introspection and instead present the socially desirable impression of possessing true transformational leader integrity (e.g., incontinent and opportunistic). However, when faced with pressure, stress, and/or tiredness, it is likely each of these leaders will rely on their automatic attitudes and respond in a way that is befitting of their core values (Bargh, 1996). While this is not an issue for true transformational leaders, this may have serious ramifications for followers and organisations employing pseudo-transformational leaders; particularly in cases where the leader has a duty of care (e.g., sport, the military, health, education, and business).

Building on the work of Perugini and Leone (2009), this research aims to develop a measure of automatic transformational leader integrity, as described by Bass and Steidlmeier (1999). Although a relatively contemporary tool, a vast array of IATs have been developed since Greenwald et al. (2002) first highlighted the need for new psychological methods capable of negating socially desirable responses. To achieve this, IATs measure the relative strength of association between a target category (i.e., the concept assessed) **and an** aspect attribute (i.e., the form of evaluation). Greenwald et al., (1998; Lane et al., 2007) suggest response times will be faster for attributes that are compatible with the category and slower for attributes that are incompatible. As the terms true and pseudo-transformational are not commonly used, and as integrity does not have a direct antonym, the terms moral and immoral were used as a substitute. In essence, Bass and Stiedlmeier's (1999) framework

of true and pseudo-transformational leadership is simply a set of moral standards used to differentiate the two forms of transformational leadership and as such, the substitution is logical. Therefore, when an individual demonstrates congruence between the terms moral (i.e., true transformational leadership) and self within the TLI-IAT, this suggests they spontaneously recall attitudes of honesty, ethicality, and empathy. In contrast, a faster response to the pairing of immoral (i.e., pseudo-transformational leadership) and self suggests the spontaneously recalled attitudes are more akin to what Bass and Steidlmeier (1999) construe as immoral (i.e., corrupt, coercive, and selfish). While it is assumed such automatic transformational leader integrity attitudes will reflect trait characteristics, as there is some debate regarding whether indirect measures capture state or trait attitudes (see Schnabel and Asendorpf, 2010) the stability of the attitudes measured within TLI-IAT will also be assessed.

In addition to assessing the automatic attitudes towards transformational leader integrity, the present study also examines deliberate attitudes towards leader ethical integrity. To achieve this, the perceived leader integrity scale (PLIS; Craig and Gustafson, 1998) was utilised. Like the indirect instrument developed within the present study, the PLIS adopts a characteristic focused approach. Importantly and again similar to the TLI-IAT, as a measure of ethical integrity, the PLIS was heavily influenced by the way integrity is conceptualised within the transformational leadership literature (Craig and Gustafson, 1998) and in particular, the significance Bass (1985) placed on leadership attributes such as trustworthiness, fairness, and believability. That said, while the concepts of ethical and transformational leader

integrity were conceived from a similar theoretical position, it is important to note that the PLIS does not wholly capture the same components as the TLI-IAT. This is partially due to the PLIS being based on Bass's (1985) earlier theoretical position, whereas the TLI-IAT is based on Bass and Steidlmeier's (1999) later view of transformational leader integrity. The two instruments are however, closely aligned and both assesses the ethical, moral and, integrity intentions of leaders rather than behaviour (Parry and Proctor-Thompson, 2002). As such, a significant and positive relationship between the PLIS and TLI-IAT would support convergent validity.

Finally, based on the discussions in study one (i.e., chapter two), it appears that sport may be less ethical than other organisational cultures. Therefore, to identify whether automatic attitudes towards transformational leader integrity differ between organisational cultures and assess the TLI-IATs discriminant validity, a range of leaders will be utilised within the present research. It is expected, as intimated in study one, that sports leaders will possess weaker associations towards transformational leader integrity when compared to leaders operating within other organisational cultures; namely, academia, business, and health. This difference, as eluded to earlier, may be due, in part, to the 'win at all costs' culture adopted within many sports teams (Long et al., 2006). Forms of gamesmanship are not necessarily discouraged in the same manner within sport as the other organisations examined. Long et al. (2006) suggest this is due to both the moral climate within each sports team and their respective desire to do whatever is required in order to succeed.

In sum, the primary aim of the present research is to develop and validate an indirect measure of transformational leader integrity. However, to achieve this three

sub-aims are required. The first of which is to identify whether there is convergence between indirect measure of transformational leader integrity and the previously validated direct measure of ethical integrity. The second aim is to examine the internal and test-retest reliability of the instrument; specifically identifying whether individuals report consistently within and between tests. The third aim is to examine the TLI-IATs discriminant validity, which will be achieved by investigating whether there are differences in automatic transformational leader integrity attitudes between organisational cultures.

3.3 Methods

3.3.1 Ethics and recruitment

Institutional ethical approval was first obtained, before participants were invited to participate. Participants were then recruited using snowball sampling through personal and professional relationships. Prior to participation, written informed consent was received from each participant and on completion of the study, all participants were thanked and thoroughly debriefed. Specific attention was paid to explaining their anonymity, where the data would be stored and how it would be used, before time was allowed for any additional questions to be discussed in full.

3.3.2 Participants

The sample consisted of 64 leaders (39 females) residing in the United Kingdom and is representative of typical sample sizes used in the development of an implicit

association test (Hofmann, 2005). To test for organisational differences in transformational leader integrity a heterogeneous sample of performance driven contexts (from both the public and private sector) were selected: academic ($N = 16$), health ($N = 13$), business ($N = 24$) and sports ($N = 10$). For the purpose of the study, leaders were defined as those who currently held a formal leadership position over two or more followers ($M = 15.9$, $SD = 15.3$, $Min = 2$, $Max = 70$) and spent a minimum of 5-hours per week with their followers ($M = 23.3$, $SD = 13.1$, $Min = 5$, $Max = 40$). Finally, participating leaders had spent a mean of 8.2 years within a leadership position ($SD = 7.5$), had been in their current position for a minimum of six weeks ($M = 2$ -years, $SD = 1.2$ -years, $Min < 1$ -year, $Max = 30$ -years), and were, on average, aged 39.4 years ($SD = 12.5$, $Min = 19$, $Max = 68$).

To examine the instrument's test-retest reliability the original participants were re-contacted ($N = 65$) after an 18-month period. However, due to the fluid nature of employment within the populations investigated, it was found that a large proportion (62%) of the original sample were no longer employed within their respective positions or contactable. From the remaining 24 participants, $N = 22$ ($N = 7$ male; $N = 8$ Business, $N = 8$ Health, $N = 6$ academic, and $N = 0$ sports leaders) agreed to complete the TLI-IAT again.

3.3.3 Procedure

Upon entering the laboratory the purpose of the study was described and the opportunity to ask questions offered before providing written consent (see appendix two). Participants were assigned to one of two groups

based on their attendance and sat at a desk in front of a Microsoft Windows computer with a sampling rate of 18.2 Hz. Group one completed the direct, pencil and paper instrument first (see appendix three), before undertaking the indirect, computer task (i.e., the IAT; see appendix four). In contrast, group two completed the computer task first before then completing the pencil and paper assessments. Once complete, the researcher calculated the various results and debriefed the participant.

Table 3.1: TLI-IAT Protocol.

Block	No. Trials	Function	E Key Assignment	I Key Assignment
1	20	Practice	Moral terms	Immoral terms
2	20	Practice	Self terms	Other terms
3	20	Practice	Moral and self terms	Immoral and other terms
4	40	Test	Moral and self terms	Immoral and other terms
5	20	Practice	Immoral terms	Moral terms
6	20	Practice	Immoral and self terms	Moral and other terms
7	40	Test	Immoral and self terms	Moral and other terms

Note: The positions of Blocks 1, 3, and 4 are switched with those of Blocks 5, 6, and 7 in a counter balanced order.

3.3.4 Measures

Perceived leader integrity scale

Although the PLIS is usually administered to followers, for the purposes of this study, the language used **was** adapted to be read in the first person: “I am vin-

dictive” as opposed to “[your immediate supervisor] is vindictive”. In keeping with the original measure, a four-point Likert scale was adopted for each of the 31-items, ranging from 1 (Not at all) to 4 (Exactly). Scenarios of low integrity were used throughout the scale (e.g. “I often lie to followers”), in order to maintain consistency. Once completed, the measure was scored according to Craig and Gustafson’s (1998) protocol with each item value combined to compute a total leader integrity score. As the perceived leader integrity scale is reverse scored each item was reverse coded and the total score standardised before the analysis was completed. Within the present study the PLIS demonstrated good internal consistency, Cronbach’s alpha $\alpha = .86$. As a well validated measure (see Baker, and Craig, 2006; Parry and Proctor-Thomson, 2002), the PLIS offers the closest existing, direct measure of leader integrity available and as such is suitable to test the TLI-IATs convergent validity.

Transformational Leader Integrity Implicit Association Test

An initial list of 24 stimuli items (i.e., 12 characteristics pertaining to true and 12 to pseudo-transformational leader integrity) were generated. All stimuli items were generated using Bass and Stiedlmeier’s (1999) theoretical framework, through qualitative discussions with seven leaders (i.e., three expert football managers [see chapter two], one manager within the national health service, two academic leaders, and one business leader), and with consideration to the stimuli word selection criteria discussed by Nosek, Greenwald, and Banaji (2007). In order to provide the optimal number of items for the implicit association test (Nosek, Banaji and Greenwald, 2005) the quantity of terms were further reduced down to 16-items through discus-

sions with two experienced leadership researchers. As the terms true and pseudo-transformational are not used within everyday English, the category headings were also discussed with three alternatives suggested (i.e., ethical and unethical, moral and immoral, and virtue and vice). Through participant discussion during piloting, the terms moral and immoral were selected as it was felt they best represented true and pseudo-transformational leadership, while being commonly understood. For the self and other categories, items previously verified as fit for purpose by Pinter (2005) were adopted. Although the self and other terminology is not without criticism (Karpinski, 2001), the terms have been reliably shown to capture variability between the contrasting categories and their subsequent associations (Bosson and Swann, 2000; Greenwald et al., 2003).

During completion of the transformational leader integrity implicit association test (TLI-IAT), participants undertook seven trials, including both practice sessions and counterbalanced trials. These were automatically randomised and based on the participant's numerical ID. Following standard IAT protocol (Greenwald et al., 2003), in trial 1, participants classified the stimuli into the categories of 'Moral' or 'Immoral'. Trial 2 then repeated the task, replacing the Moral/Immoral categories with 'Self' and 'Other'. In order to assist with the classification, the 'Moral' and 'Immoral' categories and stimuli used within trial 3 were presented on a black background with white text, whereas 'Self and Other' categories and stimuli are presented in green. This was particularly important in trials 3, 4, 6 and 7, as both categories were presented at once. Trial 4 then retested the strength of associations between these categories and trial 5 reversed the required responses to the 'Moral'

and ‘Immoral’ pairing. Trial 6 then added in the ‘Self’ and ‘Other’ pairings. Finally, trial 7 repeated and tested the procedure, as described within trial 6. Based on this test structure (see table 3.1), the TLI-IAT demonstrated good reliability through a Cronbach’s alpha α of .88 for the two mutually exclusive subsets within its combined block trials (Greenwald et al., 2003). Furthermore, both of the compatible and incompatible blocks correlated with their respective test block (compatible test $r = .96$, incompatible test $r = .67$).

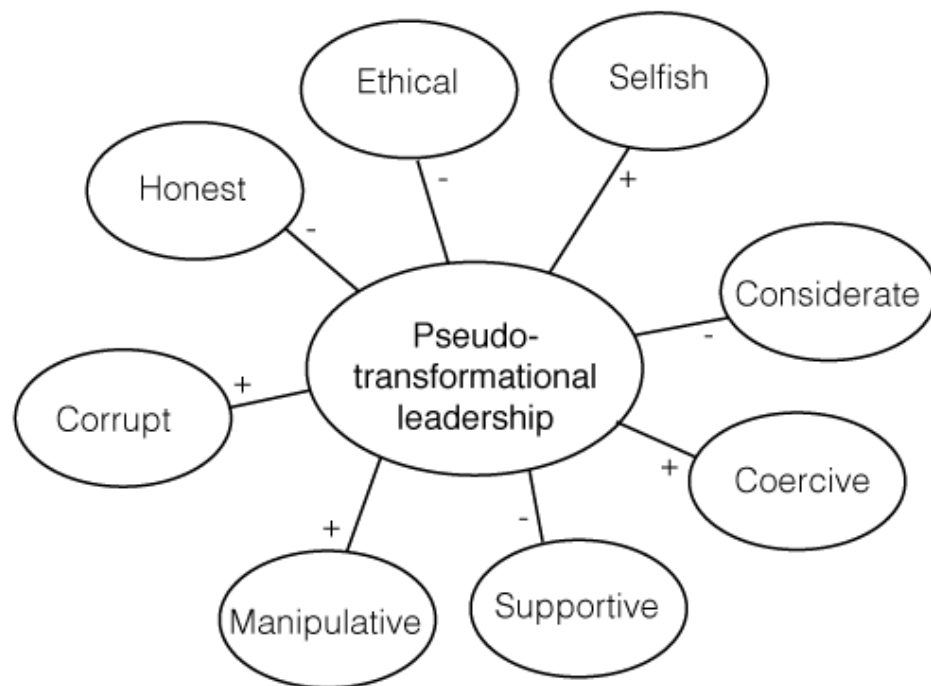


Figure 3.1: A selection of weighted implicit pseudo-transformational leadership terms used within the TLI-IAT (adapted from Amodio and Mendoza, 2010).

3.4 Results

3.4.1 Data Preparation

The IAT data were prepared according to the improved algorithm recommended by Greenwald, Nosek, and Banaji (2003). While the algorithm includes steps to remove respondents who consistently provide exceptionally fast (i.e., <300ms) or slow responses (i.e., >10,000ms), in this instance, such action was not necessary. As Greenwald and colleagues suggest, error responses were replaced with the mean latency from the block plus additional 600ms penalty. The overall standard deviation was then calculated for trials 3 and 6, and 4 and 7, and the mean response latencies for trials 3, 4, 6 and 7 were computed individually, before the two mean differences (Mean trial 6 - Mean trial 3) and (Mean trial 7 - Mean trial 4) were each divided by the previously calculated standard deviation. This equation creates a D value, which is the equal weighted average of the two resulting ratios (Greenwald et al., 2003). D scores range between -2 and +2, with a score of zero demonstrating an equal or no preference for the IAT's two target constructs. In this instance, a positive D score indicates a preference for true transformational leader integrity, while a negative D score represents a preference for pseudo-transformational leadership integrity. Finally, the strength of the preference is demonstrated by the amount the D score deviates from zero.

3.4.2 Automatic and deliberate attitudes.

The mean D score of automatic attitudes (i.e., indirectly assessed) within the present sample was .66, standard deviation of $\pm .45$, the minimum score was -.40, while the maximum was 1.48. This suggests, in general, the sample had an automatic preference towards true transformational leadership integrity. **Analysis of the test-retest data for automatic attitudes demonstrated a high degree of reliability when the test is completed in either the same or similar environmental contexts ($ICC[2,1] = .78$, 95% CI [.47,.91]).**

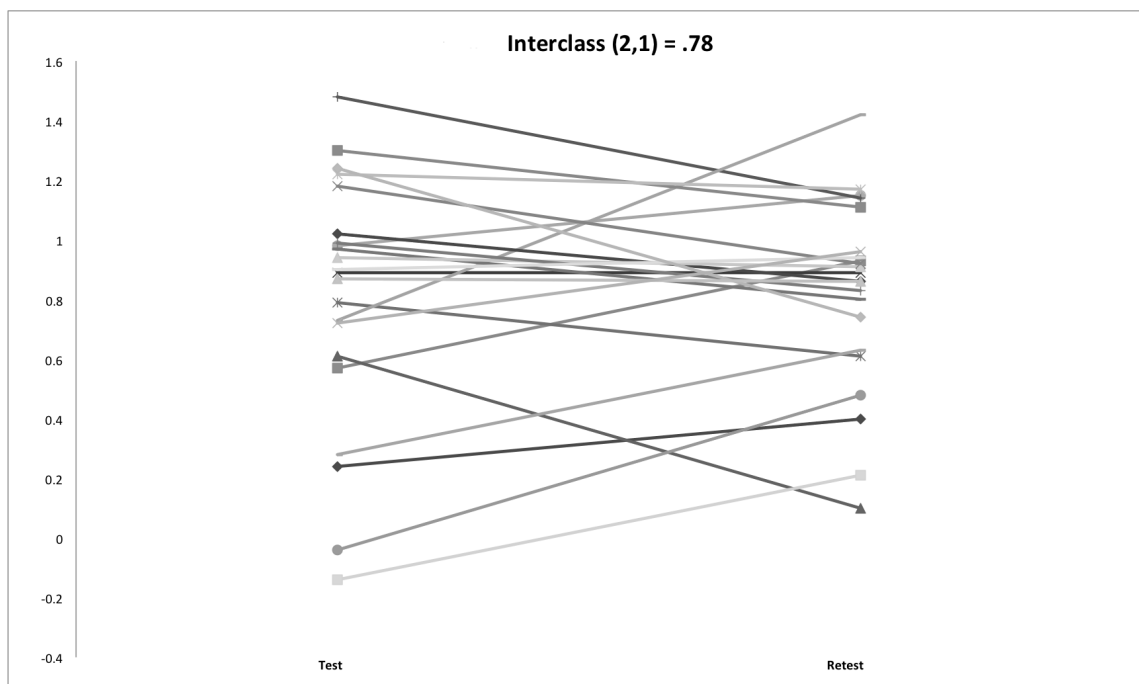


Figure 3.2: $N = 22$ TL-IAT test-retest scored based on two time-points across an 18-month interval.

Based on Craig and Gustafsen's (1998) scoring protocol (i.e., scores between 31 and 35 suggest high ethical integrity), the deliberate attitudes (i.e., directly assessed) of ethical integrity assessed within the present sample would similarly suggest the

leaders generally perceived themselves to be of high ethical integrity ($M = 33.78$, $SD = 4.27$, $Min = 31$, $Max = 54$).

Table 3.2: Direct and indirect measurement classification frequencies.

Instrument classifications	TLI-IAT	PLIS
Strong positive association / High self-reported integrity	33	51
Moderate positive association / Moderate self-reported integrity	11	12
Slight positive association / Low self-reported integrity	9	0
Neutral positive association / N/A	8	-
Slight positive association / N/A	1	-
Moderate positive association / N/A	2	-

3.4.3 Convergent validity

Convergent validity was established as correlations between the TLI-IAT and the direct, previously validated measure of ethical integrity in the present study demonstrated a moderate level of convergence ($r = .28$, $p < .05$).

3.4.4 Discriminant validity

Discriminant validity was supported by examining whether there were organisational level differences in transformational leader integrity. First, the classification frequencies of the TLI-IAT and PLIS were calculated (see table 3.2). The classification frequencies suggested that the TLI-IAT was more sensitive than the PLIS,

as demonstrated by the greater range of responses. A one way between groups (i.e., academic, business, health, and sport) ANOVA was conducted to identify potential organisational differences in automatic attitudes towards transformational leadership integrity. The results suggest a statistically significant difference in automatic transformational leadership integrity was observed between organisational types ($F(3,59) = 6.22, p < .05$, partial $\eta^2 = .24$). Tukey post-hoc comparisons of the four groups indicated that sporting leaders ($M = .19$, 95% CI $[-.12, .50]$) were significantly lower in indirect transformational leader integrity than business ($M = .81$, 95% CI $[.64, .98]$), $p < .01$, health ($M = .79$, 95% CI $[.53, 1.05]$), $p < .01$ and academic leaders ($M = .60$, 95% CI $[.39, .80]$), $p < .05$. An additional one way ANOVA was conducted to identify if there were also organisational differences in direct attitudes of ethical integrity. Again the results suggest there is a statistically significant difference between organisational types ($F(3,58) = 7.86, p < .01$, partial $\eta^2 = .29$). Tukey post-hoc comparisons again identified that sporting leaders ($M = 39$, SD 6.7) demonstrated less ethical integrity compared to health ($M = 34$, SD 5.0); academic ($M = 34$, SD 2.9), and business leaders ($M = 32$, SD 1.1).

3.5 Discussion

This research had one primary aim, to develop and validate an empirical, indirect measure of attitudes towards transformational leader integrity, which was successfully achieved. While the PLIS is able to assess those who are willing or able to share their self-perceptions regarding their leader integrity, the results suggest the self-report version used within the present study lacks sensitivity. In contrast, the

TLI-IAT identified a broader range of attitudes, as demonstrated by table 3.2. As a measure of automatic attitudes towards both true and pseudo-transformational leader integrity, the increased sensitivity offered by the TLI-IAT is key to identifying those who may be unwilling or unable to report their automatic attitude.

Next the study provided evidence for the internal and test-retest reliability of the TLI-IAT. Based on the present sample, internal consistency was in this instance good (i.e., $\alpha = .88$), which suggests that respondents reliably categorised the terms presented within the TLI-IAT into their respective categories (i.e., moral or immoral, and self or other). Further, the automatic attitudes assessed appear to be relatively stable, as demonstrated by the strong correlation between the test-retest D values ($r = .67, p < .01$). As the measure demonstrated a high level of temporal stability, this may suggest that the instrument measures primarily trait rather than state automatic attitudes.

The findings also demonstrated moderate convergent validity between the TLI-IAT and a previously validated, direct measure of ethical integrity. As a moderate, rather than strong relationship was established, it is worth pointing out that based on a meta-analysis of 152 and 126 independent samples, Greenwald et al., (2009) found the degree of convergence between direct and indirect measures to be $r = .23$ and $r = .24$, respectively. The results presented here also suggest the TLI-IAT is capable of identifying differences between organisational cultures (i.e., discriminant validity). While business leaders demonstrated the greatest automatic preference for transformational leadership integrity, both health and academic leaders were at a similar level. However, although still holding a slight automatic preference for

transformational leadership integrity, sports leaders possessed a significantly smaller preference compared to the other organisational cultures assessed.

The organisational differences found may be due, in part, to the ‘win at all costs’ culture adopted within many sports teams (Long et al., 2006; Dodge, 1998). Forms of gamesmanship are not necessarily discouraged in the same manner within sport as the other organisations examined (Dodge and Robertson, 2004). For example, Shields et al. (2005) found 36% of coaches reported they had shouted at a player for making a mistake, while 8% had encouraged their players to injure an opponent. Long et al. (2006) suggest this is due to both the moral climate within each sports team and their respective desire to do whatever is required in order to succeed. While the other organisations assessed within the present study experience ethical dilemmas, the type of behaviours frequently reported by Shields et al. (2005) are far from the norm outside of sport.

In sum, the TLI-IAT shows promise for reliably differentiating between true and pseudo-transformational leaders based on their automatic attitudes. When compared to a direct measure of ethical integrity, the TLI-IAT has shown increased sensitivity, identifying a broader range of attitudes. The TLI-IAT has also demonstrated convergent validity with a direct measure of ethical integrity. Finally, some distinctions were identified between organisational cultures in terms of automatic attitudes towards transformational leader integrity.

3.6 Limitations and future research directions

While the present study has achieved its primary aim, it does have some limitations that should be considered. The first limitation relates to the overall size of the sample. Although the sample used is deemed to be an acceptable size when developing an implicit measure (Lane et al., 2007), a larger sample size would improve the reliability of the data and reduce the potential for type I and II errors (Field, 2005). The next limitation refers to the size of the test-retest sample. Due to unforeseen high employee turnover, the test-retest sample was smaller than anticipated, although again, not unusually small when compared to other IAT test-retest sample sizes (Lane et al., 2007). **Furthermore, due to the aforementioned difficulties, no sports leaders were included within the re-test sample.** Future research should aim to rectify these issues by replicating the study with a larger sample size and over a shorter period of time. Next, although the TLI-IAT has shown some promise, it is still in its infancy and more evidence for its discriminant validity is needed. As authentic leadership has some theorised conceptual overlap with true and pseudo-transformational leadership, but is generally considered a unique concept, future researchers may wish to use this framework to evaluate whether divergent validity between authentic leadership and transformational leader integrity is supported.

Finally, future research should examine the predictive capabilities TLI-IAT. Based on the earlier research presented (i.e., the prologue and chapter two) the notion of loyalty and commitment emerges as a consequence of possessing true transformational leader integrity. As such attitudes are particularly drawn upon

within pressurised, stressful environments (e.g., sport, the military, the emergency services, the stock market, etc.) it is logical that future researchers focus on such contexts. However, given that sports leaders were significantly lower in automatic transformational leader integrity and the terms used within the TLI-IAT were, in part, developed within sport (see chapter two) it is logical to further validate the TLI-IAT in sport. Future research should therefore aim to rectify this issue by validating the measure within a competitive sporting coach leader sample. Further, as the measure has demonstrated its ability to identify organisational differences, it would be interesting to extend this notion and examine differences between sports that are perceived as morally distinct (e.g., ice hockey and volleyball).

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Chapter 4

Coach transformational leadership
integrity as a predictor of athlete
reported commitment.

4.1 Abstract

Research examining the ethical motives of leaders is lacking (Christie, Turner and Barling, 2011; Barling, Turner, and Christie, 2008). Applying Bass and Steidlmeier's (1999) true and pseudo-transformational leadership framework, the present study examined automatic transformational leader integrity, and deliberately perceived leader integrity attitudes as predictors of player commitment. Adult team sport coaches ($N = 32$) completed the transformational leader integrity implicit association test (Mills, and Boardley, in prep) and the leader ethical integrity scale (Craig and Gustafson, 1998), while their players ($N = 133$) reported on their sporting commitment (Scanlan et al., 1993a) and their perceptions of their leaders' ethical integrity (Craig and Gustafson, 1998). Regression analyses indicated that automatic attitudes towards transformational leader integrity positively and significantly predicted player commitment, while perceptions of leader integrity did not.

4.2 Introduction

According to Bredemeier and Shields (2006, p.6) “There are ethical problems in the world of sport that need to be addressed”. In their holistic study of youth sport behaviour, Shields et al. (2005) found 36% of coaches reported that they had yelled at a player for making a mistake. While 8% had encouraged their players to injure an opponent, and 4% had hit or kicked one of their players. Although these figures appear somewhat small, in the US alone this equates to approximately 1.6 million children who have been encouraged to cause injury and 880,000 children who have reported being physically struck by a coach (Woods, 2011). Such figures are clearly problematic and due to their nature it is likely that they are under reported due to fear of retribution and social desirability bias (Crowne and Marlowe, 1960). As Rowatt et al. (2006, p. 199) state, “people who want to be perceived by others as desirable or virtuous may deliberately control responses or behaviours to make it appear that they possess more humility than they actually do”. In order to better understand such socially sensitive phenomena, Nosek, Hawkins and Frazier (2012) suggest the use of indirect methods that negate the potential for participants to present themselves in a manner that will be viewed favourably by others.

One approach to negate such issues is to indirectly assess automatic¹ attitudes (Greenwald et al., 2003). While perceptual approaches have been used widely in the assessment of coach leadership (Zacharatos, Barling, and Kelloway, 2000; Charbonneau, Barling, and Kelloway, 2001; Callow et al., 2009; Arthur et al., 2011; Smith

¹Automatic attitudes are those formed spontaneously without deliberation (Fazio and Olsen, 2003).

et al., 2012; Vella, Oades and Crowe, 2013), such an approach fails to account for coaches who successfully present an alternate version of themselves. Within the transformational leadership literature, Price (2003) calls such individuals opportunistic pseudo-transformational leaders. Building upon Bass and Stiedlmeier's (1999) theoretical framework of true and pseudo-transformational leadership, Price (2003) describes four types of transformational leader: (1) true transformational, (2) base pseudo-transformational, (3) incontinent pseudo-transformational, and (4) opportunistic pseudo-transformational.

First, Price (2003) and previously Bass and Steidlmeier (1999) describe true transformational leaders as those who move the group they lead towards shared goals, act in the best interests of the group and are authentic to self (Bass, 1990). Second, base pseudo-transformational leaders are equally authentic to self, however, unlike true transformational leaders, they are openly egoistic. They are true to their baseness, lack integrity and are generally bad characters (Price, 2003). Third, opportunistic pseudo-transformational leaders self-present the impression they possess the qualities associated with true transformational leadership. However, this impression is only presented due to the temporary congruence between the needs of the leader and that of the follower. Forth, Price (2003) suggests that incontinent pseudo-transformational leaders will attempt to present the impression of true transformational leadership qualities. However, they will be unsuccessful in their attempt to deceive their followers.

As Barling and colleagues (Christie, Barling and Turner, 2011; Barling, Christie and Turner, 2008) suggest, pseudo-transformational leaders may incite fear and obe-

dience in their followers, while true transformational leaders encourage enjoyment and commitment (Podsakoff, McKenzie and Bommer, 1996). However, as previously stated, identifying whether a coach leader possesses true or pseudo-transformational tendencies using perceptual approaches that directly ask a question and require a deliberately considered answer, is problematic. Therefore, the use of a measure capable of indirectly assessing what Strack and Deutch (2004) describe as the mental representations of prior observation, thought and experience (i.e., automatic attitudes) may be beneficial. According to Fazio's (1990) MODE Model of attitude-behaviour, automatically activated attitudes will guide behaviour unless people are motivated and able to control the influence of these attitudes. Bargh (1996) supports this notion, but argues individuals may not be able to control the influence of such attitudes when faced with the types of conditions found during sports competition (i.e., pressurised, stressful, time-sensitive). While many coach leaders may appear to possess true transformational leadership tendencies, players may see an insight into their coach's automatic attitude during competition. However, any such perceptions may be somewhat skewed by prototypical coach leader images, and as such, their perceptions may be fallible (Fazio and Olsen, 2003; Berinsky, 2004) and open to attribution error (Ross, 1977). Therefore, whilst it is important to assess perceptual attitudes, alone, they are insufficient in predicting behaviour based on socially sensitive attitudes (Wiers et al., 2010).

With this in mind, the primary aim of the present study is to examine whether automatic attitudes towards transformational leader integrity and perceptions of leader ethical integrity act as predictors of player reported commitment. As pseudo-

transformational leaders are theorised to be manipulative and deceptive (Barling, Christie and Turner, 2008; Price, 2003; Dasborough and Ashkanasey, 2002; Bass and Stedlmeier, 1999) it is expected that automatic attitudes of transformational leader integrity will offer greater predictive ability when compared to perceptual based methods of assessing leader integrity. Although a minority of players may consider the integrity attitudes of their coach, many are likely to form perceptions without conscious deliberation. However, without such effortful consideration, a variety of factors may affect the formation of such perceptions. For example, a players opinion may be affected due to attribution error, whereby the player judges the coach's integrity as low based decisions such as to restricting game time (Ross, 1977). Further, prior experience of working with other coaches may create a prototypical image of what the athlete expects their coach to behave, which may or may not impact upon whether the athlete views their coach in a positive light. Therefore, due to the socially sensitive nature of leader integrity (i.e., opportunistic pseudo-transformational leaders are likely to present a false impression), it is hypothesised that only automatic transformational leader integrity attitudes will significantly predict athlete reported commitment.

4.3 Method

4.3.1 Ethics

Ethical approval was obtained from a British University and written informed consent was received from coaches and players prior to the commencement commence-

ment of the study. On completion of the study, all participants were thanked for their time, re-advised of how the data will be used and thoroughly debriefed. Following completion of the study, teams were provided with anonymised reports containing group averages and comparisons between coach and player perceptions.

4.3.2 Procedure

As in chapter three, participants were invited to complete a range of direct and indirect assessments. However, unlike chapter three, assessments were not completed within a laboratory setting, but rather via a web-experiment platform. To achieve this a custom platform was developed whereby the assessments were completed within the participant's java approved website browser. Essentially, the test presents the stimuli in the same manner as the laboratory based assessments. However, rather than being directly recorded on to a local computer, the data is captured by an external server.

Upon agreeing to participate, coaches were randomised into one of two groups. Group one completed the direct, explicit assessments (i.e., self-reported leader integrity; see appendices three and five) first, whereas group two completed the indirect implicit assessment first (i.e., transformational leader integrity implicit association test; see appendix six), before completing the explicit measures. Once complete, coaches were asked to forward a separate web address onto the players of their respective teams. Players were also provided with a participant information

sheet, gave written consent, and were offered the researcher's email address and telephone number should they have questions. In order to facilitate transparency, players offered their observations anonymously and were identified simply by asking for the name of the coach and team in which they were referring to in their assessments. Similar to their coaches, players reported on their perceptions of coach integrity and their level of commitment to the team (see appendices three and five).

4.3.3 Participants

The sample consisted of 32 head coaches ($N = 28$ Males and $N = 4$ Females) and 133 UK based players ($N = 106$ Males and $N = 27$ Females) representing six team sports (i.e., Association Football, $N = 7$, Rugby (both codes), $N = 7$, Gaelic Football, $N = 11$, Netball, $N = 3$, and Basketball, $N = 2$). On average four players per coach ($M = 4.23$; $SD \pm 2.31$, Min. = 2, Max. = 12) participated with a mean age of 25 ($SD \pm 5.34$ years), whilst coaches were aged 39.14 years ($SD \pm 11.41$ years) on average. In order to facilitate accurate player perceptions, only players who had been coached by the target coach for a minimum of six-weeks before participation were included.

4.3.4 Measures

4.3.5 Indirect measure

Transformational Leader Integrity Implicit Association Test

The Transformational Leader Integrity Implicit Association Test (TLI-IAT; Mills, and Boardley, in prep), was employed to indirectly measure coaches' automatic attitudes towards transformational leadership integrity. The test consists of 16 category stimuli relating to both moral² (e.g., ethical, honest, considerate etc.) and immoral (e.g., selfish, corrupt, manipulative, etc.) characteristics, and ten attribute stimuli referring to either self (e.g., Me, My, Mine, etc.) or other (e.g., They, Them, Theirs, etc.). Participants were then asked to sort said stimuli into their respective categories as quickly as possible. The response times for these classifications were then analysed to identify what category the leader most strongly associated. Based on this test structure, the TLI-IAT demonstrated acceptable reliability through a Cronbach's alpha α of .79. Further, following the protocol established by Greenwald et al. (2003) both of the compatible and incompatible blocks correlated with their respective test block (compatible test $r = .70$, incompatible test $r = .75$).

²To ease classification the terms true transformational leader and pseudo-transformational leader were substituted for moral and immoral.

4.3.6 Direct measures

Perceived Leader Integrity Scale

The Perceived Leader Integrity Scale (PLIS; Craig and Gustafson, 1998) was adopted to assess players' perceptions of their coach's ethical integrity. The PLIS has 31-items based on low integrity situations (e.g., "I would sacrifice a follower to save myself") and uses a four-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (not at all) to 4 (exactly). Once completed, the scale was reverse scored with a higher score representing lower integrity and vice versa. Craig and Gustafson (1998) reported an alpha coefficient of .97 for the PLIS and convergent validity was supported by associations with job satisfaction.

Sport commitment

Sport commitment was measured using 12-items that assess the psychological desire and resolve to continue sport participation, players' enjoyment with regard to playing for their team, and the involvement opportunities offered within a player's team (Scanlan et al., 1993a). All items were scored on a 5-point Likert scale (e.g., "how dedicated are you to continue playing for this team?") with anchors of 1 (not at all dedicated/not at all) to 5 (very dedicated/very much). Responses on the 12-items were averaged to produce one score for perceived sport commitment. Scanlan et al. (1993b) have previously demonstrated good internal consistency for all 12-items ($\alpha > .83$.) used.

4.4 Results

4.4.1 Data Preparation

The TLI-IAT data were prepared according to the revised algorithm recommended by Greenwald, Nosek, and Banaji (2003). Essentially, participants who consistently respond in an exceptionally fast (i.e., $<300\text{ms}$) or slow (i.e., $>10,000\text{ms}$) manner are removed when the revised algorithm is employed. As a result, two coaches (46% and 52% responses respectively, exceeded the $<300\text{ms}$ criteria) and six associated players were removed from the dataset. Error responses for the remaining participants were replaced with the mean latency from the block plus additional 600ms penalty (Greenwald, Nosek, and Banaji, 2003). The overall standard deviation was then calculated for trials 3 and 6, and 4 and 7, and the mean response latencies for trials 3, 4, 6 and 7 were computed individually, before the two mean differences (Mean trial 6 - Mean trial 3) and (Mean trial 7 - Mean trial 4) were each divided by the previously calculated standard deviation. This equation creates a D value, which is the equal weighted average of the two resulting ratios (Greenwald et al., 2003). D scores range between -2 and +2, with a score of zero demonstrating an equal or no preference for the IAT's two target constructs. In this instance, a positive D score indicates a preference for true transformational leader integrity, while a negative D score represents a preference for pseudo-transformational leadership integrity. Finally, the strength of the preference is demonstrated by the amount the D score deviates from zero.

4.4.2 Descriptive statistics and scale reliabilities

Descriptive statistics and Cronbach's (1951) alpha coefficients for all variables are presented in Table 4.1. On average, players perceived their coach as displaying integrity, while on average, the players were relatively committed to their teams. Finally, coaches reported moderate automatic associations towards transformational leader integrity. Alpha coefficients for each of the player surveys indicated acceptable to excellent internal consistencies (Nunnally, 1978).

Table 4.1: Descriptive Statistics and Alpha Coefficients ($N = 30$ Coaches, $N = 127$ Players).

Variable	α	M	SD	Range
1. Perceived leader integrity	.91	1.24	.33	.40-.1.90
2. Automatic trans. leader integrity	.79	.42	.71	-.91-1.41
3. Athlete reported commitment	.89	49	7.55	18-60

Note: Item two refers to automatic transformational leader integrity.

4.4.3 Correlation analyses

Initially the mean player score from each team was computed, before Pearson correlations were conducted to determine the bi-variate relationships amongst the study's variables. In accordance with Cohen (1992), correlations of .10, .30, and .50 represent small, medium, and large effect sizes, respectively. The Pearson correlations suggest that a relationship is present between athlete reported commitment and automatic attitudes of transformational leader integrity (i.e., $r = .53$. $p < .01$).

Table 4.2: Zero order correlations between variables ($N = 30$ coaches; $N = 127$ players).

Variable	1	2	3	4
1. Athlete reported commitment	–			
2. Perceived leader integrity	.25	.29	–	
3. Automatic transformational leader integrity	.53**	.23	.25	–

*Note:** $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

4.4.4 Regression analyses

A two step hierarchical multiple regression was performed to determine the role of automatic and deliberate coach integrity as predictors of athlete reported commitment. Potential confounds were entered in step one of the regression to control for sex, age and sport type. Subsequently, the predictor variables of automatic transformational leader integrity and perceived leader integrity were entered in step two. The results of this analysis are reported in Table 4.3. The hierarchical multiple regression revealed that in step one, the potential confound of age made a significant contribution the regression model. The introduction of the automatic transformational leader integrity as a predictor variable in step two also had a positive effect on the regression model.

4.5 Discussion

As the coach plays an important role in shaping the team's ethical climate, the present study sought to examine whether automatic coach attitudes of transforma-

Table 4.3: Two-step hierarchical regression analysis of leader integrity on the athlete reported commitment.

Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>adj. R2</i>	<i>R Change</i>
Step one					.22 ^a	<.01
Sex	-.95	2.04	-.08	-.46		
Age	-.21	.07	-.56	-3.25		
Sport	.05	.38	.02	.14		
Step two					.35 ^b	.30
Sex	-.13	1.89	-.01	-.07		
Age	-.16	.06	-.43	-2.44		
Sport	-.11	.36	-.05	-.31		
PLIS	.44	2.15	.03	.20		
TLI-IAT	2.46	.91	.44	2.69		

Note: df for step one = 3, 26 and step two = 5,24; ^a = $p < .05$ and ^b = $p < .01$.

tional leader integrity and leader ethical integrity predicted player reported commitment. To achieve this, the study utilised athlete reports of their current level of commitment to the team and a direct measure of leader ethical integrity, as well as a new indirect measure of automatic transformational leader integrity attitudes. Each of the instruments adopted demonstrated adequate to excellent internal consistency and as expected, each of the measures positively and significantly correlated with athlete reported commitment.

Based on Bass and Steidlmeier's (1999) theoretical framework of true and pseudo-transformational leadership, it was hypothesised that automatic attitudes of transformational leader integrity would demonstrate greater predictive ability of athlete

reported commitment then athlete perceptions of ethical integrity. As leaders with an automatic preference for pseudo-transformational leadership are more likely to attempt to conceal their true attitudes (i.e., incontinent and opportunistic pseudo-transformational leaders). It was expected that athlete perceptions of leader ethical integrity would be a weaker predictor of athlete commitment when compared to an indirect measure of automatic transformational leader integrity completed by the leader. As expected, the findings supported this hypothesised relationship as automatic attitudes towards transformational leadership integrity was a positive predictor of the player commitment variable, while athlete perceptions of their leaders' ethical integrity were not.

Given the theorised manipulative and deceptive nature of pseudo-transformational leaders (Barling, Christie and Turner, 2008; Choi et al., 2006; Price, 2003; Dasborough and Ashkanasey, 2002; Bass and Stedlmeier, 1999) who lack integrity (i.e., pseudo-transformational leaders), it is unsurprising that player perceptions alone were not a significant predictor of athlete reported commitment. While some players may be able to perceive the true attitudes of their coach (as demonstrated within the present findings), there are a number of factors that may affect the accuracy of such perceptions. For example, their perception of how a prototypical coach should behave, and/or unduly mis-attributing coach attitudes based on their behaviour (Ross, 1977). Coaches themselves may also be unwilling to show their true attitude towards transformational leader integrity, which creates an additional problem when relying on player perceptions alone.

4.6 Practical implications

The findings of the present study offer some interesting practical implications. Specifically, how the coach's automatic integrity attitude influences athlete reported commitment. Thus, coaches should reflect upon their automatic transformational leader integrity attitudes and the impact that such attitudes can have on guiding their behaviour (Hofmann and Wilson, 2010). Based on the findings presented here, coach education bodies may wish to consider including an element of reflective period, whereby coaches consider their spontaneous attitudes towards transformational leader integrity. Further, the impact that such automatic attitudes have on their athletes' commitment should also be communicated. However, it is worth noting that due to the exploratory, cross-sectional research design used within the present research, these suggestions should be considered with the limitations of the research in mind.

4.7 Study Limitations and Future Research Directions

While the present study offers some interesting findings, it does have some limitations that should be considered. The first limitation relates to the size of the sample. As a result of recruiting a relatively small sample, the author was limited to simple linear regression rather than multilevel modelling. While linear regression is considered appropriate for use when analysing considerably fewer than 50 groups (Mass and Hox, 2005), when used with nested data, group level influences may be ignored

and the likelihood of type I error increased. In contrast to what was conducted, multilevel modelling could have accounted for between-person variation, however, based on the present sample size, such an approach would likely yield unreliable findings. By aggregating the athlete data for use within a linear model, in this instance, it has meant that only the larger, underlying constructs of leader ethical integrity and commitment have been examined (Muthén, 1991). Future research should seek to rectify this issue and attempt to replicate the present findings using a larger sample that negates the need for aggregated data.

The next limitation refers to the in-equal population distribution between male and female participants. Although female participants were included within the study, the sample was largely derived from an male population (i.e., 26 of the 30 teams were all male). Future research should address this by placing an increased focus on maintaining equal gender representation. **Such a focus, would greater control over sex as a potential confounds**, while also allowing for the examination of potential gender differences between male and female coaches and the perceptions of their athletes. **Furthermore, additional demographic information such as coaching qualification held, years experience, and highest level coached should also be collected in future research, as this would improve the interpretation and analytical techniques adopted when controlling for extraneous variables.**

There were further limitations due to the measure of ethical integrity used. While the PLIS has been previously validated, it has recently received conceptual criticism for its sole use of negatively worded items (Palanski and Yammarino, 2011). Within

their critique, Palanski and Yammarino (2011) suggest the absence of unethical behaviour does not necessarily imply ethicality and due to the negative nature of the instrument's items, participants may not wish to respond honestly due to the negative consequences their response may have on both them and their coach/leader. With this in mind, future research may wish to use a more conceptually balanced instrument. Finally, due to the cross-sectional nature of the investigation, it is limited in its ability to draw conclusions regarding cause and effect. Future research should consider the adoption of a longitudinal or quasi-experimental design to examine whether automatic attitudes can be modified and if so, what effect such modifications have on player commitment.

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Chapter 5

General discussion

5.1 Introduction

The present chapter synthesises the main findings of the three empirical studies presented within this thesis. Following an overview of the main findings, the results gleaned from the present research are outlined in seven sections. First, an overview of the research is discussed, followed by the measurement of transformational leader integrity. Next, the behavioural outcomes associated with transformational leader integrity are discussed, before the overall strengths and weaknesses of the thesis are outlined. The practical implications of the research and directions for future directions of enquiry are then reviewed, before the author offers his concluding remarks.

5.2 Overview of the findings

The overall aim of the present research was to examine transformational leader integrity within performance environments (primarily sport) and ultimately develop and validate an indirect measure of transformational leader integrity. After a review of the literature, it was identified that empirical research examining leader integrity was lacking within sport. Furthermore, while there were examples of leader integrity research within the organisational psychology literature, a second problem was identified in that the present literature predominantly relied on direct, self or other report survey methods. As a leader's integrity is a socially sensitive subject, it was deemed that the development of a measure capable of negating such issues would be beneficial to both the organisational and sport psychology communities.

As no prior research had explicitly focused on leader integrity within sport, qual-

itative perceptions from expert football managers were sought to investigate the relevance of transformational leader integrity based upon real-world accounts from leaders working in the sporting environment. The expert managers utilised within this research discussed a range of transformational leadership behaviours and ethical approaches in their experience as top-level, former international or Premier League football managers. Based on these qualitative informal discussions with leaders from other organisational cultures, data, and the prior review of the literature, the next step was to develop and validate a measure of automatic transformational leader integrity. Utilising a range of terms discussed by the expert managers, coupled with salient terms from within the literature, an implicit association test was constructed. Support for the face validity of the terms was then sought from a range of academic and applied leaders, before assessing the instrument's concurrent and discriminant validity, internal consistency, and test-retest reliability. The findings provided evidence for the instrument's convergent validity due to its moderate relationship with an existing, direct measure of leader integrity. Next, based on the prior assertion that sport was less ethical than other organisational cultures, support for its discriminant validity was provided by the instrument's ability to differentiate variations in leader integrity between different organisational cultures. Internal consistency was also supported by the reliability of the responses shown for the two mutually exclusive subsets utilised within the IATs combined block trials. Lastly, the temporal stability of the measure was assessed by retesting a section of the original sample after an 18-month period. This resulted in a strong correlation between the two test scores, which as well as supporting the temporal stability of the measure, may

suggest the instrument is assessing trait rather than state attitudes.

Building upon the prior investigation, the final study examined whether the automatic measure of transformational leader integrity was a predictor of athlete reported commitment. To achieve this, the study asked athletes to report on their level of commitment to the team, as well as their perceptions of their coach's ethical integrity. In turn, coaches were asked to complete an indirect assessment of their automatic attitudes towards transformational leader integrity. As athletes are likely to mis-attribute their coach's integrity attitudes and coaches with a spontaneous preference for pseudo-transformational leader integrity attitudes to conceal their true attitudes, it was hypothesised that automatic attitudes of transformational leader integrity would provide greater predictive ability than deliberate formulated athlete perceptions of their leaders' ethical integrity.

Due to the proposed manipulative and deceptive approach adopted by pseudo-transformational leaders (Barling, Christie and Turner, 2008; Price, 2003; Dasborough and Ashkanasey, 2002; Bass and Steidlmeier, 1999), it was expected that player perceptions alone would be a less significant predictor of athlete reported commitment when compared to indirect transformational leader integrity attitudes. Although it was expected that some players would be able to accurately perceive their coach's integrity attitudes, without deliberation there are a number of factors that can affect the accuracy of such perceptions (i.e., attribution error; Ross, 1977). As expected the findings supported the hypothesised predictive capability of automatic transformational leader integrity attitudes towards athlete reported commitment. However, perceptions of ethical integrity, were a non-significant predictor

of athlete reported commitment.

Measurement of automatic transformational leader integrity

Before attempting to develop and validate a measure of transformational leader integrity, first the leader integrity perceptions of expert football managers were qualitatively examined. The findings suggested each of the managers proclaimed to have changed their attitude towards ethical conduct upon entering management. Given the uniformity to their responses and a lack of explanation for the change of attitude, it was deemed likely the managers were either unwilling or unable to report their true attitudes and instead may have been offering socially desirable responses (Crowne and Marlowe, 1960). Interestingly, each of the managers also evidenced use of moral disengagement processes, which aim to cognitively restructure culpable behaviours (Bandura, 1991). Two particularly prominent processes were euphemistic labelling and displacement of responsibility. In this instance, euphemistic labelling such as “going down at the drop of a hat” was primarily used to rephrase terms such as cheating or rule breaking (i.e., diving to win an unfair advantage). Each of the managers also displaced their responsibility for dealing with transgressive player behaviour, stating that such actions were instead the responsibility of referees and the game’s governing bodies.

While as a player each of the managers felt it was acceptable to seek an unfair advantage, as a manager they apparently no longer endorsed such behaviour. However, none of the managers explicitly disapproved of immoral behaviours either. For example, one of the managers gave a relatively extreme example of dressing room racism. However, he did not discuss how the issue was dealt with and implied that

it had simply been ignored. Failure to act in such circumstances could be construed as implicitly immoral, in as far as a lack of punishment could be perceived by players as implicitly reinforcing this negative behaviour (Bandura, 1971). Despite these potential iniquities, each of the managers discussed loyalty, honesty and integrity as desirable characteristics within professional sport and particularly sports management. However, there was some debate as to whether such characteristics were particularly prevalent in modern professional football, with two of the managers suggesting the professional game was corrupt and less moral than other organisational cultures.

Building on the findings from study one, study two aimed to develop and validate an indirect measure of automatic transformational leader integrity attitudes. Using the terms generated from study one, a review of the literature and through qualitative discussions with a diverse group of leaders, the transformational leader integrity implicit association test (TLI-IAT) was developed and validated. Through associations with self-reported data, the TLI-IAT provided evidence of moderate convergent validity with an existing, direct measure of ethical integrity. The instrument also showed strong internal consistency and strong test-retest reliability. In order to further support the discriminant validity of the TLI-IAT, study two then examined the perceived differences in integrity between sport and other organisational cultures; namely health, academia and business. The findings suggested there were differences between both the directly and indirectly assessed leader integrity of sports leaders. Specifically, indirectly assessed attitudes highlighted a broader range of integrity attitudes, which suggested that the indirect measure offered greater sen-

sitivity when compared to directly assessed attitudes. These findings support the increasingly held opinion that there are ethical issues within the world of sport that need addressing (Bredemeier and Shields, 2006).

Coach integrity as a predictor of behaviour

Study three examined the relationship between both automatic transformational leader integrity and deliberate attitudes of ethical integrity and player reported commitment. The findings suggested automatic transformational leader integrity was a significant and positive predictor of player commitment, while deliberately reported athlete perceptions were not. This was likely a result of the socially sensitive nature of transformational leader integrity, whereby coaches with a preference towards pseudo-transformational leadership attitudes were likely to conceal their true attitude from their players. Given the theorised deceptive nature of pseudo-transformational leaders (Bass and Steidlmeier, 1999), it is possible that many players were unable to correctly classify their leader's integrity. While the automatic measure of transformational leader integrity assessed indirect leader attitudes, the measures of player perceptions may be fallible (Fazio and Olsen, 2003). As pseudo-transformational leaders are considered to be immoral and either successfully or unsuccessfully deceptive (Price, 2003), players may have been fearful of reporting their leader's lack of integrity or misclassified their leader's attitude due to deception (Barling, Christie and Turner, 2007). Further, contextual issues such as playing opportunities and prior experience of alternative coaching may also have added to the mis-classification of sports leaders (Ross, 1977).

5.3 Strengths of the thesis

One of the major strengths of this thesis is the novel examination of implicit social cognition within both leadership and sporting contexts. The need for instruments utilising such an approach within the leadership literature in order to negate the problems associated with the assessment of socially sensitive information has been highlighted by Christie, Barling and Turner (2011). Although the present body of research goes some way in addressing this call, this is simply the first step of what will likely be a long journey. Similarly, the present research is the first to apply a measure of automatic attitudes to the investigation of sports leadership. While there has been some initial use of indirect methods to assess other ethically relevant constructs such as doping attitudes (see Petróczi, 2007; Backhouse and McKenna, 2012), to date, there has been limited application of such methods within sport.

A further strength of the thesis is the multi-method approach adopted. While there is some debate regarding the usefulness of qualitative research (see Patton, 2002), as a new area of enquiry, there was a clear need to take a qualitative approach to explore the in-depth perceptions of sports leaders, before adopting a theory testing methodology. In this instance, the qualitative enquiries conducted helped to shape the direction of the research, the development of the measure (i.e., stimuli generation) and the validation process (i.e., content validation).

The final major strength of the thesis is the positive message it offers. By endeavouring to understand the processes behind transformational leader integrity, it became increasingly apparent that there are positive psychological outcomes associated with an automatic attitude towards true transformational leader integrity;

particularly, reported player commitment. Although this relationship was hypothesised, it is pleasing that the hypothesis was supported and the message offered is a positive one (e.g., that possessing an automatic attitude towards the ethical, supportive, and considerate characteristics discussed within transformational leader integrity resulted in greater athlete reported commitment). While the message presented here should be treated with the research limitations in mind, it does appear that coaches should be encouraged to introspect on their automatic attitudes and promote the types of ethical, supportive and considerate characteristics associated with truly transformational leaders.

5.4 Limitations of the studies and future directions

Although the studies presented here have gone some way in furthering our understanding of transformational leader integrity, there are some limitations to the work which should be considered. The first limitation refers to the context specificity of the TLA-IAT. Several studies have demonstrated the context can have an impact on the result of indirect tests, which has in turn stimulated discussion regarding the stability of automatic attitudes (Fazio, 2007). While the research presented here has gone some way to allay these concerns (i.e., by utilising a longitudinal test-retest protocol), due to external factors (i.e., employee turnover), the sample size was relatively small and not fully representative of the original sample. Such an approach has, to an extent, also created an element of self-selection bias, which may

have skewed the results. Future research should aim to rectify this issue by allowing participants to respond anonymously.

A further limitation of the research concerns the cross-sectional design taken within studies two and three. Although a valid approach when developing a new instrument, such research designs make discussing causal inferences difficult. That said, the data provided within the present research has generated new information and as such added to the existing literature. Future researchers should also attempt to tease apart cause and effect within the relationships presented. To achieve this a quasi-experimental design could be adopted to examine whether automatic attitudes can be modified and if so, what effect the training has on both coach and player outcomes. Alternatively, a longitudinal design could be adopted to identify how automatic transformational leader integrity attitudes develop over time. As transformational leaders are known to create shared goals (Kouzes and Posner, 2007), it would also be interesting for future researchers to examine the affect transformational leader integrity attitudes have on the integrity attitude of followers and vice versa.

Finally, from an instrument development perspective, future research should build upon the existing research examining the fakeability¹ of the IAT (Agosta et al., 2011; Cvrneck et al., 2010). Although the IAT is considered a robust assessment of automatic attitudes, there are some concerns regarding the fakability of the test (Agosta et al., 2011; De Houwer, Beckers, and Moors, 2007; Steffens, 2004). Previous research has highlighted the possibility that participants can either be instructed

¹Please note the term fakeability is an expression used within the IAT manipulation literature.

to manipulate the IAT or create their own self-developed strategies (Agosta et al., 2011; Fiedler and Bluemke, 2005). Given the socially sensitive nature of transformational leader integrity, and the theorised likelihood that pseudo-transformational leaders will attempt to deceive and manipulate (Price, 2003), future research should look to strengthen the TLI-IAT against such action. That said, it is important to reinforce that the TLI-IAT is still a considerable step forward when compared to existing direct measures of integrity, as the IAT protocol is considerably less open to manipulation than explicit, direct approaches (Steffens, 2004).

5.5 Broader research directions

Future researchers may also wish to examine the malleability of automatic attitudes towards transformational leader integrity. As discussed within the present research, there are essentially two ways of modifying automatic attitudes: (1) by supporting introspection and enhancing awareness or (2) by retraining the automatic attitude indirectly. First, as there is some debate regarding people's awareness of their automatic attitudes (Hahn, 2014; Paxton and Greene, 2010; Greene et al., 2001; Greenwald et al., 1995; Bandura, 1991), simple exposure to a potential discrepancy between deliberate and automatic attitudes may prove to be a form of intervention in itself; essentially providing a stimuli to introspect upon (Wilson, Lindsey and Schooler, 2000). Researchers may wish to provide support during this process, potentially encouraging introspection in order to try and find the source of the automatic attitude. Both applied practitioners and researchers should consider the use of stimulated recall interviews during this process, as they have previously

been used successfully within sport (see Tractlet et al., 2009) to guide participants' introspection of the basis for moral disengagement.

Alternatively, computerised protocols that access similar cognitive processes, such as cognitive bias modification training (CBMT), may be applicable to re-train potentially negative associations towards neutral or positive ones. Wiers et al. (2011) amongst others (see Amir et al., 2009; Schmidt et al., 2009) have recently utilised CBMT to modify anxiety attitudes within a clinical population. Using a similar set of protocols to those adopted within the implicit association test (e.g., dot-probe task and stroop test), rather than measuring the response time to a stimuli and subsequently using this information to infer an attitude, CBMT attempts to redirect attention away from an undesired response; effectively reducing the likelihood of the attitude being accessed. While this avenue of enquiry has demonstrated some positive outcomes within clinical settings, there are still some concerns regarding the reliability and robustness of the method (see Cristea, Kok and Cuijpers, 2015; Emmelkamp, 2012). That said, the initial evidence certainly warrants further investigation and may provide a useful approach to altering pseudo-transformational leadership attitudes. Like many of the arguments within the present research, it is likely reflective introspection will compliment CBMT and vice versa.

5.6 Implications for practice

A primary aim of this thesis was to to examine transformational leader integrity within performance environments (primarily sport) and ultimately develop an indirect measure of transformational leader integrity. In undertaking this investigation

of transformational leader integrity a number of tentative implications for practice have emerged. However, before progressing, it is first worth noting that these suggestions should be considered with the exploratory research designs utilised to collect the data in mind. The first implication for practice pertains to coach education; specifically, how the coach's attitudes influence the coaching environment they create. By engaging with and introspecting on their automatic attitudes, coaches may be able to use this information to promote the types of characteristics associated with truly transformational leadership; creating a more ethical, supportive, inspirational and stimulating coaching environment. The relevant sports governing bodies may also wish to incorporate this message and consider integrating transformational leader integrity training into their various training programmes. Essentially, such a programme should attempt to instill the characteristics associated with true transformational leadership (i.e., ethical, honest, considerate, supportive etc.), making coaches aware of their responsibilities as a role model. By default, coaches are placed in control of a group of individuals, who are often young and impressionable, yet for many, the only requirement to fulfil this role is some knowledge of the sport in which they operate. While this is undoubtedly important, it should be a secondary consideration behind the character of the person and their appropriateness as a role model. As such, it is suggested that broader transformational leadership training that teaches coaches of the importance of not only leading with integrity, but also ways of communicating inspirational and motivational messages to their players, considering their players' needs, setting high, but attainable performance expectations, and encouraging teamwork within the group be included. Coaches should also

be encouraged to offer greater autonomy to their players and intellectually stimulate those they lead to solve problems rather than expect answers.

The final implication of the research applies to both academic and applied practitioners. During this research process it has become increasingly apparent that indirect measures of automatic attitudes are complimentary to direct measures of deliberate attitudes. When combined, dual process models of implicit social cognition (Gawronski and Bodenhausen, 2006; Strack and Deutsch, 2004; Fazio, 1990) facilitate researchers with the tools required to predict future behaviour based on more than the fallible reports of what has gone before (Hofmann et al., 2007). As such, automatic attitudes open up a plethora of new opportunities to researchers and practitioners who may wish to develop interventions that move beyond behaviour and into the cognitive processes that occur before the behaviour is displayed, perceived and subsequently reported upon. Within the present context, such an approach may be particularly relevant to support coaches to adjust their automatic attitude toward transformational leader integrity, which in turn is likely to have an effect on the perceptions of commitment reported by their players.

5.7 Concluding remarks

The overarching aim of the thesis was to develop and validate an indirect measure of automatic attitudes towards transformational leader integrity. The present research has provided initial evidence that suggests the TLI-IAT is a valid and reliable tool, which is capable of offering new and novel insights into the processes involved with transformational leader integrity. In the development and validation of this new in-

strument, the present research has made two major contributions to the literature. First, the TLI-IAT has addressed a documented gap within the leadership literature, which calls for a measure of transformational leader integrity that is (i) capable of identifying attitudes towards transformational leader integrity, (ii) negates the self-presentational issues associated with such a socially sensitive construct, and (iii) sensitive enough to identify organisational and construct differences (Christie, Barling and Turner, 2011). Initial development and validation of the TLI-IAT suggests the instrument is capable of addressing each of these issues.

The second key contribution the present research makes is regarding the behavioural outcomes associated with automatic attitudes towards transformational leader integrity. Until the studies presented here, empirical research had exclusively examined the concepts of transformational leader integrity as a deliberate, effortful, controlled process (Barling, Christie, Turner, 2008; Christie, Barling and Turner, 2011). However, such an approach appears to conflict with Bass and Steidlmeier's (1999) framework, which states transformational leader integrity is based on the leader's implicit values. While transformational leader integrity is, in part, a two-way construction between the leader and followers, the present research has shown, as Bass and Steidlmeier (1999) suggested, there is a third element to this process that moves beyond what is portrayed and perceived. As such, this thesis presents the first empirical evidence that transformational leader integrity may operate, in part, at an automatic level. Further, the present research has also highlighted that automatic attitudes may predict different types of behavioural responses to self-report measures, which may be particularly relevant in the identification and study

of pseudo-transformational leaders.

In sum, the present research has made some significant advancements to the transformational leader integrity literature, by providing researchers with an additional instrument that compliments the existing measures available. Importantly, the instrument developed here has demonstrated itself to be a valid and reliable tool, which may offer additional insights into the transformational leader integrity beyond existing measures. As highlighted, there are still a number of existing avenues that require further exploration, particularly research that uses the TLI-IAT to predict additional leader and follower behaviours, and subsequently, interventions that attempt to modify automatic attitudes towards transformational leader integrity. Despite the considerable work still required, the findings presented here are encouraging and suggest additional research within this area may prove to be worthwhile.

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5.9 Appendices

5.9.1 Appendix one: Interview guide

1. Describe your management experience.
2. How did you get into management?
3. Describe a typical day at a football club you've managed.
4. Who has influenced the way you manage and how have you incorporated their behaviours into the way you manage?
5. What do you think your previous players and coaches would take from you?
6. What is your coaching style? Do you like to get involved and demonstrate or would you prefer to observe?
7. Would you consider yourself to be a good motivator and if so, how do you motivate your players?
8. How do you motivate yourself? Who inspires you?
9. Do you feel that you inspired your players?
10. Do you have a approach that influences the way you manage? Has this changed during your career? If so, do you share this with the players directly? How do you deliver this information?
11. How much would you say your approach shapes the way you manage?
12. How much autonomy do you allow your players?

-
13. How do you like the players to treat you (the boss/one of the lads)?
 14. Do you challenge the players to find their own solutions to problems?
 15. If a player were having difficulties in their personal lives, would you get involved?
 16. What is the role of humour in your management style?
 17. Talk me through the first few weeks of work at a new club.
 18. How do you manage big characters within your teams?
 19. How about youth players?
 20. Have you worked in an environment where the players didn't believe they could achieve their goals? How do you combat this?
 21. What do you expect from your players?
 22. How do you communicate and implement this?
 23. How do you handle situations where expectations weren't met?
 24. Have you had experiences in which you felt you handled things poorly?
 25. What do think about diving, shirt pulling etc?
 26. How far would you go to win?
 27. Where do you believe gamesmanship stops and cheating begins?
 28. Do you think people act ethically in football?

-
29. Do you think other industries are better worse? Why do you think this is?
 30. Do you feel your views on authenticity have changed throughout your career?
If so why?
 31. Tell me about your experiences of leaving football clubs throughout your career?
 32. How does this make you feel (i.e., Angry, Anxious, Depressed, loss of self-respect or control)? How long did you feel this way?
 33. Was there any support to help you achieve these plans?
 34. If the opportunity arose, would you go back into the game? If so, would you change the way you lead at the next club? If so how?
 35. How have you changed throughout your career?
 36. Has this period away from the game changed the way you see your self?
 37. How do you believe your players perceive you as a person?
 38. Is this different from the way you perceive yourself?
 39. Has this changed since you were last in a managerial position?
 40. How do you believe the players perceive you as a manager? Is there a difference between the way they perceive you to the way you perceive yourself? If so, which is the real you?
 41. Do you still see yourself as a football manager/coach? Do you think this may change and if so what would make you change this perception of yourself?

5.9.2 Appendix two: Consent and demographic information forms for chapter three (lab-based.)

INFORMED CONSENT

The participant should complete the whole of the questionnaire pack on their own

Have you read the research introduction letter?

Yes

No

Have you had the opportunity to ask questions and discuss the study?

Yes

No

Have you received satisfactory answers to all your questions?

Yes

No

Do you understand that you are free to withdraw from the study at any time without having to give a reason for withdrawing?

Yes

No

Have you had sufficient time to think about your involvement in this project?

Yes

No

Would you like to exercise your right to anonymity?

Yes

No

***Please be aware, if you choose to waive your right to anonymity, your name may be used within publications. Please be assured that specific answers will not be identifiable to you as an individual. If you do not wish to be identifiable, please tick 'YES' and a pseudonym will be used when the data is published.

Do you agree to take part in this study?

Yes

No

Signature (participant)

Date

Signature (researcher)

Date

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

Participant Age	<input type="text"/>	
Participant Nationality	<input type="text"/>	
Years in football management	<input type="text"/>	
Level of coaching qualification	<input type="text"/>	
Time out of the game	<input type="text"/>	
Highest level of playing experience	<input type="text"/>	
Previous experience of implicit measure	<input type="radio"/> Y	<input type="radio"/> N
Participant ID	<input type="text"/>	

5.9.3 Appendix three: Perceived leader integrity scale

Perceived Leader Integrity Scale

The following items concern your immediate supervisor. You should consider your immediate supervisor to be the person who you feel has the most control over your daily work activities. Circle responses to indicate how well each item describes your immediate supervisor.

	Not at all	Some what	Very Much	Exactly
1. would use mistakes to attack followers personally	1	2	3	4
2. always gets even	1	2	3	4
3. gives special favours to certain followers	1	2	3	4
4. would lie to followers	1	2	3	4
5. would sacrifice a follower to save myself	1	2	3	4
6. deliberately fuel conflict amongst followers	1	2	3	4
7. is evil	1	2	3	4
8. uses performance appraisals to criticise personally	1	2	3	4
9. has it in for certain people	1	2	3	4
10. would allow followers to take the blame for me	1	2	3	4
11. would falsify work records to help his or her situation	1	2	3	4
12. doesn't have high moral principles	1	2	3	4
13. makes fun of others mistakes instead of coaching them to be better	1	2	3	4
14. exaggerates follower mistakes to make his or her performance seem superior	1	2	3	4
15. is vindictive	1	2	3	4
16. blames followers for his or her mistakes	1	2	3	4
17. avoids some people as he or she want them to fail	1	2	3	4
18. prefers some people due to their ethnicity	1	2	3	4
19. deliberately distorts what followers say	1	2	3	4
20. tries to make followers angry with each other	1	2	3	4

21. is a hypocrite	1	2	3	4
22. would limit followers training if he or she needed to stop them advancing	1	2	3	4
23. would blackmail an employee if he or she thought they could get away with it	1	2	3	4
24. enjoys turning down requests	1	2	3	4
25. makes it difficult for people who get on the wrong side of them	1	2	3	4
26. would take credit for followers ideas	1	2	3	4
27. would steal from the organisation	1	2	3	4
28. would risk followers to get back at others	1	2	3	4
29. would attempt to sabotage the organisation	1	2	3	4
30. would fire someone if he or she didn't like them and thought they could get away with it	1	2	3	4
31. would expect followers to cover for them if they violated the organisations policies	1	2	3	4

Craig, S.B., & Gustafson, S.B. (1998) Perceived Leader Integrity Scale: An Instrument for Assessing Employee Perceptions of Leader Integrity. *Leadership Quarterly*, 9(2), 127-145.

5.9.4 Appendix four: Lab-based IAT

Moral	Immoral
<p>Put your middle or index fingers on the E and I keys of your keyboard. Words representing the categories at the top will appear one-by-one in the middle of the screen. When the item belongs to a category on the left, press the E key; when the item belongs to a category on the right, press the I key. Items belong to only one category. If you make an error, an X will appear - fix the error by hitting the other key.</p> <p>This is a timed sorting task. Please take your time to read these instructions carefully, before GOING AS FAST AS YOU CAN while making as few mistakes as possible during the test. Going too slow or making too many errors will result in an uninterpretable score. This task will take about 5 minutes to complete.</p> <p>Press the SPACE BAR to begin.</p>	
Moral	Immoral
Manipulative	

5.9.5 Appendix five: Athlete commitment survey

Sport Commitment

1. How dedicated are you to playing in this team?

Not at all dedicated	A little dedicated	Sort of dedicated	Dedicated	Very dedicated
1	2	3	4	5

2. How hard would it be for you to quit this team?

Not at all hard	A little hard	Sort of hard	Hard	Very Hard
1	2	3	4	5

3. How determined are you to keep playing for this team?

Not at all determined	A little determined	Sort of determined	Determined	Very determined
1	2	3	4	5

4. What would you be willing to do to keep playing in this team?

Nothing at all	A few things	Some things	Many things	Anything it takes
1	2	3	4	5

Sport Enjoyment

1. Do you *enjoy* playing for this team?

Not at all	A little	Sort of	Pretty much	Very much
1	2	3	4	5

2. Are you *happy* playing in this team?

Not at all	A little	Sort of	Pretty much	Very much
1	2	3	4	5

3. Do you have *fun* playing in this team?

Not at all	A little	Sort of	Pretty much	Very much
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Involvement Opportunities

1. Would you miss being part of this team if you left?

Not at all	A little	Sort of	Pretty much	Very much
1	2	3	4	5

2. Would you miss your head coach if you left?

Not at all	A little	Sort of	Pretty much	Very much
1	2	3	4	5

3. Would you miss the good times you have had playing in this team
this season if you left?

Not at all	A little	Sort of	Pretty much	Very much
1	2	3	4	5

4. Would you miss your team-mates if you left?

Not at all	A little	Sort of	Pretty much	Very much
1	2	3	4	5

5.9.6 Appendix six: IAT protocol

IMPLAS

Assessing Implicit Attitudes.

Coach perceptions of true and pseudo-transformational leadership.

You are invited to participate in a PhD study on behalf of the University of Birmingham. The study examines the stability of indirect attitudes of true and pseudo-transformational leadership, and whether indirect attitudes relate to direct attitudes.

To take part, you must be a sports coach, speak fluent English and be over the age of 18.

Participation will require you to complete a short survey (16-questions) and the same computerised sorting task twice. Each element of the assessment examines your attitudes towards transformational leader integrity characteristics (e.g., honest, attentive, supportive, selfish, coercive, and dominant) and your propensity to answer questions in a socially desirable manner. In total, the whole process should take approx. 12-minutes to complete. Once you're happy to continue, please complete the questionnaire on this page, before clicking the 'Click here to begin' button below – please note that this may cause your pop up blocker to activate. Should this occur, please refresh the page and/or click the link that will appear in the top right hand corner of your browser to allow pop ups.

All data is collected anonymously (to allow you to answer openly) and will be stored on a password-protected computer, the university's server, and via a private, secure hosting company, which can only be accessed by the primary researcher. Should you wish to cease your involvement, you may do so at anytime without explanation – consent to use data in the study is assumed via completion of the survey. Due to the anonymous nature of the study, once finalised, it will not be possible to withdraw as the data cannot be traced back the individual. All anonymous data will be uploaded to a data repository, deleted from both the researcher's computer and the University of Birmingham's online server and used only for the purpose of scientific dissemination.

If you have any questions about this study, please feel free to write to John Mills [redacted] or Dr. Ian Boardley [redacted] School of Sport, Exercise, and Rehabilitation Sciences, University of Birmingham, Edgebaston, B15 2TT.

**Please note that this assessment will not work on older browsers (pre-2009), mobile devices or Safari. Approved browsers include: Google Chrome, Internet Explorer 10+, and Firefox.*

Before continuing, please generate a participant identification code. You will need to enter this number for each step of this study so please make a note of it now.

Participant ID Generator

Min:

Max:

Result:

Powered by RANDOM.ORG

Ready to continue? [Click here](#)

IMPLAS

Assessing Implicit Attitudes.

Group one

Coach perceptions of true and pseudo-transformational leadership.

The following three assessments should take approximately 15-minutes to complete and should be undertaken together in a quiet, distraction free environment. Please make sure you will not be disturbed for the required time before commencing.

Once you're happy to continue, please click next to begin.

0% 100%


Demographics

• Have you read the Study Outline?

☐ Yes ☐ No

• If you have asked questions, did you receive a satisfactory answer?
Please select at most one answer

☐ Yes
☐ No
☐ No answer

 If you haven't asked any questions please select 'no answer'.

• Have you had sufficient time to think about your involvement?

☐ Yes ☐ No

• Do you understand that you are free to withdraw from the study without having to give a reason?

[Continue](#)

Designed by Joshua Beckman

IMPLAS

Assessing Implicit Attitudes.

Group one page two

Please read the instructions below very carefully. You may find the task to be somewhat frustrating at times (this is completely normal and is part of the test), so please do your best to maintain your focus throughout experiment and complete all the tasks with the same level of concentration and effort. Next you will be asked for your participant ID. Please enter the randomly generated participant identification code issued at the start and identify whether you are in group one or two (i.e., 123456group1). Your group can be found at in the top left corner of this page. When entering your participant identification code and group number, please avoid the use of any punctuation.

[Continue.](#)

Designed by [Joshua Beckman](#)



IMPLAS

Assessing Implicit Attitudes.

Group one page three

Moral

Immoral

Put your middle or index fingers on the **E** and **I** keys of your keyboard. Words or images representing the categories at the top will appear one-by-one in the middle of the screen. When the item belongs to a category on the left, press the **E** key; when the item belongs to a category on the right, press the **I** key. Items belong to only one category. If you make an error, an **X** will appear - fix the error by hitting the other key.

This is a timed sorting task. **GO AS FAST AS YOU CAN** while making as few mistakes as possible. Going too slow or making too many errors will result in an uninterpretable score. This task will take about 5 minutes to complete.

Press the **space bar** to begin.

Continue

Designed by by Joshua Beckman

IMPLAS

Assessing Implicit Attitudes.

Debrief

Thank you for completing this study examining the stability of your implicit and explicit attitudes.

The categorisation task you completed as part of this study is called the Implicit Association Test (IAT). The task assesses associations between concepts by measuring how quickly a person can categorise the terms presented. The idea is that the more strongly associated the two concepts are in memory, the more quickly you will be able to categorise words into their paired categories. The test often reveals associations that are different than one's conscious beliefs. For example, within the most famous implicit assessment, the Race IAT, even people who have no conscious preference between black and white people may still have implicit associations that white people are better than black or vice versa. How our implicit associations affect our judgements and behaviours is not yet well understood and may be influenced by a number of variables. As such, the score should serve as no more than an opportunity for self-reflection and is absolutely not a definitive assessment of your implicit thoughts or feelings.

Thank you again for your participation and if you have any questions, please email beckman@ucl.ac.uk

Before leaving, please double check that you have completed two implicit association tests and one survey (see below). If you haven't, please use your browser's back button to return to the missing page.

Once again thank you for your time and please consider sharing the project with other coaches [on Twitter](#) or [Facebook](#).

Moral

Immoral

Put your middle or index fingers on the E and I keys of your keyboard. Words or images representing the categories at the top will appear one-by-one in the middle of the screen. When the item belongs to a category on the left, press the E key; when the item belongs to a category on the right, press the I key. Items belong to only one category. If you make an error, an X will appear - fix the error by hitting the other key.

This is a timed sorting task. **GO AS FAST AS YOU CAN** while making as few mistakes as possible. Going too slow or making too many errors will result in an uninterpretable score. This task will take about 5 minutes to complete.

Press the **space bar** to begin.

Coach perceptions of true and pseudo-transformational leadership.

The following three assessments should take approximately 15-minutes to complete and should be undertaken together in a quiet, distraction free environment. Please make sure you will not be disturbed for the required time before commencing.

Once you're happy to continue, please click next to begin.

0% 100%

Demographics

• Have you read the Study Outline?

☐ Yes ☐ No

• If you have asked questions, did you receive a satisfactory answer?