Leadership Power Perception of Amateur and Professional Soccer Coaches and Players According to Their Belief in Good Luck or Not

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to analyze the leadership power perception of amateur and professional soccer coaches and players according to their belief in good luck or not. Data collected from 165 male soccer coaches and 870 male soccer players including professionals and amateurs. The coaches had a mean age of 40.24 years (SD=8.40) and had been coaching for an average of 8.56 years (SD=6.75). The players had a mean age of 18.40 years (SD=4.00) and had been playing soccer for an average of 6.00 years (SD=4.15) with license. Adapted Turkish version of Power in Soccer Questionnaire-Other (PSQ-O for soccer players), Power in Soccer Questionnaire-Self (PSQ-S for coaches) and an information form were used for the data collection. Cronbach Reliability Alphas of PSQ-O and PSQ-S range between 0.60 and 0.84. Players’ and coaches’ data were analyzed by Kruskal-Wallis and Mann Whitney Tests. Analysis of PSQ-O revealed significant differences related to Coersive Power-CP \( \chi^2 (3) = 8.46, p<0.037 \), Referent Power-RP \( \chi^2 (3) = 14.84, p<0.002 \) and Expert Power-EP \( \chi^2 (3) = 7.63, p<0.054 \), and no significant differences related to Legitimate Power-LP \( p>0.05 \). Results of PSQ-O and PSQ-S indicated complex relationships related to belief in good luck or not. Overall, there are differences between coaches’ and players’ perception of CP, LP and EP related to belief in good luck or not. The only similarity appears to be in perception of RP. However, there is lack of research to make more certain conclusions. Future researchers should also take into consideration gender, sport experience, age, taking responsibility, self-confidence, attributions, expectations, superstitions, emotions, perception of achievement etc.

Key words: leadership power perception, social power, interpersonal power, soccer, soccer player, soccer coach, good luck belief

Introduction

Leaders’ influences and followers’ compliance have frequently been studied in social and organizational psychology within a theoretical framework known as the bases of social power\(^2\). Sport leadership has also been a very intriguing area for practitioners and researchers\(^4\). French and Raven identified five sources of interpersonal power (reward, coercive, referent, legitimate and expert) in leadership\(^2\). Wann, Metcalf, Brewer and Whiteside adapted these interpersonal powers to sport settings showing the psychometrically sound validity and reliability results of the five-factor model in North America\(^5\). Konter recently adapted these scales in Turkish language using soccer players and coaches\(^1\). Despite these recent developments, there is a striking paucity of research related to sport leadership power in general and soccer leadership power in particular.

People in general, and coaches, sport officials, players, and even spectators in particular, possess power to the extent that they have the ability to influence or change the attitudes or behaviors of others in a socio-cultural environment\(^2\). French and Raven conducted the most influential work on power and defined five interpersonal or social powers as indicated above\(^6\).

Reward power involves the ability to reward others such as, verbal praise, positive body language, and more playing time. Coercive power concerns the ability to control access to one or more punishments for example, ver-
bal reprimands, negative gesture, giving less playing time, making players run laps or do sit-ups or, push-ups. Legitimate power involves the ability to use one’s position and authority within the organization, group or team, for example, being an authority figure, possessing official status, ownership of the organization, being the head coach etc. Expert power is derived from the perception that one is knowledgeable, skillful, or talented in a specific domain for example, being a former star in that sport, having specific education and experience, awarded many titles or medals. Referent power involves the ability to be liked and respected by the group members, for example, athletes like respect and admire their coaches, and follow their decisions.

In addition to French and Raven’s interpersonal power construct, two other typologies have also been proposed. Kelman put forward a three-power taxonomy including compliance, identification and internalization while a number of authors suggested a two-power typology incorporating personal and positional powers. Compliance reflects reward and coercive powers, identification corresponds to referent power, and internalization matches legitimate and expert power. Position power can be equated with reward, coercive, and legitimate powers while personal power is congruent with referent and expert powers.

Compatibility between coaches’ and athletes’ perception of power can affect satisfaction, ability, positive assessment, team cohesion, imagery, coping with stress and control of competitive anxiety. Cushion and Jones found that instruction, praising and keeping silence respectively are the dominant behaviors in coaching of British football. Lyle also indicated that coaching, in general and specifically, involves developing the sporting ability of athletes. Research has indicated that; relationship between coaches and athletes is a dynamic process, changing over time and conditions, affecting the thoughts, emotions and behaviors of the both sides, coaches prefer more authoritarian style (LP and CP) than athletes, coaches caring and athletes like respect and admire their coaches, and follow their decisions.

Researchers found that religion has an important impact in athletes’ life for; (a) giving meaning for their physical abilities which they feel powerless to explain, (b) concrete and spiritual rewards, (c) idealizing of their talents by the others (for example; managers, coaches, teachers, administrators etc.), (d) hope, (e) feeling secure and confident.

Concept of auspicious (belief in good luck), gives hope of success or evidence that success is likely, which is sometimes used in connection with promising or favorable situations. Luck is a force quality that seems to cause good things to happen to some people, but not to others, without any purpose or reason. Luck is also a success that a person has, especially when it does not seem to result from their abilities, qualifications and efforts which is sometimes used in connection with chance and fortune. Concepts related to belief in good luck and chance are studied in connection with superstitions and attributions in psychology.

Superstition is belief in magic, ghosts, devils, fairies, etc., people believe in those that certain things are signs of good luck or bad luck. For example; using a certain stepping entry to the field (for left or right foot), soccer kits (uniform number, shorts, socks, leggings, trainers, crampons), field related applications (hitting to the post of the field, walking around certain areas of the field, certain behaviors related to lines of the field), thinking about loved ones, religious related behaviors (preys), touching certain part of body (nose, legs, hair) etc. Attributions are reasons that a person perceives related to the happenings about oneself and others in connection with the perception of success and failure. For example; chance, task difficulty, effort, ability. What matters is that attributions are perceptions, not facts, and exceptional coaches and athletes take the time to assess their perceptions.

Attributions related to chance and belief in good luck or not seem to be common among coaches and players. Research in believing and not believing good luck in relation with perception of leadership power of coaches and players in soccer could help obtain information as regard with causality and controllability dimensions. There is definitely lack of research related to perception of leadership power and belief in good luck or not. The forms of the FSQ would also be of value to leadership research in soccer, because they could provide information about a team’s chemistry, players’ and coaches’ perception, cognition, behavior, communication, leadership, satisfaction, performance and other factors involving the socio-psychological nature. Therefore, objective of this research is to analyze the leadership power perception of amateur and professional soccer coaches and players according to their belief in good luck or not. Related to the objective, research questions of this study are as follows;

a) Are there significant differences between the leadership power perceptions (coercive, referent, legitimate and expert powers) of soccer players (amateurs and professionals) and their belief in good luck (Believer Amateur-BA, Not Believer Amateur-NBA, Believer-Professional-BP and Not Believer Professional-NBP soccer players) or not?

b) Are there significant differences between the leadership power perceptions (coercive, referent, legitimate and expert powers) of soccer coaches (coaches for amateurs and coaches for professionals) and their belief in good luck (Believer Amateur-BA, Not Believer Amateur-NBA, Believer-Professional-BP and Not Believer Professional-NBP soccer coaches) or not?

Material and Methods

Participants: Data collected from 165 male soccer coaches (n=71 Technical Director-manager and A License, n=46 B License, n=48 Amateur License) and 870 male soccer players (n=173 professionals and n=697 amateurs). The coaches had a mean age of 40.24 years.
(SD=8.40) and had been coaching for an average of 8.56 years (SD=6.75). The players had a mean age of 18.40 years (SD=4.00) and had been playing soccer for an average of 6.00 years (SD=4.15) with license. Professional soccer players had a daily training regimes (sometimes two training session a day) and had at least one official game over the weekend. Amateur soccer players had training sessions three times a week and a game over the weekend (particularly during the competition period of the year).

Instrument: Wann et al.\(^5\) pioneered using French and Raven’s five interpersonal powers construct in sports and developed the Power in Sport Questionnaire-Other (PSQ-O) and Power in Soccer Questionnaire-Self (PSQ-S). Konter adapted the PSQ forms related to soccer for Turkey and found relatively similar results with the elimination of 5 items from PSQ-O and 5 items from PSQ-S as a result of confirmatory and exploratory factor analyses\(^1\). Turkish versions of PSQ-O has total 10 items and PSQ-S has total 11 items with four factors, coercive, referent, legitimate and expert powers. The analyses of PSQ-O and PSQ-S for Turkey revealed that the subscales were acceptable for research purposes and internally consistent for PSQ-O and from 0.60 to 0.75 for PSQ-S and from 0.65 to 0.84 for PSQ-S\(^1\), PSQ-O and PSQ-S are Likert-scale formats and responses to each item range from 1 (this is very untrue) to 9 (this is very true). For example, on the PSQ-O, an item (item 4) on the legitimate power factor read »I do what this person/these persons ask and I abide by their decisions because they are in charge in this sport«. In contrast, on the PSQ-S, this item read, »Others do what I ask and abide my decisions because I am in charge in this sport«. Soccer players and coaches’ belief in good luck or not were determined by the demographic questionnaire where participants simply asked a »yes« or »no« question.

Procedures and Data Collection: Adapted Turkish version of PSQ-O, PSQ-S and a questionnaire related to demographic variables including the believing and not believing in good luck were administered to soccer players and coaches for the data collection. Head coaches for soccer clubs were contacted and the nature of the research project was explained. The coaches were informed that the research involved coaches’ and athletes’ perceptions of influences related to leadership power in soccer. After the coaches and soccer players consented to participate in the research, a meeting time and place for testing sessions was determined.

At the testing session, players briefly were given information about the research project and they were encouraged to answer the questionnaire honestly. They were also asked not to put their names on the forms and informed that their answers would only be used for research purposes and kept confidential. PSQ forms with brief instructions were then administered to players (PSQ-O) and coaches (PSQ-S). Both PSQ forms also had some demographic questions to collect information about participants’ ages, gender, sport, years of experience and educational level. Completion of each PSQ form required approximately 10–15 minutes.

Analysis of Data: Nonparametric Kruskal-Wallis and Mann-Whitney Tests for 2 X 2 comparisons were applied for the both set of data (PSQ-O for soccer players data and PSQ-S for soccer coaches data), after Kolmogorov-Smirnov Normality Test analysis had been carried out to check the players’ and coaches’ data distribution. Comparisons were made between four dependent (CP, RP, LP and EP), and four independent variables (Believer Amateur-BA, Not Believer Amateur-NBA, Believer-Professional-BP and Not Believer Professional-NBP soccer players and coaches).

As the analysis of Kolmogorov-Smirnov Normality Test showed that the both set of data distribution in the analysis are not in normal shape, and small number of one independent variable (particularly in coaches’ data, please see the Table 2), Kruskal-Wallis and Mann-Whitney Tests were decided for the both data analysis. Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z changed between 0.080 and 0.166, and p values ranged between 0.001 and 0.040 showing not normal distributions of data for PSQ-O.

Four unanswered data from PSQ-S, and thirteen unanswered data from PSQ-O were eliminated from the analysis. SPSS 11.1 program was used for the both set of data analysis. Results of the analyzed data are presented below.

### Results

Results of PSQ-O: Kruskal-Wallis and Mann Whînney Tests of the leadership power perception of amateur and professional soccer players according to their belief in good luck or not are presented in Table 1.

Analysis of PSQ-O revealed significant differences between leadership power perception of amateur and professional soccer players according to their belief in good luck or not related to CP (\(\chi^2 (3)=8.46, \ p<0.037\), EP (\(\chi^2 (3)=7.63, \ p<0.054\)), and no significant differences related to LP (\(p>0.05\)).

Comparative analysis using Mann Whitney Test yielded following results: Mean Rank Analyses showed that BA players (Mean Rank=457.87) have higher perception of CP than the NBA (Mean Rank=418.11) and NBP players (Mean Rank=384.66). In addition, Mean Rank Analysis revealed that; BA players (Mean Rank=458.91) have higher perception of EP than the NBA players (Mean Rank=391.07), BP players (Mean Rank=452.89) have higher perception of RP than NBA players (Mean Rank=390.71), and NBP players (Mean Rank=452.45) have higher perception of RP than NBP players (Mean Rank=391.07). Moreover, Mean Rank Analysis showed that; BA players (Mean Rank=452.95) have higher perception of EP than the NBP players (Mean Rank=375.08), and NBA players (Mean Rank=422.95) have higher perception of EP than NBP players (Mean Rank=375.08). It seems that BA players have generally higher perception of CP, RP and EP than other groups. Table 1
presents the meaningful differences between perception of athletes' CP, RP, LP and their belief in good luck or not.

Results of PSQ-S: Kruskal-Wallis and Mann Whitney Tests’ results of the leadership power perception of amateur and professional soccer coaches according to their belief in good luck or not is presented in Table 2.

Analysis of PSQ-S revealed significant differences between leadership power perception of amateur and professional soccer coaches according to their belief in good luck or not related to RP and LP, and no significant differences related to CP and EP (p>.05).

Comparative analysis using Mann Whitney Test yielded following results: Mean Rank Analyses showed that BA coaches (Mean Rank=23.07) have higher perception of RP than the NBA coaches (Mean Rank=19.52) and NBP coaches (Mean Rank=20.31). In addition, Mean Rank Analysis revealed that; BA coaches (Mean Rank=15.08) have higher perception of LP than the NBA (Mean Rank=12.18), BP coaches (Mean Rank=10.88), and NBP (Mean Rank=12.71) coaches. It seems that BA coaches have higher perception of RP and LP than other groups. Table 2 presents the meaningful differences between perception of coaches’ RP and LP, and their belief in good luck or not.

Discussion

Analysis of PSQ-O revealed significant differences between leadership power perception of amateur and professional soccer players according to their belief in good luck or not related to CP, RP and EP. However, no significant differences were found as regard with LP. Further analysis showed that; BA players have higher perception of CP than the NBA and NBP players. In addition, BA players have higher perception of RP than NBA players, BP players have higher perception of RP than NBA players, and NBP players have higher perception of RP than NBA players. Moreover, BA players have higher perception of EP than the NBP players, and NBA players have
higher perception of EP than NBP players. It seems that BA players have generally higher perception of CP, RP and EP than other groups.

It seems that believing in good luck is important related to the perception of CP, RP and EP, no matter players are amateur or professional, since results significantly indicated that BA have higher perception of CP, RP and EP than NBA and NBP (Table 1). When not believers of good luck are compared in themselves (NBA and NBP), results also showed that: (a) NBA have meaningfully higher perception of CP and EP than NBP; (b) NBP have significantly higher perception of RP than NBA. When amateur soccer players are compared in themselves (BA and NBA), BA players have meaningfully higher mean scores than NBA players related to perception of CP, RP and EP (even LP, but not significantly) in believing good luck. These results also indicate that BA players are more in need of CP, RP, LP and EP than NBA players.

Similarly, when professional soccer players are compared in themselves (BP and NBP), BP players have higher scores than NBP related to perception of CP and EP but equal mean values as regard with perception of RP. It appears that there are complex relationships between all the variables of players related to belief in good luck or not. For example; BA players have higher mean values than all other groups (NBA, BP and NBP) related to perception of CP, RP and EP, while NBP players have

TABLE 2

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Note: BA= believer amateur, NBA= not believer amateur, BP= believer professional, NBP= not believer professional

TABLE 3

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<th>Leadership power factor</th>
<th>Belief in good luck or not</th>
<th>Significant differences</th>
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<tr>
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<td>Yes</td>
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<td>EP</td>
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1005
higher mean values than all the other groups as regard with perception of LP. It seems that believers of good luck have higher perception of CP, RP and EP than not believers of good luck. Conversely, it appears that, not believers of good luck players perceive more LP than believers of good luck. Table 1 presents the meaningful differences between perception of athletes’ CP, RP, LP and their belief in good luck or not.

Analysis of PSQ-S revealed significant differences between leadership power perception of amateur and professional soccer coaches according to their belief in good luck or not related to RP LP and no significant differences related to CP and EP Mean Rank Analyses showed that; BA coaches have higher perception of RP than the NBA coaches and NBP coaches. In addition, analyses revealed that; BA coaches have higher perception of LP than the NBA, BP and NBP coaches. It seems that BA coaches have higher perception of RP and LP than other groups.

Analyses of PSQ-S also indicated complex relationships between amateur and professional soccer coaches’ variables related to belief in good luck or not. For example in amateur soccer; BA coaches have higher mean values than NBA related to perception of CP, RP and LP. These coaches’ results seem to be as same as players’ results indicated above. In professional soccer; BP coaches have higher mean values than NBP related to perception of RP and EP, but lower mean values in terms of perception CP and LP. These partly indicate the same results with the players’ EP and LP results given above. There are also complex relationships between all variables involved in the research related to coaches’ data. For example; BA coaches have higher mean values than all other groups (NBA, BP and NBP) related to CP, RP and LP while BP players have only higher mean value than all the groups as regard with EP. These coaches’ results are not parallel with the players’ results except CP. Table 2 presents the meaningful differences between perception of coaches’ RP and LP, and their belief in good luck or not.

In general, there are more differences than similarities between coaches’ and players’ perception of leadership power related to belief in good luck or not are presented in Table 3. As a whole, there are differences between coaches’ and players’ perception of CP, LP and EP related to their belief in good luck or not. The only difference appears to be in perception of RP between soccer coaches and players. These differences might cause perception problems and misunderstandings interpreting the CP, LP and EP between coaches and players in soccer.

There is almost no research including leadership power perception and belief in good luck or not. Therefore, it is difficult to make comments on supporting and not supporting researches extensively at present. However, belief in good luck or not can be assessed using the researches as regard with attributions. Belief in good luck or not might also be related to motivation, commitment, self-confidence, concentration, stress, relaxation etc. For example; Hoffman argued that if athletes believe in a kind of over nature or spiritual power which supports them, they can cope with competitive anxiety more effectively.

Belief in good luck or not can also have connections with external, uncontrollable and stable attributions. There could be different kind of beliefs in good luck in soccer. Some of them might be religious (for example; preys), using a certain stepping entry to the field (for example; left or right foot), soccer kits (for example; uniform number, shorts, socks, leggings, trainers, crampons), field related applications (for example; hitting to the post of the field, walking around certain areas of the field, certain behaviors related to lines of the field), thinking about loved ones (for example; lovers, husband or wife, children, fiancé), touching certain part of body (for example; nose, legs, coming hair) and some other kinds of routines. As a whole, all the things done for good luck can have connection with the factors such as; instrumental and none-instrumental (spiritual), concrete and abstract, manipulative and none-manipulative, intrinsic and extrinsic, direct and indirect, general and specific. Therefore, all of these might be related to superstitions and RP Results of the present research indicated that believers can have higher RP than not believers (please see Table 1 and Table 2).

Not belief in good luck could be related to internal, controllable, and unstable attributions. In other words, not belief in good luck can be connected with effort, ability, and task difficulty. However more research is needed to have more certain conclusions.

Dorfman put forward that responsibility and courage should be shown in the face of bad luck, and from advantages of good luck should be benefited. Dorfman also argued that superstitious beliefs could be related to lack of self-confidence, and escape from individual responsibility. Therefore; belief in good luck or not might be related to taking responsibility, courage, and self-confidence.

It is possible to say is that, human beings have been in need of belief in their whole historical process. Physical activity, play, games, dances and sports have been in relation with religious celebrations and rituals. Sports have a certain place in different kind of beliefs, and beliefs have an important effect on sports. In other words, different kind of beliefs and sports participation interact with each other. Therefore, soccer players and coaches can have different kind of beliefs effecting their perception of leadership power, success and performance. For example; religious practices, first step to the field, hitching or wearing certain types of materials (like necklace, bracelet, rings, amulet), shoes, shorts, shirts, uniform number, using the same materials and dressing, and some other obsessions. Players and coaches can also have some kind of bad luck beliefs. For example; crossing the arms, seeing a grave or coffin etc.

Practical implications of the present study are as follows:

1 – Amateurs’ leadership perceptions (CP, RP and EP) are different then professionals. This means that leader-
ship power perceptions of players are effected by their level of play, and their good luck beliefs. Therefore, coaches should adopt their leadership to the level of play of athletes as appropriate.

2 – Coaches should take into consideration players’ good luck beliefs which could affect athletes’ motivation, self confidence, locus of control, courage, stress and related psychological skills. Therefore, implications for practice with this regard are as follows;

- NBA and NBP might be more in need of CP
- NBA could be more in need of RP than BA,
- NBA may be in more need of RP than NBP
- NBP might be more in need of EP than BA,
- NBP could be in more need of EP than NBA,
- Not believer of good luck players would be in more need of CP, RP and EP
- Believer of good luck players might be more in need of LP than not good luck players,
- NBP could be more in need of CP and EP than NBA,
- NBA might be more in need of RP than NBP,
- when amateur soccer players are compared in themselves NBA might be more in need of CP, RP and EP (even LP, but not significantly) than BA.

3 – To some extent, amateur coaches’ leadership perceptions are different then professional coaches. This means that leadership power perceptions of coaches are effected by the level of play and their good luck beliefs. Therefore, Coaches should adopt their leadership according to the level of play and their good luck beliefs as appropriate. For example;

- NBA coaches could be more in need of CP, RP and LP than BA,
- NBP might be more in need of RP and EP than BP,
- NBA, NBP and BP could be in more need of CP, RP and LP than BA,
- NBP and BA might be more in need of EP than BP coaches.

4 – In general, there are more differences (particularly, CP, LP and EP) than similarities (RP) between coaches’ and players’ perception of leadership powers related to belief in good luck or not. Therefore, differences in perception of leadership powers between coaches and players could cause performance and satisfaction problems affecting the both parts to obtain the desired results. Therefore, coaches should be cautious about perception differences between athletes and coaches and to overcome this problem they could increase their knowledge of sport psychology related to sport leadership and seek for help from sport psychologists.

We often hear comments from players and coaches related to results of the games, bad and good results, poor and high performance or success that they use attributions such as good luck or bad luck. Therefore, future researchers related to belief in good luck or not and perception of leadership power should also take into consideration of gender, sport experience, age, taking responsibility, self-confidence, attributions, expectations, superstitions, emotions, perception of achievement etc. to be able to obtain more information to have more certain conclusions.

REFERENCES

PERCEPCIJA MOĆI VODSTVA KOD AMATERSKIH I PROFESIONALNIH NOGOMETNIH SUDACA I IGRAČA PREMA NJIHOVOM VJEROVANJU U DOBRU SREĆU

SAŽETAK

Svrha ove studije je analizirati percepciju moći vodstva kod amaterskih i profesionalnih nogometnih sudaca i igrača s obzirom na njihova vjerovanja u dobru sreću. Podaci su prikupljeni na uzorku od 165 muških nogometnih sudaca i 870 muških igrača nogometa, kako profesionalaca tako i amatera. Prosječna dob sudaca je 40,24 godine (SD=8,4), a prosjek njihove sudачke karijere je 8,56 godina (SD=6,75). Prosječna dob igrača je 18,40 (SD=4,00), a prosjek njihove igračke karijere iznosi 6,00 godina (SD=4,15) sa licencom. Prilagođena turska verzija upitnika »Moć u nogometu- ostali« za igrače, »Moć u nogometu- ja« za suce i informativna forma korišteni su za kolekciju podataka. Cronbach Alpha pouzdanost za upitnika »Moć u nogometu- ostali« i »Moć u nogometu- ja« proteže se u intervalu od 0,60 i 0,84. Podaci od igrača i sudaca analizirani su sa Kruskal-Wallis i Mann Whitney testom. Rezultati analiza »Moć u nogometu- ostali« i »Moć u nogometu- ja« ukazuju na kompleksnu vezu u odnosu na vjerovanje u dobru i lošu sreću. U konačnici, postoje razlike između sudaca i igrača u percepciji CP-a, LP-a i EP-a u odnosu na vjerovanje u dobru i lošu sreću. Jedina sličnost pokazuje se u percepciji RP-a. Nadalje, manjkaju istraživanja kako bi se mogli donijeti sigurnij zaključci. Budući istraživači trebali bi u obzir uzeti i rod, sportsko iskustvo, dob, preuzimanje odgovornosti, samopouzdanje, očekivanja, prazovjerje, osjećaje, percepciju uspeha, itd.