

THE INTERACTION BETWEEN PATERNALISTIC LEADERSHIP AND ACHIEVEMENT GOALS IN PREDICTING ATHLETES' SPORTSPERSONSHIP

Frank Jing-Horng Lu¹ and Yawen Hsu²

¹Graduate Institute of Physical Education, National Taiwan Sport University, Taiwan

²Department of Physical Education, Health & Recreation, National Chiayi University, Taiwan

Original scientific paper

UDC: 796.038:316.6-053.6(529)

Abstract:

Paternalistic leadership, which is a prevalent leadership style in business contexts in non-Western cultures, is characterized by three dimensions: authoritarianism, benevolence, and morality. The current study of 252 Taiwanese intercollegiate athletes ($M_{age}=20.91$ years) explored this leadership style in a sports setting and examined the extent to which the interaction of paternalistic leadership and achievement goals predicted athletes' sportspersonship. Participants completed the *Paternalistic Leadership in Sport Questionnaire*, *Task and Ego Orientation in Sport Questionnaire*, and *Multidimensional Sportspersonship Orientation Scale*. Athletes' ego-orientation and perceived authoritarian leadership were related to lower levels of sportspersonship. In contrast, task-orientation, benevolent leadership, and moral leadership predicted higher levels of sportspersonship and confirmed findings reported in the research literature. Hierarchical regression analyses revealed that authoritarianism moderated the relationship between ego, orientation and sportspersonship. Future sports research should consider paternalistic leadership as an alternative approach when investigating coach-athlete relationships and the influence of coaches' leadership on athletes' growth and moral responses.

Key words: youth sports, achievement motivation, authoritarianism, benevolence, moral behaviors

Introduction

In a competitive sport setting, many parents whose children participate in youth sports programs expect them to learn how to play fairly and behave graciously regardless of whether they win or lose. However, despite displaying good sportspersonship, unsporting behaviors frequently occur within different sports regardless of the level of competition (Shields, LaVoi, Bredemeier, & Power, 2007; Stornes, 2001; Van Yperen, Hamstra, & van der Klauw, 2011). Learning sportspersonship is not an automatic outcome but depends on individual factors, such as athletes' achievement goals, and situational factors, such as coaches' leadership (Barić & Bucik, 2009; Kassing & Barber, 2007).

Social agents (coaches, parents, and teammates) influence athletes' sportspersonship (Barić & Bucik, 2009; Kavussanu, Roberts, & Ntoumanis, 2002; Shields, et al., 2007; Vallerand, Briere, Blanchard, & Provencher, 1997). Research has documented that coaches' autocratic behaviors are associated with athletes' unsporting behaviors such as negative attitudes and aggression (Kavussanu, et al., 2002). In contrast, democratic leadership, social support,

and positive feedback have been found to be related to athletes' commitment and respect for social conventions, rules, and opponents (Kavussanu, et al., 2002; Ntoumanis & Standage, 2009). Although research findings have been consistent, it should be noted that most research on leadership and coaching has been dominated by Western approaches. Recent research has increasingly focused on the non-Western theory of Paternalistic Leadership (Cheng, Chou, & Farh, 2000; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008).

Paternalistic leadership is defined as fatherly leadership that combines strong authority with concern and considerateness (Cheng, et al., 2000). Earlier studies found that the paternalistic leadership style, demonstrated by Chinese family business leaders, was widespread in many Eastern cultures and distinct from Western leadership styles. The unique feature of this leadership style was that business leaders adopted a paternal role which incorporated both authoritarian and benevolent behaviors. Recently, paternalistic leadership research has also been extended to the Western business context (Pellegrini, Scandura, & Jayaraman, 2010; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008).

Based on the examination of indigenous leadership behaviors in a variety of organizations, Farh, Cheng, and their colleagues (Cheng, et al., 2000; Cheng, Chou, Wu, Huang, & Farf, 2004; Farh & Cheng, 2000) proposed a three-dimensional model that conceptualized the cultural traditions reflected in paternalistic leadership. *Authoritarianism* was defined as the leader's authority and dominance over subordinates, which required subordinates to comply with the leader's orders without question or dissent. *Benevolence* was characterized by the leader's demonstration of personal concern for the well-being of subordinates and their families. *Morality* indicated that the leader demonstrated superior moral character, virtue, and integrity by acting unselfishly or as a role model. Empirical studies of businesses have found that benevolent and moral leadership promotes prosocial behaviors such as trust and friendship, organizational citizen behavior, loyalty, and commitment (Cheng et al., 2014; Chu & Hung, 2009; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008). In contrast, authoritarian leadership has been found to be negatively associated with leaders' benevolence and morality and related to negative outcomes such as subordinate dependency and anger (Cheng, et al., 2014; Cheng, et al., 2004; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008). Moreover, it was found that benevolent and moral leadership had a positive influence, and authoritarian paternalistic leadership had a negative influence on ethics climate in workplaces (Erben & Güneşer, 2008).

Although business and sports are different domains that deal with different types of individuals, both domains involve the pursuit of excellence in performance and share many features with regard to interpersonal interactions and operations, particularly in regard to leadership behavior (Weinberg & McDermott, 2002). Successful leaders in sports and business contexts exhibit similar characteristics such as trustworthiness, communication skills, support, concern for others, and honesty (Jones, 2002; Weinberg & McDermott, 2002). Preliminary research has found that paternalistic leadership in athletic settings is associated with athletic burnout, the expression of positive or negative emotions, and satisfaction with performance (Chen, Tsai, & Chen, 2005; Kao, 2001). In addition, coaches' paternalistic leadership influences team cultural values through team socialization process such as senior members' demonstration and team history (Kao & Chuang, 2009). However, no research has yet demonstrated the association between paternalistic leadership and sportspersonship. Literature on business contexts confirmed that benevolent and moral leadership promotes prosocial behaviors and ethical climate (Cheng, et al., 2014; Chu & Hung, 2009; Erben & Güneşer, 2008; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008). Thus, it is worthy of investigation in sports setting to find out whether these two types of leadership would

have similar positive influence on moral behaviors and attitude such as sportspersonship.

In addition to leadership, sportspersonship is also influenced by the athlete's achievement goals (Nicholls, 1989). For example, a stronger endorsement of task-oriented goals was associated with higher levels of sportspersonship, less tolerance for aggression and cheating, and greater respect for rules, officials, and opponents (Gano-Overway, Guivernau, Magyar, Waldron, & Ewing, 2005; Lemyre, Roberts, & Ommundsen, 2002; Shields, et al., 2007). On the other hand, high ego-oriented athletes were more likely to demonstrate less respect for opponents and rules, and tended to think that cheating and deception were acceptable to gain an advantage (Lemyre, et al., 2002; Shields, et al., 2007; Stornes & Ommundsen, 2004).

According to achievement goal theory (Nicholls, 1989), athletes' achievement goals are based on the interaction of their dispositional goal orientations with the situational goal climate. This suggests that coaches' behavior and leadership should interact with athletes' achievement goals to influence athletes (Barić & Bucik, 2009; Kassing & Barber, 2007; Shields, et al., 2007). However, the foci of literature were mainly on the effects of either leadership or achievement goals on athletes' behaviors, and so far no research has yet examined the interaction of leadership styles and achievement goals on athletes' sportspersonship.

In sum, research on paternalistic leadership was not sufficient in a sports setting and has not yet focused on sportspersonship. In addition, further empirical evidence was needed to clarify the interaction of leadership styles and achievement goals. The aim of this study was to examine the main effects of non-Western paternalistic leadership and athletes' achievement goals, as well as the interactional effects of these two concepts on their sportspersonship. The first hypothesis (H_1) in this study was that athletes' ego-orientation was associated with lower levels of sportspersonship; in contrast, task-orientation was associated with higher levels of sportspersonship. Secondly, sportspersonship was also hypothesized to have different relationships with three dimensions of paternalistic leadership (H_2). Specifically, the authoritarian paternalism was hypothesized to have negative relation with sportspersonship, and the coaches' both benevolent and moral paternalism was hypothesized to have positive association with athletes' sportspersonship. The final purpose in the present study was to probe into the interaction effect of athletes' achievement goals and coaches' paternalistic leadership style on athletes' sportspersonship. However, no firm theoretical reason or empirical evidence has yet be found to support the directions of the interaction effects so far. Therefore, no hypothesis was proposed to rationalize the interaction.

Methods

Participants

Two hundred and fifty-two Taiwanese intercollegiate athletes (169 males, 83 females), with a mean age of 20.91 years ($SD=1.63$), participated in the study. Participants were involved in either individual sports (swimming, cycling, track-and-field, gymnastics, and martial arts); team sports (baseball, tug-of-war, handball, rugby, volleyball, basketball, or korfbal); or mixed sports (table tennis, tennis, or badminton). The athletes trained for 24.93 ($SD=1.63$) hours per week and had 8.12 ($SD=1.53$) years of sports competition and training experience on average.

Measurements

Demographic Questionnaire

Participants provided demographic information that included gender, age, type of sports event, number of training hours per week, and years of sports experience.

Paternalistic Leadership in Sport Questionnaire (PLSQ)

The Paternalistic Leadership in Sport Questionnaire (Kao, 2001), which is a revision of Cheng's (2000) *Paternalistic Leadership Scale* (PLS) for business, is a 22-item self-report questionnaire. The PLSQ assesses athletes' perception of three dimensions of a coach's leadership: authoritarianism (six items, *My coach asks me to obey his/her instructions completely*), benevolence (four items, *My coach is like a family member when he/she gets along with us*), and morality (nine items, *My coach teaches team members according to his/her virtues*). The participants rated all PLSQ items using a five-point Likert scale that ranged from 1 (*totally disagree*) to 5 (*totally agree*). Research on athletes in Taiwan has documented that the PLSQ exhibits adequate reliability and validity (Chen, et al., 2005; Kao, 2001; Kao & Chuang, 2009). In the present study, a factor analysis found that the PLSQ with 19 items and three factors accounted for 52.25% of the variance after three items were removed due to cross-loadings or low factor loadings. Cronbach's α coefficients ranged from .79 to .91.

Task- and Ego-Orientation in Sport Questionnaire (TEOSQ)

The TEOSQ is a sports-specific instrument that assesses an individual's tendency to adopt either a personally-based or comparative perspective toward success in athletic settings (Duda & Nicholls, 1991). The Chinese version of the TEOSQ is a 13-item scale with adequate reliability and validity (Li, Harmer, Chi, & Vongjaturapat, 1996). Following first sentence: *I feel most successful in my sport/*

competition when ..., the participants responded to seven task-orientation items (e.g. ... when I do my very best) and six ego-orientation items (e.g. ... when I play better than others). The participants rated all items using a five-point Likert scale that ranged from 1 (*totally disagree*) to 5 (*totally agree*). In the present study, a factor analysis found that the two-factor TEOSQ accounted for 47.89% of the variance after one item from the task-orientation subscale was removed due to a low factor loading. The Cronbach's α coefficients were .85 for task-orientation and .79 for ego-orientation (see Table 1).

Multidimensional Sportpersonship Orientation Scale (MSOS)

The MSOS (Vallerand, et al., 1997) is a self-report measure that has been employed in previous sportpersonship research (Gano-Overway, et al., 2005; Lemyre, et al., 2002; Stornes & Ommundsen, 2004). It assesses five dimensions of sportpersonship: commitment toward participation, negative attitudes, respect and concern for the rules and officials, respect and concern for social conventions, and respect and concern for opponents. The participants rated all items using a five-point Likert scale that ranged from 1 (*never true of me*) to 5 (*always true of me*) to assess their sportpersonship.

In the present study, a factor analysis found that 18 items with three interpretable factors accounted for 48.68% of the variance. The first factor – *participation commitment and respect for rules and officials* (e.g. obey the official) – was associated with eight items and combined the original *full commitment to sports participation* and *respect and concern for rules and officials* subscales into a single subscale. The second factor – *respect for social conventions and opponents* (e.g. congratulate opponents after a loss) – was associated with six items and combined the original *respect and concern for social conventions* and *respect and concern for opponents* subscales into a single subscale. The third factor – *negative sports attitudes* (e.g. make excuses for poor play) – was associated with four items and was consistent with the original instrument. The Cronbach's α coefficients for the internal consistency of the factors ranged from .76 to .84. To test for interaction effects, the authors used a composite score that summed the three MSOS subscales as the dependent variable in the hierarchical regression analysis, after the items in the negative sports attitudes subscale were recoded so that higher scores represented higher levels of sportpersonship.

Data collection procedures

Following approval from the University's Ethics Committee and Institutional Review Board, the authors contacted either coaches or team leaders regarding the project to obtain permission to collect

data from their teams. Potential participants were informed of the anonymity and confidentiality of their personal information and responses. After signing a consent form, participants completed a survey packet that included a questionnaire requesting demographic information, the PLSQ, the TEOSQ, and the MSOS, whose completion took approximately 15 to 20 minutes. Participants received a convenience store coupon worth approximately 3.30 USD for their participation.

Statistical analyses

Preliminary analyses

The descriptive statistical analysis of the collected data calculated means and standard deviations and screened for skewness (-1.240~1.414), kurtosis (-1.105~1.103), outliers, and missing values for all variables. Gender differences for all the variables were examined because previous researchers have claimed that sports settings exhibit gender differences (Gill & Kamphoff, 2010). The results indicated that male athletes perceived higher authoritarian leadership than female athletes, and that female athletes reported lower scores for negative sports attitudes. As a result, the subsequent analyses were controlled for gender differences. Furthermore, multiple criteria were used to check the assumptions for regression prior to testing the study hypotheses. P-P plot indicated that there was no significant deviation from normality. Variance inflation factor (VIF) and tolerance values were used to indicate multi-collinearity, and no indication of significant multi-collinearity was presented (tolerance ranged from .526 to .791; VIF ranged from 1.170 to 1.901).

Hypotheses testing

A Pearson product-moment correlation analysis was performed to examine the correlations between study variables prior to testing for interaction effects (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Six separate hier-

archical regressions were conducted to examine the unique and joint contributions of the two types of achievement goals and the three dimensions of paternalistic leadership to athletes' sportspersonship. Because the preliminary analysis identified gender differences, gender was entered as a control variable in the first step of the analysis. To examine main effects, achievement goals and the paternalistic leadership dimension were entered into the regression in the second and third steps of the analysis. The interaction between achievement goals and the dimensions of paternalistic leadership was then entered in the final step of the regression analysis.

Results

Descriptive statistics and correlation matrix

The descriptive statistics and Cronbach's α coefficients for all variables, as well as the correlation coefficients among variables are presented in Table 1. The bivariate correlation analysis revealed that benevolence and moral leadership were positively correlated ($r=.59$). Authoritarianism was negatively correlated with moral leadership ($r=-.20$) but was not significantly correlated with benevolence. In addition, authoritarianism was negatively correlated with task orientation and sportspersonship. With regard to achievement goals, task-orientation was positively correlated with two sportspersonship subscales (*sports commitment and respect for rules and officials*; *respect for social conventions and opponents*) as well as the composite sportspersonship score, with correlation coefficients that ranged from .41 to .59. Ego-orientation exhibited a modest positive correlation with the subscale *sports commitment and respect for rules and officials* ($r=.20$), and was negatively related to *avoidance of negative sports attitudes* ($r=-.18$).

Table 1. Descriptive statistics, reliability coefficients and the correlation matrix for study variables

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1 Morality	.91^a	-.20*	.59*	.33*	-.06	.47*	.29*	.37*	.54*
2 Authoritarianism		.79	.10	-.21*	.07	-.16*	-.26*	-.07	-.25*
3 Benevolence			.85	.08	-.11	.24*	.03	.26*	.24*
4 Task-orientation				.85	.39*	.59*	.13	.41*	.52*
5 Ego-orientation					.79	.20*	-.18*	.10	.03
6 Sportspersonship A						.84	.13*	.49*	.74*
7 Sportspersonship B							.76	.02	.63*
8 Sportspersonship C								.77	.70*
9 Sportspersonship T									----
M	3.80	2.67	3.11	4.21	3.58	4.08	3.25	3.69	11.02
SD	.75	.76	.88	.66	.72	.62	.81	.67	1.44

Note: ^a Cronbach's α coefficients for each subscale found along the diagonal; * $p < .05$; Sportspersonship A: Sports commitment and respect toward rules and officials; Sportspersonship B: Avoidance of negative sports attitudes (recoded); Sportspersonship C: Respect for social conventions and opponents; Sportspersonship T: Composite sportspersonship score.

Table 2. Result of the hierarchical regression analyses predicting sportspersonship

	Task-orientation × Authoritarian leadership			Ego-orientation × Authoritarian leadership			Ego-orientation × Moral leadership		
	Predictor	R ²	β	Predictor	R ²	β	Predictor	R ²	β
Step 1		.267*			.001			.001	
	Gender		.11*	Gender		.13*	Gender		.13*
	Task		.52*	Ego		.03	Ego		.03
Step 2		.017*			.055*			.289*	
	Gender		.07	Gender		.09	Gender		.13*
	Task		.49*	Ego		.05	Ego		.06
	Au		-.14*	Au		-.24*	Moral		.54*
Step 3		.011*			.052*			.015*	
	Gender		.09	Gender		.06	Gender		.11*
	Task		.11	Ego		.66*	Ego		.72*
	Au		-.78*	Au		-1.25*	Moral		1.19*
	Task×Au		.69*	Ego×Au		1.29*	Ego×Moral		-.91*
Total R ²		.321			.125			.322	

Note: Task: task-orientation; Ego: ego-orientation; Au: authoritarian leadership; Moral: moral leadership; * p<.05

Interaction effects

The effect of authoritarian leadership on sportspersonship was dependent on both task- and ego-orientations, and the effect of morality on sportspersonship was dependent on ego-orientation (Table 2). Benevolence did not interact with either type of achievement goals.

In regard to task-orientation and authoritarian leadership (Table 2), both gender and task-orientation were significant predictors, and accounted for 26.7% of variance at step 1. The main effect for authoritarian leadership was also significant ($\beta=-.14$) at step 2 of the model. The interaction between task-orientation and authoritarian leadership (step 3) significantly predicted sportspersonship; the interaction accounted for 1.1% of unique variance. In regard to ego-orientation and authoritarian leadership (see Table 2), ego-orientation was not a significant predictor at step 1. At step 2, the main effect for authoritarian leadership was significant and accounted for 5.5% of variance. The interaction between ego-orientation and authoritarian leadership significantly predicted sportspersonship at step 3, accounting for 5.2% of unique variance. Finally, the third column of Table 2 demonstrates the interaction effect of ego-orientation and moral leadership. At step 1, the main effect of ego-orientation was not significant, so that gender was the only significant predictor. The main effect for authoritarian leadership was also significant ($\beta=.54$) at step 2 of the model, accounting for 28.9% of variance. The interaction between ego-orientation and moral leadership was significant and the interaction accounted for 1.5% of unique variance.

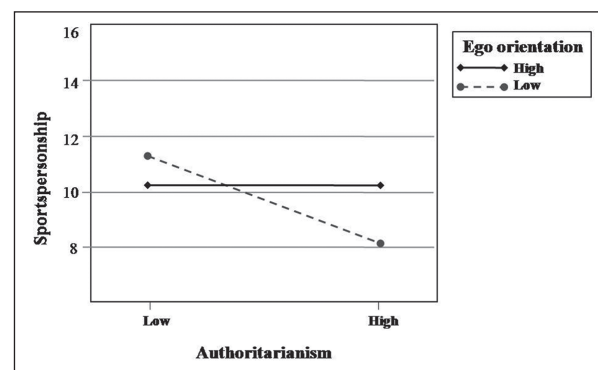


Figure 1. Interaction model for the interaction effect of authoritarianism and ego-orientation on sportspersonship.

Following the procedures recommended by Cohen, Cohen, West, and Aiken (2003), possible interactions were graphed to identify the nature of interactions, which in turn yielded one significant interaction effect (Figure 1). For athletes with high levels of ego-orientation, the influence of authoritarianism on sportspersonship was relatively small. However, the negative influence of authoritarianism was strong for athletes with lower levels of ego-orientation (the grey dotted line in Figure 1). The model jointly accounted for approximately 12.5% of the variance, and the interaction between ego-orientation and authoritarianism uniquely explained 5.2% of the variance.

Discussion and conclusions

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effect of paternalistic leadership in sports settings and to explore the interaction effects of this type

of leadership and athletes' achievement goals on sportspersonship. Significant correlations among athletes' achievement goals, paternalistic leadership, and sportspersonship were found. In addition, authoritarianism interacted with achievement goals to predict sportspersonship.

Supporting the first hypothesis, the results of the present study revealed that task-orientation positively predicted sportspersonship characteristics and the finding was consistent with previous studies. Given that a competitive climate is inevitable in sports, this positive influence of task-orientation on sportspersonship provides an important approach to moral education (Barić & Bucik, 2009; Kassing & Barber, 2007; Stornes, 2001). The correlation between ego-orientation and sportspersonship was inconsistent. On the one hand, in line with literature (Shields, et al., 2007; Stornes & Ommundsen, 2004; Van Yperen, et al., 2011), ego-orientation predicted a negative sports attitude ($r=.18$). On the other hand, ego-orientation in this study was positively related to sports commitment and respect for rules and officials ($r=.20$). The findings for ego or performance goals have been less consistent in literature (Senko & Harackiewicz, 2002).

Another worthwhile feature of the present study was the introduction of the culturally based paternalistic leadership in sports settings. The findings supported H_2 that both the benevolent and moral leadership were positively associated with sportspersonship, and authoritarian leadership was negatively associated with sportspersonship. Although previous studies did not investigate the relationship between paternalistic leadership and sportspersonship, research in business contexts has found that benevolent and moral leadership promotes prosocial behaviors and ethics climates (Cheng, et al., 2004, 2014; Chu & Hung, 2009; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008). Authoritarianism has been related to negative outcomes such as subordinate dependency and anger (Cheng, et al., 2004, 2014; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008). Results of the present study were consistent with literature and the negative correlations of authoritarianism with benevolence and morality also characterized in sports settings.

Investigation on the interaction between achievement goals and paternalistic leadership made a unique contribution to the research literature. The results of the hierarchical regression analysis indicated that the negative influence of authoritarianism was stronger for athletes with lower levels of ego-orientation than for athletes with higher levels of ego-orientation. One possible explanation for the finding is that the absolute control demanded by an authoritarian coach might discourage athletes from playing fairly if they adhered to their coaches' tactical instructions to win at any cost, which in turn could lead to ignoring social conventions and engaging in unsporting behavior (Ntoumanis &

Standage, 2009; Stornes, 2001). However, this study only provided preliminary evidence for the interaction effects. Additional studies should provide more comprehensive and detailed information such as the impact of different types of coaches' paternalistic leadership as well as the interaction effect of paternalistic leadership and achievement goals on athletes' other emotions and behaviors.

Limitations and recommendations

Some limitations must be noted in the present study. First, the cross-sectional design of the present study did not allow inferences with regard to causal relationships. The results of the analyses revealed the indirect mechanisms through which paternalistic leadership and achievement goals jointly influenced sportspersonship. To identify causal relationships between paternalistic leadership and sportspersonship, field experiments and longitudinal investigations are needed. Besides, the measurements in this study were not presented in a random order, which means that response order effects may result in threats of validity. The order in which surveys are presented to respondents should be more sophisticated to prevent possible effects of scale format (Duffy & Ipsos, 2003). Second, study findings revealed that future studies investigating cultural similarities and differences are warranted. In business contexts, paternalistic leadership is prevalent in Pacific Asia, Middle East, and Latin America cultures (Cheng, et al., 2014; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008), and the extent to which paternalistic leadership applies to sports settings in other cultures demands further examination.

It is especially worthy of notice that in addition to research in Eastern culture, paternalistic leadership research has recently been extended to the Western business context (Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008; Pellegrini, et al., 2010). Furthermore, studies have recently proposed and demonstrated various psychological mechanisms underlying the effect of paternalistic leadership, such as affective trust (Chen, Eberly, Chiang, Farh, & Cheng, 2014) and perceived interactional justice (Wu, Huang, Li, & Liu, 2012). Identification of possible mechanisms underlying coaches' paternalistic leadership in sports settings may also be crucial to explain its effects on athletes.

Finally, although sports and business contexts are similar in many respects, sports teams have unique cultural and situational features that differentiate them from business organizations and companies. Some ambiguous concepts with regard to the nature of paternalistic leadership may have produced inconsistent findings in the business research literature. For instance, athletes' perception of benevolent leadership in the present study was not related to the other two dimensions of paternalistic leadership and did not predict athletes'

achievement goals. The opportunities and occasions for coaches to exhibit benevolent leadership toward athletes, and the effective measurement of this factor, might be an issue as well. In addition, coach-athlete interactions across sports settings exhibit unique features. For instance, because athletes are often young, the interactions between coaches and athletes that play a critical role in athletes' moral learning are very different from the superior-subordinate relationships found in business. As a result, more comprehensive investigations are needed to determine the extent to which paternalistic leadership characterizes coach-athlete relationships, the dimensions relevant to coaches' paternalistic leadership, and the validity of sports-specific measures of paternalistic leadership.

The findings of the present study, which are consistent with the basic tenets of two major theo-

ries – paternalistic leadership theory and achievement goal theory – indicated that athletes' sports-personship was affected by the personal factor of athletes' achievement goals and the situational factor of their perceptions of coaches' paternalistic leadership. Athletes' ego-orientation and perceived authoritarian leadership were related to lower levels of sports-personship, and task-orientation, benevolent leadership, and moral leadership predicted higher levels of sports-personship and confirmed findings reported in research literature. Moreover, authoritarianism interacted with ego-orientation to predict sports-personship. These results should motivate future research that will investigate paternalistic leadership in sports settings and determine the extent to which this culturally based leadership style influences coach-athlete relationships and affects athletes' growth and moral responses.

References

- Barić, R., & Bucik, V. (2009). Motivational differences in athletes trained by coaches of different motivational and leadership profiles. *Kinesiology, 41*, 181-194.
- Baron, R.M., & Kenny, D.A. (1986). The moderator-mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 51*, 1173-1182.
- Chen, X.P., Eberly, M.B., Chiang, T.J., Farh, J.L., & Cheng, B.C. (2014). Affective trust in Chinese leaders: Linking paternalistic leadership to employee performance. *Journal of Management, 40*(3), 796-819.
- Chen, L.H., Tsai, I.M., & Chen, C.C. (2005). The relationships between paternalistic leadership, negative impressing of emotion, dropout intention and group satisfaction. [In Chinese.] *Journal of Physical Education and Sports, 15*(2), 205-216.
- Cheng, B.S., Boer, D., Chou, L.F., Huang, M.P., Yoneyama, S., Shim, D., Lin, T.T., Chou, W.J., & Tsai, C.Y. (2014). Paternalistic leadership in four east Asian societies: Generalizability and cultural differences of the triad model. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, 45*(1), 82-90.
- Cheng, B.S., Chou, L.F., & Farh, J.L. (2000). A triad model of paternalistic leadership: The constructs and measurement. [In Chinese.] *Indigenous Psychological Research in Chinese Societies, 14*, 3-64.
- Cheng, B.S., Chou, L.F., Wu, T.Y., Huang, M.P., & Farh, J.L. (2004). Paternalistic leadership and subordinate responses: Establishing a leadership model on Chinese organizations. *Asian Journal of Social Psychology, 7*, 89-117.
- Chu, P., & Hung, C. (2009). The relationship of paternalistic leadership and organizational citizenship behaviour: The mediating effects of upward communications. *The Journal of Human Resource and Adult Learning, 5*(2), 66-73.
- Cohen, J., Cohen, P., West, S.G., & Aiken, L.S. (2003). *Applied multiple regression/correlation analysis for the behavior sciences*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Duffy, B., & Ipsos, M.O.R.I. (2003). Response order effects – how do people read?. *International Journal of Market Research, 45*(4), 457-466.
- Duda, J.L., & Nicholls, J.G. (1992). Dimensions of achievement motivation in schoolwork and sport. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 84*, 290-299.
- Erben, G.S., & Güneşer, A.B. (2008). The relationship between paternalistic leadership and organizational commitment: Investigating the role of climate regarding ethics. *Journal of Business Ethics, 82*, 955-968.
- Farh, J.L., & Cheng, B.S. (2000). A cultural analysis of paternalistic leadership in Chinese organizations. In J.T. Li, A.S. Tsui & E. Weldon (Eds.), *Management and organizations in the Chinese context* (pp. 94-127). London: Macmillan.
- Gano-Overway, L.A., Guivernau, M., Magyar, T.M., Waldron, J.J., & Ewing, M.E. (2005). Achievement goal perspectives, perceptions of the motivational climate, and sports-personship: Individual and team effects. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise, 6*, 215-232.
- Gill, D.L., & Kamphoff, C.S. (2010). Gender and cultural diversity. In J.M. Williams (Ed.), *Applied sport psychology* (pp. 417-439). New York: McGraw Hill.

- Jones, G. (2002). Performance excellence: A personal perspective on the link between sport and business. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology, 14*, 268-281.
- Kao, S.F. (2001). *Team culture and coach leadership: Qualitative and quantitative approach*. (Unpublished doctoral dissertation, National Taiwan Normal University). Taipei.
- Kao, S.F., & Chuang, C.J. (2009). Paternalistic leadership, team socialization and team culture: A study of sports teams. [In Chinese.] *Research in Applied Psychology, 42*, 187-213.
- Kassing, J.W., & Barber, A.M. (2007). "Being a good sport": An investigation of sportsmanship messages provided by youth soccer parents, officials, and coaches. *Human Communication, 10*(1), 61-68.
- Kavussanu, M., Roberts, G.C., & Ntoumanis, N. (2002). Contextual influences on moral functioning of college basketball players. *The Sport Psychologist, 16*, 347-367.
- Lemyre, P., Roberts, G.C., & Ommundsen, Y. (2002). Achievement goal orientations, perceived ability, and sportspersonship in youth soccer. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology, 14*, 120-136.
- Li, F., Harmer, P., Chi, L., & Vongjaturapat, N. (1996). Cross-cultural validation of the Task and Ego Orientation in Sport Questionnaire. *Journal of Sport & Exercise Psychology, 18*, 392-407.
- Nicholls, J. G. (1989). *The competitive ethos and democratic education*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Ntoumanis, N., & Standage, M. (2009). Morality in sport: A Self-Determination Theory perspective. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology, 21*(4), 365-380.
- Pellegrini, E.K., & Scandura, T.A. (2008). A paternalistic leadership: A review and agenda for future research. *Journal of Management, 34*(3), 566-593.
- Pellegrini, E.K., Scandura, T.A., & Jayaraman, V. (2010). Cross-cultural generalizability of paternalistic leadership: An expansion of Leader-Member Exchange Theory. *Group & Organization Management, 35*(4), 391-420.
- Senko, C., & Harackiewicz, J.M. (2002). Performance goals: The moderating roles of context and achievement orientation. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 38*(6), 603-610.
- Shields, D.L., LaVoi, M., Bredemeier, B.J., & Power, F.C. (2007). Predictors of poor sportspersonship in youth sports: Personal attitudes and social influences. *Journal of Sport and Exercise Psychology, 29*, 747-762.
- Stornes, T. (2001). Sportspersonship in elite sports: On the effects of personal and environmental factors on the display of sportspersonship among elite male handball players. *European Physical Education Review, 7*(3), 283-304.
- Stornes, T., & Ommundsen, Y. (2004). Achievement goals, motivational climate and sportspersonship: A study of young handball players. *Scandinavian Journal of Educational Research, 48*(2), 205-221.
- Vallerand, R.J., Briere, N.M., Blanchard, C., & Provencher, P. (1997). Development and validation of the Multidimensional Sportspersonship Orientation Scale. *Journal of Sport & Exercise Psychology, 8*, 89-101.
- Van Yperen, N.W., Hamstra, M.R.W., & van der Klauw, M. (2011). To win, or not to lose, at any cost: The impact of achievement goals on cheating. *British Journal of Management, 22*, S5-S15.
- Weinberg, R.S., & McDermott, M. (2002). A comparative analysis of sport and business organizations: Factors perceived critical for organizational success. *Journal of Applied Sport Psychology, 14*, 282-298.
- Wu, M., Huang, X., Li, C.W., & Liu, W. (2012). Perceived interactional justice and trust-in-supervisor as mediators for paternalistic leadership. *Management and Organization Review, 8*(1), 97-121.

Submitted: March 6, 2014

Accepted: January 12, 2015

Correspondence to:

Yawen Hsu

Department of Physical Education, Health & Recreation

National Chiayi University, #85, Wenlong village

Minshung Township, Chiayi County 621, Taiwan

Phone: 886-5-2263411 #3019

Fax: 886-5-2063082

E-mail: tgieva@gmail.com