The psychological contract and leadership styles: Performance of a semi-professional rugby team.

A.J. GROBLER

12990132

Dissertation submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree *Master of Baccalaureus Commercii Industrial Sociology* at the Potchefstroom Campus of the North-West University

Supervisor: Dr. B. J. Linde

May 2011

Acknowledgements

I would like to take the opportunity to thank my academic supervisor, Dr. Bennie Linde, for all his continued support, guidance, and advice. I would also like to show my gratitude to all of those who supported me during the completion of this dissertation. Lastly, but not the least, I would like to thank my Creator, for without Him nothing would be possible.

Abstract

This dissertation examines the influence of the psychological contract and leadership styles on the perceived performance of semi-professional rugby teams. Little research has connected the psychological contract and sport, and little research has investigated the effect of specific leader behaviours on the performance of sport teams. It was therefore the objective of this dissertation to analyse the content of the psychological contract of rugby team members, and to determine the correlation between the psychological contract and the perceived performance of rugby team members. This dissertation also set out to analyse the content of the preferred leadership style of the team captain and the own leadership style of team members, and to determine the correlation between leadership styles and perceived performance.

A longitudinal research design was chosen, along with a non-probability sampling technique. The sample consisted of rugby team members from a prominent rugby-playing university in South Africa. Questionnaires were used to investigate the content of the psychological contract and preferred leadership style and own leadership style, as well as their relationship to perceived performance. The results indicated no correlation between the psychological contract and perceived performance, nor any correlation between leadership styles and perceived performance. A strong correlation, on the other hand, was found between the preferred leadership style of the team captain and the own leadership style of team members. A strong correlation between institute obligations and player obligations was also established.

Opsomming

Hierdie verhandeling ondersoek die invloed van die psigologiese kontrak en leierskapstyle op die waargenome prestasie van semi-professionele rugbyspanne. Min navorsing het tot dusver die psigologiese kontrak met sport verbind, en weinig navorsing het tot nou toe die effek van spesifieke leierskapgedrag op die prestasie van sportspanne ondersoek. Dit was derhalwe die doel van hierdie navorsing om die inhoud van die psigologiese kontrak van rugbyspanlede te ontleed, en om die korrelasie tussen die psigologiese kontrak en die waargenome prestasie van rugbyspanlede te bepaal. Hierdie navorsing het dit verder ten doel gehad om die inhoud van die voorkeurleierskapstyl van die

spankaptein en die eie leierskapstyl van spanlede te analiseer, en om vas te stel wat die korrelasie tussen leierskapstyle en waargenome prestasie is.

'n Longitudinale navorsingsontwerp is gekies, tesame met 'n nie-waarskynlikheid-steekproefnemingstegniek. Die steekproef het uit rugbyspanlede van 'n prominente rugbyspelende universiteit in Suid-Afrika bestaan. Vraelyste is gebruik om die inhoud van die psigologiese kontrak en voorkeur leierskapstyl en eie leierskapstyl te ondersoek, asook hul verband met waargenome prestasie. Die resultate het geen korrelasie tussen die psigologiese kontrak en waargenome prestasie getoon nie, en ook geen korrelasie tussen leierskapstyle en waargenome prestasie nie. Daarenteen, is daar 'n sterk korrelasie tussen die voorkeurleierskapstyl van die spankaptein en die eie leierskapstyl van spanlede gevind. 'n Sterk korrelasie tussen instellingverpligtinge en spelerverpligtinge het ook na vore getree.

KEY WORDS

Rugby, professionalism, psychological contract, expectations, obligations, violation, breach, team, leadership, leadership styles.

Table of Contents

1 Chapter 1: Introduction and problem statement 9

1.1 Problem Statement 9

1.1.1 Literature study 9

1.1.2 Overview of the problem 17

1.2 Research objectives 18

1.2.1 General objective 19

1.2.2 Specific objectives 19

1.3 Research method 19

1.3.1 Literature review 19

1.3.2 Empirical study 20

1.4 Reference 25

2 Chapter 2: Research article 1 – The psychological contract and the perceived performance of a semi-professional rugby team. 29

2.1 Introduction 29

2.2 Problem statement 30

2.3 Research Objectives 31

2.3.1 General objective 31

2.3.2 Specific objectives 31

2.4 Literature review 31

2.4.1 The psychological contract 31

2.4.2 The psychological contract in the professional sporting environment 34

2.5 Method 36

2.5.1 Participants and procedure 36

2.5.2 Measuring instruments 37

2.6 Statistical Analysis 38

2.7 Results 39

2.7.1 Phase 1 39

2.7.2 Phase 2 43

2.8 Discussion 44

2.9 Conclusion 45

2.10 References 48

3 Chapter 3: Research article 2 – Leadership styles and the performance of a semi-professional rugby team. 52

3.1 Introduction 52

3.2 Research Objectives 53

3.2.1 General objective 53

3.2.2 Specific objectives 53

3.3 Literature Review 54
3.3.1 Leadership 54
3.3.2 Team sport and leadership 57
3.4 Method 60
3.4.1 Participants and procedure 60
3.4.2 Measuring instruments 61
3.4.3 Statistical analysis 61
3.4.4 Results 62
3.5 Discussion 66
3.6 Conclusion 67
3.7 References 69
4 Chapter 4: Conclusion, limitations and recommendations. 73
4.1 Findings 74
4.2 Limitations 75
4.3 Theoretical and practical implications and recommendations 76
4.4 References 78
5 References 79

List of figures and tables

Figure 1. Creating an individual's psychological contract.....11

Figure 2. Analysis of the causes and consequences of the psychological contract.....12

Figure 3. Multidimensional model of sport leadership.....14

Figure 4. Different types of leader behaviour.....55

Figure 5. Leadership performance measurement model.....59

Table 1**.** Results of exploratory factor analysis for Institute obligations (F1).....40

Table 2**.** Results of exploratory factor analysis for Player obligations (F2).....42

Table 3**.** Mean, standard deviations (SD), skewness, kurtosis and Cronbach's α.....43

Table 4**.** Correlation coefficients between contents (*n* = 27).....44

Table 5**.** Mean, standard deviation (SD), skewness, and kurtosis for preferred leadership style and own leadership style.....63

Table 6. Correlation coefficients between contents (*n* = 27).....65

1 Chapter 1: Introduction and problem statement

1.1 Problem Statement

1.1.1 Literature study

Once upon a time, there was a boy called William. Now William wasn't your average sort, one could say he was a tad unconventional. In a blatant disregard for the rules and history of football, this young rascal picked up a ball usually directed by feet only and ran with it! He initiated, what is commonly accepted, the birth of a new game - rugby named after the Public School he attended in Warwickshire, England (Waterson, 2002).

Since then, rugby has changed irrevocably. Players have become bigger, stronger, fitter and faster (Harmse, 2008). The most profound change, however, is probably professionalism as it transformed a game played by amateurs for no compensation to a multi-million rand business venture, where players are treated as professional employees (Waterson, 2002).

According to Waterson (2002), professionalism in South Africa officially stepped in after the World Cup in 1995. This led to provincial and national team players signing formal contracts and being openly paid for playing (Nauright, 1998). Huge amounts of money are paid to players on most levels – club, provincial and international – that evolved in a career for the players (Van Reenen, 2008).

The difference between playing rugby as professional and being an amateur player is that a player's service is "owned" by their respective club, union or province and the player is therefore employed to perform a specialised job for which he draws a salary and performance bonuses (Waterson, 2002). This relationship includes the authoritive relationship, where the rugby club or union can utilise formal disciplinary procedures.

According to the Labour Relations Act no 66 of 1995 an employee can be defined as "any person, excluding an independent contractor, who works for another person or for the State and who

receives, or is entitled to receive, any remuneration; and any other person who in any manner assists in carrying on or conducting the business of an employer....” (Section 213). Furthermore, the Basic Conditions of Employment Act no 75 of 1997 states the following:

> A person who works for, or renders services to, any other person is presumed, until the contrary is proved, to be an employee, regardless of the form of the contract, if any one or more of the following factors is present: a) The manner in which the person works is subject to the control or direction of another person; b) the person’s hours of work are subject to the control or direction of another person; c) in the case of a person who works for an organisation, the person is a part of that organisation; d) the person has worked for that other person for an average of at least 40 hours per month over the last three months; e) the person is economically dependent on the other person for whom that person works or renders services; f) the person is provided with tools of trade or work equipment by the other person; or g) the person only works for or renders services to one person (Section 83A (1)).

Therefore, it can be said that rugby players are employees of their respective clubs or unions and due to its contractual obligations, rugby is now a full-time occupation (Van Reenen, 2008).

The change in professionalism not only occurred on national and provincial level, but also on university level. This can be seen through the following vision and mission statement of one of the most prominent rugby playing universities in South Africa (University of Pretoria): “The vision and mission of the Tuks Rugby Academy is to identify and develop talented rugby professionals to their full potential and to equip them with the necessary skills and knowledge to enjoy a successful career in rugby” (Vision section, para. 1).

The latter part of the above statement is a promise made by the Tuks Rugby Academy to the player, creating certain expectations and obligations – a psychological contract. Schalk and Roe (2007) defines the sum of all mutual expectations between the organisation and the employer (in this

case the university's rugby administrators and the rugby player) as this psychological contract. For example, a rugby player may have the expectation that the rugby administrators will provide remuneration, as well as training and development opportunities in exchange for his time, physical and psychological efforts, discipline and devotion to the team.

Rousseau (1995) defined the psychological contract as "individual beliefs, shaped by the organization, regarding terms of an exchange agreement between individuals and their organization" (p. 9). These obligations develop from the promises made as the employment agreements starts and continue, from the hiring procedure through to the day-to-day interactions (Rousseau & Schalk, 2000). According to Rousseau (1995) a succession of organisational and individual processes affects the formation of a psychological contract which can be explained in Figure 1.

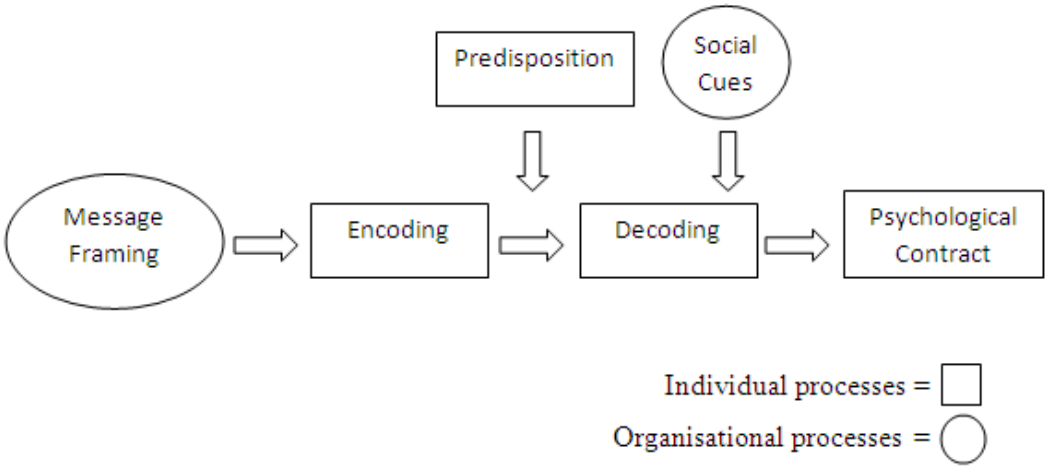

Figure 1. Creating an individual's psychological contract. From "*Psychological contracts in organizations,"* by D. M. Rousseau, 1995, p. 33.

The individual processes in Figure 1 include encoding, decoding and predisposition. Encoding refers to the process that individuals use to interpret organisational actions as promises, while decoding reflects the judgements people make regarding the standards of behaviour that must be met to fulfil commitments made by them and by the organisation.

The predisposition is the characteristics of the individual that affect the use of encoded information (Rousseau, 1995). The organisational processes, as illustrated in Figure 1, include message framing and social cues. According to Rousseau (1995), the messages that organisations

send and the social cues co-workers and work groups/teams provide are the basic organisational processes contributing to psychological contracts.

According to Guest and Conway (2004) the psychological contract is built on the three pillars of fairness, trust, and delivery of the deal between employer and employee. They also state that a positive psychological contract will have a positive effect on performance, as indicated in Figure 2.

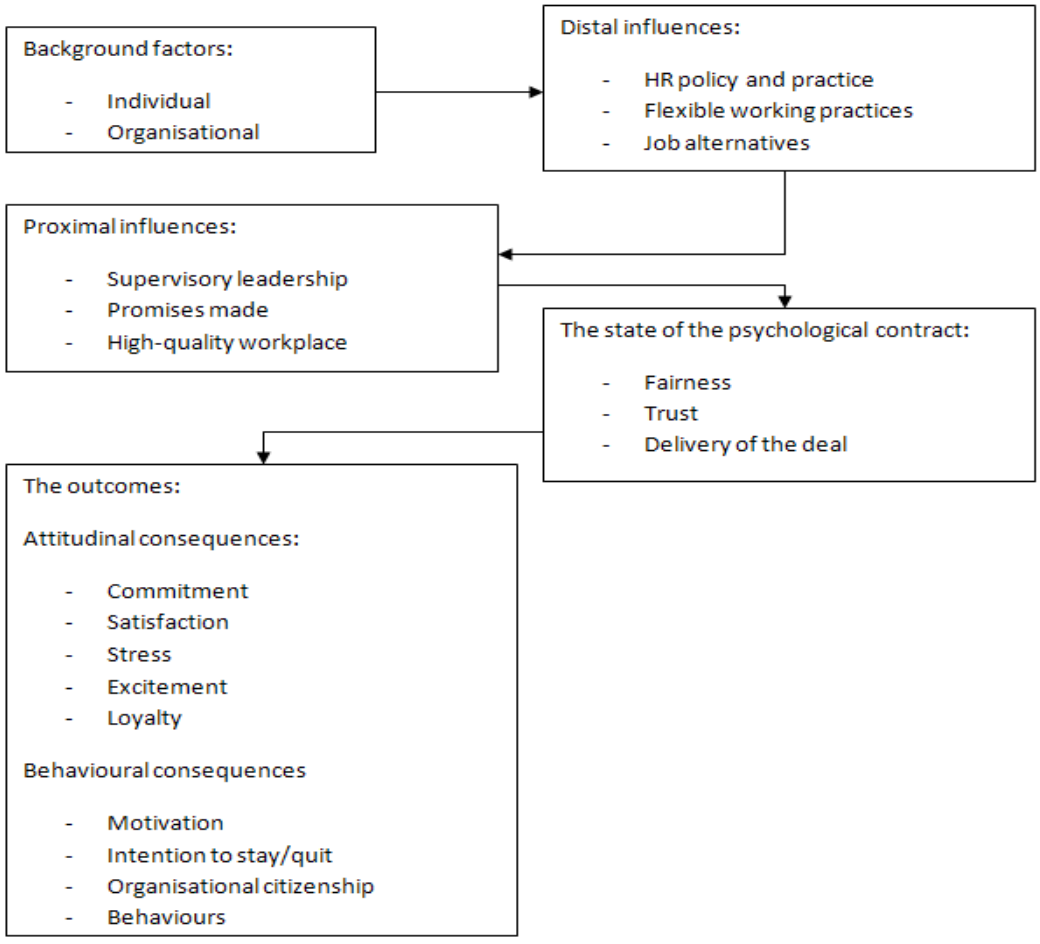

Figure 2. Analysis of the causes and consequences of the psychological contract. From *"Employee well-being and the psychological contract,"* by D. Guest and N. Conway, 2004.

Figure 2 indicates that certain causes may have an influence on the psychological contract, such as individual factors, human resources (HR) policies and practices, and leadership of the

supervisor. If the above-mentioned factors are positive, it may lead to certain outcomes such as higher commitment, satisfaction, and motivation. However, when these factors are negative, it may lead to lower commitment, satisfaction, and motivation.

An important factor accompanying the psychological contract is the experience of violation, which refers to the emotional response to the understanding of a breach occurrence (Morrison & Robinson, 1997). According to Rousseau (1995), the experience of violation takes three forms:

- Inadvertent violation: This occurs when both parties are able and willing to keep their promise, but different understandings will lead one party to act in such a manner that it is at odds with the understanding and interests of the other party.
- Disruption: This occurs when it is impossible for one or both parties to fulfil their end of a promise due to circumstances, despite the fact that they are both willing to do so.
- Breach: This occurs when one side, normally capable of performing the contract, refuses to do so.

Psychological contract breach has negative consequences for employees and organisations and if an organisation fails to provide the promised returns, employees may withhold their contributions that will ultimately have a negative effect on performance (Restubog, Bordia, & Tang, 2006).

However, according to Flood, Turner, Ramamoorthy, and Pearson (2005) and Larwood, Wright, Desrochers, and Dahir (1998) (as cited in Hess & Jepsen, 2008, p. 1) past research have found that employees who perceive that their employer have fulfilled their psychological contract, will have reduced intent to leave, higher job satisfaction and higher levels of commitment.

It is important to keep in mind that rugby is a team sport. According to Hale and Collins (2002) rugby is the ultimate team sport where all fifteen players have to be focused on identical team goals: “to play with an intensive, aggressive style; to communicate effectively; and to perform high-speed decisions and skills in synchrony” (p. ix). Kreitner and Kinicki (2007) defined a team as “a small group with complementary skills who hold themselves mutually accountable for common purpose, goals, and approach” (p. 340). An advantage for sport teams is that the size, structure and

responsibilities of each member do not need strategic planning, because the rules of the sport define the design of the team (Forsyth, 2006).

For teams to be successful they should have confident and effective team leaders (Daft, 1999) and according to Hughes, Ginnett, and Curphy (2006) leadership is an important function within teams. Leadership can be defined as the ability to influence people to achieve the goals of a team (Thompson, 2008). Doyle and Smith (2001) describe leadership as a characteristic that a person will recognise when seeing it, but which is difficult to describe.

They also mention four characteristics taken from the definition of leadership. Firstly, leadership imply the influencing of others and secondly leadership always implies followers. Thirdly, the leader is on the forefront when problems and emergencies arise and lastly, leaders have a distinct idea of what goals they want to reach as well as why they want to reach it.

The following figure provides a framework for the study of leadership in sport (Chelladurai, 1984). According to Cox (2007) this model views athlete satisfaction and performance "as the products of the interaction of three components of leadership" (p. 63). Therefore, the model proposes three components of leader behaviour: actual, preferred, and required (LeUnes & Nation, 2002).

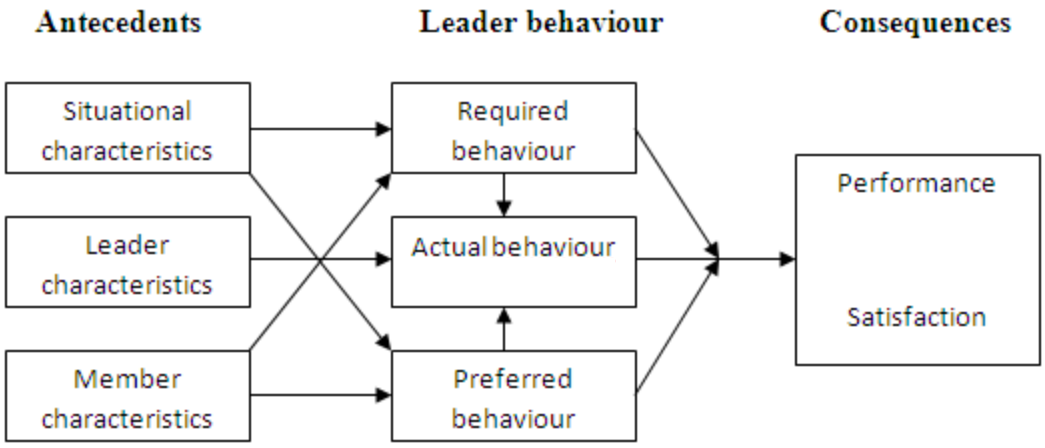

Figure 3. Multidimensional model of sport leadership. From "Discrepancy between preferences and perceptions of leadership behaviour and satisfaction of athletes in varying sports" in the *Journal of Sport Psychology, 6*, 27-41, by P. Chelladurai, 1984, p. 29.

Actual leader behaviour is behaviour that is engaged in, irrespective of norms or team members' preferences (LeUnes & Nation, 2002). Preferred leader behaviour refers to the team members' expectations and required behaviour, which are the conventional norms of the organisation on a more formal basis, such as organisational demands (Cox, 2007, LeUnes & Nation, 2002).

According to LeUnes and Nation (2002) (as cited in Chelladurai & Saleh, 1980) Chelladurai and Saleh (1980) created a Leadership Scale for Sports (LSS) questionnaire in order to test this model. They categorised five dimensions of leadership behaviour: training and instruction, democratic behaviour, autocratic behaviour, social support, and positive feedback.

Chelladurai (1984) also stated that the antecedents of these three aspects of leader behaviour are situational characteristics, member characteristics, and leader characteristics. According to LeUnes and Nation (2002), the interaction of these antecedents with the various leader behaviours will result in performance and satisfaction at varying levels. Therefore Cox (2007) states that team members will perform better and will be more satisfied when actual and required leader behaviour concurs with the members' own preferred leader behaviour.

A key concept associated with leadership is that of leadership styles (Jones, 2008). Hersey and Blanchard (1988) defined leadership styles as the pattern of behaviour that you use with other as perceived by them. An important behaviour that leaders can portray is the ability to inspire their team members, therefore it follows that making an inspirational appeal is an important influence tactic (Dubrin, 2007).

According to Bass (1990) inspirational leaders are perceived by their team members to portray the sort of behaviour such as setting challenging goals as standards, making use of symbols and images to get certain ideas across, offering meaning for proposed actions, indicating why followers will succeed, remaining calm when the going gets tough, appealing to feelings, stressing

why they should beat the competition, envisioning an attractive, reachable future and stipulating how they can achieve that future.

However, Bass (1990) states that if the dynamics of the identification of the team members with the leader is lacking, and if the team members are attracted to the goals and purposes of the leader but not to the leader, "then the leader is inspirational but not charismatic" (p. 206). A charismatic leader can be defined as a person who has the ability to inspire and motivate people to do more than they would normally do, regardless of obstacles and personal sacrifice (Daft, 1999). They are passionate, driven individuals who are capable of painting a gripping vision of the future, as well as generating excitement among team members (Hughes et al., 2006).

Although intellectual stimulation is inspiring and is often seen as associated with charismatic leadership, it involves differences (Bass, 1990). According to Graham (1987, as cited in Bass, 1990) intellectual stimulation "contributes to the independence and autonomy of subordinates and prevents habituated followership, characterised by the blind unquestioning trust and obedience that are seen in charismatic leader-follower-relations" (p. 216).

Another important behaviour that a leader may portray is consideration. Hughes et al. (2006) refers to consideration as to the amount that the leader is friendly and supportive toward team members. When leaders show they care by demonstrating consideration for their individual team members, the satisfaction of the team members will be enhanced (Bass, 1990). According to Bass (1990) consideration means helping, sharing, donating, cooperating, and volunteering, that will produce and maintain the well-being and integrity of their team members.

A rewarding team leader may also contribute to performance. A contingent reward can be defined as any consequence that increases the probability that certain behaviour will be repeated and is administrated as a consequence of the particular behaviour (Hughes et al., 2006). For example, when a team member has played an outstanding game, the team captain will praise the member and congratulate him on a game well played. When a team member has not performed, the leader can take corrective actions and intervene when failures and deviations occur, which are referred to as management by exception (Bass, 1990).

The last type of behaviour is a laissez-faire leader. This type of leader behaviour will give team members complete freedom of action, provide them with materials, refrain from participating, except to answer questions when asked, and do not make evaluative remarks (Bass, 1990). Research has shown that under laissez-faire leadership, teams are less organised, less efficient, and experience less satisfaction (Bass, 1990).

1.1.2 Overview of the problem

> In some ways, a team is like the human body: No one knows the exact regimen for staying healthy over time. However, we have some very good information about the benefits of a lean diet, exercise, stress reduction, wellness maintenance, and early detection of disease. The same goes for teamwork (Thompson, 2008).

Just as human bodies differ from one another in terms of length, size, weight, colour, etc., the same way teams differ from one another. Teams differ with regards to size, goals, purpose, cohesiveness, leadership, and may vary from committees, mining teams, flight attendant crews, research teams, engineering teams, entertainment teams, expedition teams, surgery teams and sport teams, just to name a few. Although the above-mentioned teams differ completely from one another, they all have a basic purpose: to reach the common goal(s) of the team.

The team need to perform to reach their goals. However, various factors may have an influence on the performance of teams. This is also the case with club rugby teams. According to Speirs (2008), club rugby is under enormous pressure in the professional era that may have an influence on their performance. The consequences of the knockout competitions, the rankings of clubs, the contracts and the additional demands on these players create a highly pressurised sporting environment, enhanced by the competition, the coaches, parents and peers (Patricios, 2006).

Through the aforementioned, it is possible to notice that various factors may influence the performance of rugby teams. Therefore, the aim of this study was to determine how the psychological contract and leadership styles of rugby teams might have an influence on their performance. The results will not only be applicable for sport teams but also for work teams within

organisations, and can be a natural and yet manageable setting for organisational research (Ball, 1975 as cited in Chelladurai, 1984).

The following research questions have emerged from the above-mentioned problem statement:

Primary research question:

How does the psychological contract, the type of leadership style of the team captain and the preferred leadership styles of team members influence the perceived performance of the team?

Secondary research questions:

- What are the dynamics of the psychological contract, leadership styles and preferred leadership styles in sport teams, according to the literature?
- How valid are the psychological contract, the preferred leadership style of the team captain and the own leadership style of team members' questionnaires?
- What is the content of the psychological contract and leadership style questionnaires of the rugby team members?
- How does the psychological contract correlate with the perceived performance?
- What is the correlation between the preferred leadership style of the captain and the own leadership style of the team members?
- Does the preferred leadership style of the captain and the own leadership style of the team members influence the perceived performance through the season?

1.2 Research objectives

The research objectives were divided into a general objective and specific objectives.

1.2.1 General objective

The general objective of this study was to determine how the psychological contract, the leadership style of the team captain and the own leadership styles of team members influence the perceived performance of the team.

1.2.2 Specific objectives

- To determine the dynamics of the psychological contract, leadership styles and preferred leadership styles in sport teams according to the literature.
- To determine the validity of the psychological contract, preferred leadership style of the team captain and the own leadership styles of team members' questionnaires.
- To determine the content of the psychological contract and leadership styles of rugby team members.
- To determine how the psychological contract correlate with the perceived performance.
- To determine the correlation between the preferred leadership style of the captain and the own leadership style of the team members.
- To determine if the preferred leadership style of the team captain and the own leadership style of team members have an influence on the perceive performance.

1.3 Research method

The research method, concerning the specific objectives, consisted of a literature review and a two-phased empirical study. The results were presented in two publishable articles.

1.3.1 Literature review

In Article one, a literature review was conducted regarding theories of the psychological contract and team sport. The literature review of article two focused on leadership, leadership styles and preferred leadership styles. This was done through the following:

- A search for books was conducted within the catalogue of the Ferdinand Postma Library using keywords such as psychological contract, sport, team sport, sport psychology, leadership, leadership styles, etc.

- A search for relevant journals within the Ferdinand Postma Library was done. Articles regarding obligations and expectations of employees, the psychological contract, team sport, sport psychology, leadership, and leadership styles were searched for within these journals. Journals that may be applicable are the Journal of Sport Psychology, Psychology of Sport and Exercise, Journal for the Theory of Social Behaviour, SA Journal of Human Resource Management, Journal of Managerial Issues, The Leadership Quarterly, South African Journal of Psychology, and many more.

- In order to search for internet articles, keywords such as obligations and expectations of employees, the psychological contract, team sport, sport psychology, leadership, and leadership styles were used with the following search engines: Google; Google scholar; Ebscohost; SAe Publications, Science Direct; Emerald; and ProQuest.

1.3.2 Empirical study

The empirical study consisted of the research design, the participants and procedure, the measuring instrument, and the statistical analysis.

1.3.2.1 Research design

According to Bryman and Bell (2007) the research design provides a framework for the collection and analysis of data. The framework for the collection and analysis of data for this study was a longitudinal design. With a longitudinal research design, the same group of people is surveyed at different points in time (Cozby, 2009). This type of design was used as it provides very useful information about how variables or relationships among variables change over time (Struwig & Stead, 2001).

1.3.2.2 Participants and procedure

The general objective of this study was to determine the influence of the psychological contract, the type of leadership style of the team captain and the preferred leadership styles of the team members on the perceived performance of a team. For this study, "a team" referred to any team playing semi-professional rugby and team members being paid for playing for the particular team, thus being regarded as employees.

Therefore, semi-professional rugby teams were defined as the theoretical population for this study. The study population was university rugby teams that participated on club level. From this population, a non-probability sampling method consisting out of a convenience sampling technique was used in order to choose the participants for the study population. According to Bryman and Bell (2007), a convenience sample can be simply defined as a sample that is available to the researcher by virtue of its accessibility.

Phase 1

To determine the validity and reliability of the psychological contract questionnaire, the leadership style questionnaires, the content of the psychological contract, and the content of the leadership style questionnaires, three teams were chosen to participate: the 0/19's, the 0/21's and the first team from a prominent rugby playing university in South Africa. Psychological contract questionnaires and leadership style questionnaires were handed out with the onset of the season in order to determine the content of the psychological contract and preferred and own leadership styles of these team members.

Phase 2

To determine the correlation between the psychological contract and the perceived performance, and the preferred leadership style of the team captain and the own leadership style of team members, the first rugby team from a prominent rugby playing university in South Africa were used. The team chosen took part in an extremely well organised and professional university rugby competition.

The competition consisted of 31 matches in total and was played every Monday evening for two months. This was broadcast live on national television. The psychological contract questionnaires and leadership style questionnaires were handed out with the onset of the season and perceived performance questionnaires were handed out on a regular basis – prior to and after each home game in order to determine the satisfaction with the teams' preparation/game, as well as the perceived performance of the team.

This team was also a valid sample of the study population due to its participation in all of the important club level competitions in South Africa.

1.3.2.3 Measuring instrument

The psychological contract, the preferred leadership style and actual leadership style of the captain, and the perceived performance are the constructs that were measured in this study. This was done with the following questionnaires:

- Psychological contract: The psychological contract of team members consists of certain expectations and obligations between the individual player and the institution. The questionnaire consisted of 40 items – 30 institutional obligations and 10 player obligations – that were answered on a six-point scale. Each item represented a promise made to the player or to the institution. If the promise were not made, then the player would have chosen 0 "no, the promise has not been made". If the promise were made, the player had to choose between 1 "yes, but it is not important to me at all" to 5 "yes, and it is very important to me". Promises such as "Provide you with challenging tasks?" and "To accept the authority of the team's captain?" were part of the items on the questionnaire.
- Preferred leadership style and actual leadership style: The questionnaire measured certain aspects of leadership styles that a team member would prefer from his captain. The questionnaire consisted of 19 items that were answered on a five-point scale ranging from 1 "strongly disagree" to 5 "strongly agree". Questions asked included "Would you prefer that your captain communicate emotionally during practice?" and "Would you prefer that your captain share decisions with the team during practises?"

- Perceived performance of the individual, team, captain and coaching staff: This questionnaire measured the level of performance that each team member experienced during each game. The questionnaire consisted of four statements (yourself, your captain, the team and the coaching staff) that were answered on a rating scale ranging from 0 to 10. Each team member had to rate himself, his captain, the team and the coaching staff on a scale from 0 to 10 prior to and after each game.

1.3.2.4 Statistical analysis

The data obtained from the above questionnaires were statistically analysed using the SPSS 17.0 program.

Phase 1

In order to determine the content of the psychological contract questionnaire, exploratory factor analysis was used. Prior to this, item extraction was done in order to determine the frequencies of promises not made and promises made. Descriptive statistics (means, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis) of the factors were also computed to analyse the data obtained from the questionnaires.

In order to determine the content of the leadership style questionnaires, descriptive statistics (means, standard deviations, skewness, and kurtosis) were used to analyse the data. Cronbach's alpha coefficients were also computed to determine the reliability of the constructs of the psychological contract questionnaire and the leadership style questionnaires.

Phase 2

In order to determine the correlation between the psychological contract and perceived performance, as well as leadership styles and perceived performance, exploratory factor analysis was done to determine the factors underlying the psychological contract and perceived performance questionnaires and the leadership style and perceived performance questionnaires. Thereafter a Pearson's product-moment (2-tailed) correlation was done to measure the strength of the

relationship between the psychological contract and perceived performance and leadership styles and perceived performance (Field, 2005).

1.3.2.5 Ethical considerations

Diener and Crandall (1978) (as cited in Bryman & Bell, 2007) has divided ethical principles in research into four main areas:

- Is the research harmful to the participants?
- Is there a lack of consent?
- Is there invasion of privacy?
- Is deception involved?

Throughout this study, the above-mentioned principles were taken into consideration. The study did not cause any physical or emotional harm to any participant. Participation was also strictly voluntary and completion of questionnaires did confirm the consent of the participant.

According to Bryman and Bell (2007) the invasion of privacy is a principle that many people hold dear, "and transgressions of that right in the name of research are not regarded as acceptable" (p. 139). Therefore, the anonymity and privacy of the participants will be respected throughout the research process.

1.4 Reference

Ball, D. W. (1975). A note on method in the sociological study of sport. In D.W. Ball and J.W. Loy, *Sport and social order: Contribution to the sociology of sport.*

Basic Conditions of Employment Act number 75. (1997). Pretoria, South Africa: Government Printer.

Bass, B. M. (1990). *Handbook of leadership: Theory, research and managerial applications* (3rd ed.). New York: The free press.

Bryman, A., & Bell, E. (2007). *Business research methods* (2nd ed.). London: Oxford University Press.

Chelladurai, P. (1984). Discrepancy between preferences and perceptions of leadership behavior and satisfaction of athletes in varying sports. *Journal of sport psychology,* 6, 27-41.

Chelladurai, P., & Saleh, S. (1980). Dimensions of leader behaviour in sports: Development of a leadership scale. *Journal of sport psychology,* 2, 24-35.

Cox, R. H. (2007). *Sport psychology* (6th ed.). London: McGraw-Hill.

Cozby, P. C. (2009). *Methods in behavioural research* (10th ed.). London: McGraw-Hill.

Daft, R. L. (1999). *Leadership: Theory and practice.* New York: The Dryden Press.

Diener, E., & Crandall, R. (1978). *Ethics in social and behavioural research.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Doyle, M. E., & Smith, M. K. (2001). *Classical leadership.* Retrieved April 12, 2008, from http://www.infed.org/leadership/traditional_leadership.htm

Dubrin, A. J. (2007). *Leadership: Research findings, practice, and skills* (5th ed.). Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.

Flood, P. C., Turner, T., Ramamoorthy, N., & Pearson, J. (2005). Causes and consequences of psychological contracts among knowledge workers in the high technology and financial services industry. *International Journal of Human Resource Management,* 12(7), 1152-1165. Retrieved March 14, 2009, from http://www.puk.ac.za:2506/ehost/detail?vid=10&hid=8&sid=a283d0dc-3645-4a3d-b8da-a2e33861cf88%40sessionmgr2&bdata=JmxvZ2lucGFnZT1Mb2dpbi5hc3Amc2l0ZT1laG9zdC1saXZl#db=buh&AN=5322926

Forsyth, D. R. (2006). *Group dynamics* (4th ed.). London: Thomson Learning.

Graham, J. W. (1987). The essence of leadership: Fostering follower autonomy, not automatic followership. In J.G. Hunt (Ed.), *Emerging leadership vistas.* New York: Pergamon.

Guest, D., & Conway, N. (2004). *Employee well-being and the psychological contract.* Retrieved May 22, 2009, form http://images.google.co.za/imgres?imgurl=http://www.cipd.co.uk/.

Hale, B. D., & Collins, D. J. (2002). *Rugby tough.* Retrieved February 26, 2009, from http://books.google.co.za/books?id=oLs5lYT3o10C&printsec=frontcover

Harmse, J. J. (2008). *ELVs stealing rugby's soul.* Retrieved February 6, 2009, from http://www.news24.com/News24/Sport_columnists/JJ_Harmse/0,,2-2283-2288_2351195,00.html

Hersey, P., & Blanchard, K. M. (1988). *Management of organisational behaviour: Utilising human resources* (5th ed.). Retrieved March 15, 2009, from http://books.google.co.za/books?id=lS5HAAAAMAAJ&q=hersey+blanchard&dq=hersey+blanchard&lr=&pgis=1

Hess, N., & Jepsen, D. M. (2008). The psychological contract: Investigation of generational and career stage differences. *Academy of Management Proceedings,* 6, 1-6.

Hughes, R. L., Ginnett, R. C., & Curphy, G. J. (2006). *Leadership: Enhancing the lessons of experience* (5th ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.

Jones, G. M. (2008). *The development of a leadership styles competency framework (LSCF) associated with effective leadership in the role of the regional rugby development manager in schools in the united kingdom.* Potchefstroom: NWU. M.Com Thesis.

Kreitner, R., & Kinicki, A. (2007). *Organizational behavior* (7th ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.

Labour Relations Act number 66. (1995). Pretoria, South Africa: Government Printer.

Larwood, L., Wright, T. A., Desrochers, S., & Dahir, V. (1998). Extending latent role and psychological contract theories to predict intent to turnover and politics in business organizations. *Group and Organization Management*, 23(2), 100-123. Retrieved March 14, 2009, from http://www.puk.ac.za:2506/ehost/detail?vid=11&hid=8&sid=a283d0dc-3645-4a3d-b8da-a2e33861cf88%40sessionmgr2&bdata=JmxvZ2lucGFnZT1Mb2dpbi5hc3Amc2l0ZT1laG9zdC1saXZl#db=buh&AN=752083

LeUnes, A., & Nation, J. R. (2002). *Sport psychology* (3rd ed.). New York: Thomson Learning, Inc.

Loughead, T. M., & Hardy, J. (2005). An examination of coach and peer leader behaviors in sport. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise*, 6, 303-312.

Morrison, E. W., & Robinson, S. L. (1997). When employees feel betrayed: A model of how psychological contract violation develops. *Academy of Management Review*, 22(1), 226-256. Retrieved March 14, 2009, from http://www.puk.ac.za:2506/ehost/detail?vid=17&hid=8&sid=a283d0dc-3645-4a3d-b8da-a2e33861cf88%40sessionmgr2&bdata=JmxvZ2lucGFnZT1Mb2dpbi5hc3Amc2l0ZT1laG9zdC1saXZl#db=buh&AN=9707180265

Nauright, J. (1998). *Sport, cultures and identities in South Africa.* Retrieved February 6, 2009, from http://books.google.co.za/books?id=fY9slrDW8_QC&printsec=frontcover

Patricios, J. (2006). Schools rugby – have we reached the precipice? Retrieved March 26, 2009, from http://www.superschools.co.za/sporttalk.asp?id=4956&des=sportstalk

Restubog, S. L., Bordia, P., & Tang, R. (2006). Effects of psychological contract breach on performance of IT employees: The mediating role of affective commitment. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 79*(2), 299-306.

Rousseau, D. M., & Schalk, R. (2000). *Psychological contracts in employment: Cross-national perspectives.* London: Sage Publications, Inc.

Rousseau, D. M. (1995). *Psychological contracts in organizations: Understanding written and unwritten agreements.* London: Sage Publications, Inc.

Schalk, R., & Roe, R. E. (2007). Towards a dynamic model of the psychological contract. *Journal for the Theory of Social Behaviour*, 37(2), 167 – 178.

Spiers, D. (2008). DHS and Falcons merge. Retrieved March 27, 2009, from http://www.kznrugby.co.za/feature06u.html

Struwig, F. W., & Stead, G. B. (2001). *Planning, reporting and designing research.* Pretoria: Pearson.

Sykes, A. O. (1993). *An introduction to regression analysis.* Retrieved May 4, 2009, from http://www.law.uchicago.edu/Lawecon/WkngPprs_01-25/20.Sykes.Regression.pdf

Thompson, L. L. (2008). *Making the team: A guide for managers* (3rd ed.). New Jersey: Pearson Education, Inc.

University of Pretoria. (2008). *Tuks rugby academy: Vision.* Retrieved February 13, 2009, from http://web.up.ac.za/default.asp?ipkCategoryID=6283&subid=6283&ipklookid=1

Van Reenen, R. (2008). *Career development and adult learning for professional individual – An educational and management perspective*. Retrieved February 6, 2009, from http://www.rossacademy.com/

Waterson, G. (2002). Professionalism. Message posted to http://www.rugbyforum.co.za/Week7.htm

2 Chapter 2: Research article 1 – The psychological contract and the perceived performance of a semi-professional rugby team.

2.1 Introduction

The game of rugby has transformed noticeably since the introduction of professionalism (Thomas, 2006). Before professionalism, rugby was a game played and organised by amateurs as a form of pastime for no compensation (Waterson, 2002; Thomas, 2006; Robinson, 2008). Therefore players were also required to have some or other form of alternative employment (Paul, 2009). In August 1995 the International Rugby Board (IRB) announced that the game of rugby would become professional (Mellalieu, 2008). According to Waterson (2002), professionalism in South African rugby officially stepped in after the World Cup in 1995.

South African rugby professionalism led to team players signing formal contracts and being openly paid for playing both nationally and provincially (Nauright, 1998). The game has ultimately transformed in to a multimillion rand business venture and players are now being treated as professional employees (Waterson, 2002). It is now purely a business competing for scarce resources that necessitates the use of a business approach for its management and thus uses professional management methods (Robinson, 2008). According to McMillan (2006), television was the main cause in this shift to professionalism as a result of the explosive increase in broadcasting profits during the 1990's.

Evidently, the recent Rugby World Cup in 2007 was recorded as the third largest sporting occurrence. It attracted more than two million spectators and over three billion people viewed it worldwide (Mellalieu, 2008). According to Smith and Stewart (2010), fans and spectators are willing to pay large amounts of money to see their favourite team or player in action and therefore it is the players that are "at the heart of professional sport" (p. 9). Even local, club level competitions have received voracious media attention for not only the way players performed in a game, but also for what they are doing off the field (Smith & Stewart, 2010). Paul (2009) states that "There are 'eyes' everywhere peering into the darkest corners in the hope they will find the tiniest transgression" (p. 27).

The result is that the players are living a "fishbowl experience" where their every move is being scrutinised on a daily basis and where they are pressurised to perform to the highest standard (Smith & Stewart, 2010). Players are under enormous amounts of pressure from their coaches, managers as well as their fans, to perform both on and off the field.

2.2 Problem statement

Professionalism was not only introduced at national and provincial level, but also at university level. This is evident in the following vision and mission statement of one of the most prominent rugby playing universities in South Africa, the University of Pretoria (Tuks): "The vision and mission of the Tuks Rugby Academy is to identify and develop talented rugby professionals to their full potential and equip them with the necessary skills and knowledge to enjoy a successful career in rugby" (Vision section, para. 1).

The above-mentioned statement is a promise from the University to the player, creating certain expectations and obligations – a psychological contract. Rousseau (1995) defined the psychological contract as "individual beliefs, shaped by the organization, regarding terms of an exchange agreement between individuals and their organization" (p. 9). In other words, the player may have certain expectations regarding remuneration and training and development opportunities in exchange for his time, physical and psychological efforts, discipline and devotion to the team.

Violation or breach of these expectations and obligations may have adverse affects on the performance and contributions of the individual (Rousseau, 1995). A substantial amount of interest within the rugby literature has been allocated to the performance analysis of teams and players from various disciplines, such as the physiological, psychological and biomechanical (Mellalieu, 2008).

Over the last two decades a large amount of attention was given to research of the psychological contract (Suazo, Martinez, & Sandoval, 2009). However, there is very little research connecting the psychological contract to sport. De Campos (1994) found that an unclear psychological contract may lead to significant adverse consequences such as being fired, quitting, changing coaches, changing sports clubs, stopping practicing, poor performance, or even changing to another sport.

Therefore, sixteen years after De Campos' (1994) results, the main objective of the current paper is to determine if the psychological contract in sport teams influences the perceived performance of the team members. In order to reach the above mentioned objective, a literature review of the dynamics of the psychological contract and its role in the professional sporting environment was conducted. This was followed by a two-phase empirical analysis of the results of a psychological contract questionnaire and a perceived performance questionnaire.

2.3 Research Objectives

2.3.1 General objective

The general objective of this paper is to determine how the psychological contract influences the perceived performance of the team members.

2.3.2 Specific objectives

- To determine the dynamics of the psychological contract in sport teams according to the literature.

Phase 1

- To determine the reliability and validity of the psychological contract questionnaires.
- To determine the content of the psychological contract of rugby team members.

Phase 2

- To determine how the psychological contract correlates with the perceived performance of rugby team members.

2.4 Literature review

2.4.1 The psychological contract

The concept and terminology of the psychological contract was first used in the early work of Argyris (1960) within the context of work organisations (Anderson & Schalk, 1998; Schalk &

Roe, 2007; Guest, 2004). However, Levinson, Price, Munden, Mandl and Solley (1962) first defined the concept as the sum of mutual expectations between the organisation and the employee (Anderson & Schalk, 1998; De Campos, 1994). Many definitions of the concept followed, but Rousseau (1995) provided the key developments leading to its current use as an analytic framework (Guest, 2004).

This analytic framework contains certain elements underlying the psychological contract. According to Rousseau (1995), the psychological contract is in essence a subjective perception, which will differ from one individual to another. Therefore, individuals will perform according to their perceived obligations and perceived expectations (De Campos, 1994). Parties to this exchange agreement are thus likely to hold rather different, and possibly unique, beliefs about what each owes to the other (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994).

The psychological contract furthermore involves a dynamic process (De Campos, 1994), which means that it is subject to change as the relationship between the employee and the employer evolves (Anderson & Schalk, 1998). According to Schalk and Roe (2007), psychological contracts are created at a certain point in time and they are assumed changeable over time.

Another element underlying the psychological contract is that it is concerned with mutual obligations, based on certain promises, in which the parties will invest in their relationship with the prospect of an optimistic outcome (Anderson & Schalk, 1998). Therefore, the type of relationship that exists between the employee and employer will have an impact on the psychological contract (De Campos, 1994).

A fundamental component of the psychological contract is the concept of breach (Dulac, Coyle-Shapiro, Henderson, & Wayne, 2008). Morrison and Robinson (1997) have defined psychological contract breach as "the cognition that one's organization has failed to meet one or more obligations within one's psychological contract in a manner commensurate with one's contributions" (p. 230). For instance, a rugby player expects that if he performs well, then he will be playing for the first team in the next game. It is, however, necessary to keep in mind that this is a subjective experience based not only on an employer's action or inaction, but on the individual's perception of what that action or inaction may be (Kramer, 2006).

According to Rousseau (1995), there are three main reasons for the occurrence of perceived psychological contract breach: reneging, disruption and inadvertent violation. Reneging occurs when the organisation is aware that an obligation exists but consciously fails to meet that obligation (Robinson & Morrison, 2000). For example, the coach explicitly promised a player that he would play for the first team on Saturday and then chooses another player.

Disruption takes place when the organisation is unable to fulfil its obligations due to changing economic or environmental factors (Lester, Kickul, Bergmann, & De Meuse, 2002). According to Lester et al. (2002), this type of psychological contract breach will transpire when an organisation is suffering financially or unforeseen changes require it to adjust existing practices. For instance, the coach has promised the team a practice tour, but unexpected financial constraints subsequently make this impossible.

The last reason for psychological contract breach is inadvertent violation. This can result when an employee has a certain perception of a given promise that differs from the perception of the organisation regarding that particular promise (Morrison & Robinson, 1997). In other words, the employee and the organisation have different understandings regarding the nature of the obligation or whether it exists at all. (Robinson & Morrison, 2000). For example, the rugby administrators have promised training and development with the onset of the season. The player, in this scenario, perceived this as a promise of a personal trainer, whereas the administrators only meant that they would provide gym facilities.

Accompanying the concept of psychological contract breach is the concept of violation. Early writings regarding the psychological contract regularly used the terms "breach" and "violation" interchangeably (Sparrow & Cooper, 2003). However, according to Robinson and Brown (2004), psychological contract breach refers to an individual's perception that another has failed to meet his or her obligations to that individual, whereas psychological contract violation refers to the emotional reaction to the interpretation of a breach experience. Sparrow and Cooper (2003) has defined it as "strong affective responses to more extreme breaches of contract, such as feelings of injustice, betrayal and deeper psychological distress, whereby the victim experiences anger, resentment, a sense of wrongful harm" (p. 43).

There is thus a distinction between the violation of the psychological contract and unmet expectations and perceptions of inequity (Robinson & Rousseau, 1994). When the psychological contract has been breached it produces a cognitive response, where an employee might make alterations to their own contributions in two ways (Holbeche, 2006): They may either decrease what they give, such as reducing the amount of effort they put into their work or withdrawing psychologically, or they may increase what they get by taking more sick leave or engage in petty theft to increase untaxed benefits.

In the case of the rugby player, he might reduce the effort he exerts on the field and become prone to absenteeism. However, when the breach develops into a violation, an employee's behaviour become extreme, accompanied by emotional responses such as frustration, feelings of betrayal, leaving the organisation, sabotage and revenge, as well as physical symptoms such as high blood pressure (Holbeche, 2006).

Therefore Rousseau (1995) states that the violation of a contract will erode trust as it undermines the employment relationship, yielding both lower employee contributions such as performance and attendance, as well as lower employer investments such as retention and promotion. Thus, when a player feels that an expectation or obligation was violated, it could do great damage to the relationship between the coach and the player, because the player could lower his performance. It could also ultimately lead to the quitting of the team.

2.4.2 The psychological contract in the professional sporting environment

At the centre of the professional team sport industry lies the process of recruiting, training and, in particular, managing athletic talent – in short, the labour process (Wilson, 1991). A fundamental aspect of the labour process is the employment relationship that is defined as the exchange relationship that exists between the employer and the employee in the workplace (Armstrong, 2003). Similarly, the relationship between the coach and the athlete plays a significant role in shaping the athletic endeavour (De Campos, 1994).

According to Jowett and Poczwardowski (2007; as cited in Jowett & Lavallee, 2007), coaches and athletes normally develop relationships through which athletes receive instruction,

guidance, support. They work closely together, form close relationships and have a high level of interaction and reliance upon one another (Lorimer & Jowett, 2009).

The coach, for example, may rely on the athlete to be on time for practice sessions, to perform during games, to conform to the rules of the sport, etcetera. The athlete will rely on the coach to teach new techniques and skills, to extend emotional support, to motivate the athlete and to evaluate the athlete's game. When parties in a relationship experience that they are obliged to behave or perform in a particular manner and that the other party has certain obligations towards them, such feelings can be regarded as the inception of a psychological contract (De Campos, 1994).

Wellin (2007) states that "the psychological contract essentially refers to the mutual expectations people have of one another in a relationship and how these expectations change and impact our behaviour over time" (p. 17). Within the coach-athlete relationship, the athlete starts to create expectations regarding the coach as early as when he or she starts thinking about practicing a sport, whereas a coach can form expectations before he or she has met an athlete (De Campos, 1994).

The dynamic nature of the psychological contract causes it change and develop as over time – through accumulating experiences, changing employment conditions and the parties re-evaluating their expectations (Armstrong, 2006). However, not all expectations may be met, neither those of the employee, nor those of the employer (French, Kast, & Rosenzweig, 1985).

As mentioned, unmet expectations may lead to a breach and violation of the psychological contract. An employee's perception of psychological contract breach can have harmful consequences for an organisation, including lowered performance, commitment and satisfaction, as well as lower actual turnover (Robinson, 1996; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994; Robinson, Kraatz, & Rousseau, 1994; as cited in Gakovic & Tetrick, 2003). Lanning (1979; as cited in De Campos, 1994) argues that the performance of the athlete could be considerably affected by the nature of the relationship between the coach and the athlete.

Therefore, if the athlete should feel that the coach has not met certain expectations, it may lead to lowered performance from the athlete. Little research has been conducted to determine the

impact of the psychological contract on the performance of athletes. Thus, the purpose of this study is to determine how the psychological contract will affect the performance of a semi-professional rugby team.

2.5 Method

The empirical analysis of this paper was conducted in two phases.

2.5.1 Participants and procedure

The general objective of this study was to determine the influence of the psychological contract on the perceived performance of a team. For the purpose of this study "a team" refers to any team playing semi-professional rugby with team members being paid for playing for the particular team and thus being regarded as employees.

Semi-professional rugby teams were defined as the theoretical population for this study. The study population was university rugby teams that participated on club level. In order to choose the participants for the study, a non-probability sampling method (convenience sampling technique) was used to select a sample from the study population. With non-probability sampling, the chance that any one particular person from the population will be chosen is unknown (Stead, 2001). A convenient sampling technique such as this selects respondents because they are easily accessible and should only be used if the universe is homogeneous (Stead, 2001).

Phase 1

In order to determine the validity and reliability of the psychological contract questionnaire and the content of the psychological contract, three teams were chosen to participate: the 0/19's, the 0/21's and the first team from another prominent rugby playing university in South Africa. Psychological contract questionnaires were handed out with the onset of the season in order to determine the content of the psychological contract of these team members.

Phase 2

To determine the correlation between the psychological contract and the perceived performance, the first rugby team from a prominent rugby playing university in South Africa were used. The team chosen took part in an extremely well organised and professional university rugby competition. The competition consisted of 31 matches in total and was played every Monday evening for two months. This was broadcast live on national television. The psychological contract questionnaires were handed out with the onset of the season and perceived performance questionnaires were handed out on a regular basis – prior to and after each home game in order to determine the satisfaction with the teams' preparation/game, as well as the perceived performance of the team.

The samples in both phases were also deemed valid samples of the study population due to its participation in all of the important club level competitions in South Africa.

2.5.2 Measuring instruments

Phase 1 and 2

Psychological contract. The psychological contract of team members consists of certain institute obligations towards the team members and certain player obligations towards the institution. In order to determine the content of these obligations a psychological contract measure, developed by Linde (2008), was used. This measure consisted of forty items that are rated on a six point Likert-type scale.

Thirty items represented a promise made to the player by the institution and ten items represented promises made by the player to the institution. If the promise was not made, then the player would choose 0 "no, the promise has not been made" and if the promise was made, the player could choose between 1 "yes, but promise not kept at all" to 5 "yes, promise fully kept".

Two sample items of the institute obligations are: "To provide you with challenging tasks?" and "To ensure fair treatment by coaches and managers?". Two sample items of the player

obligations are: “To give constantly good performances as a player?” and “To be committed to the improvement of your team’s performance?”.

Phase 2

Perceived Performance. Perceived performance of the individual, team, captain and coaching staff: This questionnaire measured the level of performance that each team member experienced during each game. The questionnaire consisted of four statements (yourself, your captain, the team and the coaching staff) that were answered by means of a rating scale ranging from 0 to 10. Each team member had to rate himself, his captain, the team and the coaching staff from 0 to 10 prior to and after each home game.

2.6 Statistical Analysis

The data obtained from the above-mentioned questionnaires were statistically analysed using the SPSS 17.0 program.

Phase 1

In order to determine the content of the psychological contract, exploratory factor analysis was used. Prior to this, item extraction was done to determine the frequencies of promises not made and promises made. Descriptive statistics (mean, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis) of the factors were also computed to analyse the data obtained from the questionnaires. Cronbach’s alpha coefficients were also computed to determine the reliability of the constructs.

Phase 2

In order to determine the correlation between the psychological contract and perceived performance, exploratory factor analysis was done to determine the factors underlying the psychological contract and perceived performance questionnaires. Thereafter, a Pearson’s product-moment (2-tailed) correlation was done to measure the strength of the relationship between the psychological contract and perceived performance (Field, 2005).

2.7 Results

2.7.1 Phase 1

The respondents experienced, on average that 1.48% of the promises from the rugby institute were not made to them and 0.45% of the obligations to the rugby institute were not made by the respondents. Exploratory factor analysis was used to assess the items of the psychological contract questionnaire. As a result, two factors were extracted and were labelled Institute obligations and Player obligations.

Seven factors with inadequate loadings were dropped which included housing, opportunities for development as a player, accommodating team and academic demands, accommodated by the university to match team and academic demands, team captain regulating emotional behaviour, accepting selectors' decisions and reaching expectations of team supporters.

Factor 1, namely Institute obligations, had an eigenvalue of 7.291 and explained 27.01% of the variance. Table 1 shows the items grouped under factor 1, Institute obligations, with their loadings that ranged from 0.436 to 0.643.

Table 1. Results of exploratory factor analysis for Institute obligations (F1).

Items	Institute obligations (F1)	Communalities
Challenging tasks	0.496	0.735
Financial assistance	0.506	0.605
Opportunities for development	0.578	0.646
Participation in decision-making	0.454	0.582
Career opportunities	0.610	0.588
Good working atmosphere	0.567	0.703
Fair treatment	0.580	0.771
Growth opportunities	0.643	0.745
Taken care of	0.594	0.741
Accommodated with long term injury	0.632	0.799
Help with personal problems	0.485	0.750
Honest about performance	0.593	0.773
Clear and consistent with performance appraisals	0.636	0.724
Quality training facilities	0.497	0.777
Task-orientated team	0.572	0.669

Committed team performance	0.562	0.726
Loyal team members	0.565	0.757
Team members accepting norms and standards	0.584	0.677
Good team captain	0.480	0.600
Team captain leading by example	0.553	0.780
Team captain providing feedback	0.576	0.769
Team captain taking responsibility	0.436	0.600

Table 2 shows the items grouped under factor 2, Player obligations, with their loading ranging from 0.411 to 0.848. Factor 2, Player obligations, had an eigenvalue of 5.792 and explained 44.57% of the variance.

Table 2. Results of exploratory factor analysis for Player obligations (F2).

Items	Player obligations (F2)	Communalities
Loyal to rugby institute	0.723	0.595
Constant good performance	0.789	0.664
Constant good performance academic	0.411	0.663
Supporting image	0.844	0.752
Honesty	0.799	0.701
Task-orientated	0.722	0.523
Commitment to improvement	0.848	0.756
Loyal to team	0.675	0.679
Acceptance of team norms and standards	0.693	0.492
Innovative suggestions for improvement	0.690	0.498
Acceptance of captain's authority	0.606	0.548

Table 3 shows the descriptive statistics of the aforementioned factors as well as the seven items that were dropped from the factor analysis. Also indicated in Table 3 is the Cronbach's α valure for the two factors. Cronbach's α value for both factors were above the recommended 0.7. This indicates that the constructs are reliable.

Table 3. Mean, standard deviations (SD), skewness, kurtosis and Cronbach's α.

Variables	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis	α
Institute obligations (F1)	4.38	0.37	-0.43	-0.14	0.882
Player obligations (F2)	4.56	0.43	-1.88	6.00	0.897
Housing	3.92	1.14	-1.23	0.87	
Opportunities for development as player	4.74	0.47	-1.48	1.07	
Accommodating team and academic demands	4.12	0.83	-1.01	1.58	
Accommodated by university to match team and academic demands	3.94	1.00	-0.91	0.49	
Team captain regulating emotional behaviour	4.14	0.84	-1.28	2.98	
Accepting selectors' decisions	4.31	0.72	-0.93	0.88	
Reaching expectations of team supporters	4.20	1.02	-1.45	1.86	

As shown in Table 3, the means of Institute obligations and Player obligations are 4.38 and 4.56 with standard deviations of 0.37 and 0.43. The kurtosis of Player obligations is 6.00, which indicate that the distributions are relatively pointy (Field, 2005). The other dropped variables all have a mean of above 3.

2.7.2 Phase 2

Exploratory factor analysis was done and four factors were extracted: Before game performance (BGP), After game performance (AGP), Institute obligations (IO) and Player obligations (PO). Pearson's product-moment (2-tailed) correlation was done for the four factors and the results are indicated in Table 3.

Table 4. Correlation coefficients between contents (n = 27)

Items	1	2	3	4
1. Before game performance	1	-	-	-
2. After game performance	0.479*+	1	-	-
3. Institution obligations	0.183	0.028	1	-
4. Player obligations	0.238	0.062	0.749**++	1

* Statistically significant correlation: p < 0,05

** Statistically significant correlation: p < 0.01

+Practically significant correlation: r = 0,30 (medium effect)

++Practically significant correlation: r = 0,50 (large effect)

Table 4 indicates strong correlations between BGP and AGP (0.497), as well as between IO and PO (0.749). The correlation between BGP and AGP is statistically significant at a confidence level of 95% and is practically significant with a medium effect (r = 0.30). The correlation between IO and PO is statistically significant at a confidence level of 99% and practically significant with a large effect (r = 0.50). There is however, no correlation between the two factors for performance and the two factors for the psychological contract.

2.8 Discussion

The general objective of this study was to determine how the psychological contract influences the perceived performance of rugby team members. The first phase of the study investigated the content of the psychological contract of the members of three rugby teams.

According to the literature the psychological contract is in essence a subjective perception, therefore parties to this exchange agreement are likely to hold different beliefs about what each owes the other. A psychological contract questionnaire, with forty items, was used to determine the content of the psychological contract. The results of this investigation extracted two factors, IO and PO and seven items from the psychological contract questionnaire were dropped.

The results indicated that the means of the two factors are respectively 4.38 for IO and 4.56 for PO with standard deviations of 0.37 and 0.43 respectively. This indicates that most of the players experienced that the promises by the institute were made to them and were kept largely or fully kept. Promises made to the institution by the players were also made and were kept largely or fully kept.

The large kurtosis of PO (6.00) is an indication that most of the scores are clustered around the mean (Field, 2005). Also investigated in the first phase was the validity and reliability of the psychological contract questionnaire. Cronbach's α coefficients for both IO and PO were very high at 0.882 and 0.897 respectively. This is an indication of the validity and reliability of the psychological contract.

The second phase of the study investigated the correlation between the psychological contract and the perceived performance of rugby team members of the first rugby team from a prominent rugby playing university in South Africa. According to the literature, the psychological contract can influence the performance of teams.

Exploratory factor analysis was done and two factors, BGP and AGP were extracted. IO and PO were extracted from the psychological contract questionnaire. Pearson's product correlation was done for the four factors. The results of this study indicated that there is no correlation between the psychological contract factors and the perceived performance factors. There is however, a strong correlation between BGP and AGP. This indicates that if players perceive their BGP as bad, then their AGP will also be bad.

Not taking into account the actual game performance of the teams could be a limitation for this study. Another limitation was also measuring only the home games. Measuring of away games could also have had an influence on the perceived performance.

2.9 Conclusion

The objectives of this study were to determine the dynamics of the psychological contract in sport teams according to the literature; to determine the content of the psychological contract of

rugby team players; and to determine how the psychological contract correlates with the perceived performance.

Although a substantial amount of interest within the rugby literature has been allocated to the performance of teams and players and research of the psychological contract has received huge amounts of attention over the past two decades, very little research has connected the performance of teams to the psychological contract.

According to the literature, the psychological contract is the sum of mutual expectations that exist between an organisation and an employee. Similarly certain expectations exist in the relationship between a coach and an athlete.

The literature has also indicated that a breach or violation of these expectations may have adverse effects on the performance of athletes. Breach of the psychological contract is seen as a rugby team members' perception that the rugby institution or coach has failed to meet one or more obligations within the psychological contract. Violation, on the other hand, is the emotional reaction to the perception of the breach of the psychological contract that may lead to lower employee contributions, such as performance. Thus, according to the literature, the psychological contract may have an impact on performance in teams.

A contribution of this paper was the measurement of the rugby team members' perception of the institute obligations as well as their own obligations. Therefore, the content of the psychological contract questionnaires were determined through exploratory factor analysis.

The factor analysis divided the contents of the psychological contract into two factors that were labelled Institute obligations (such as providing challenging tasks, financial assistance, opportunities for development, participation in decision-making, career opportunities, good working atmosphere, fair treatment, growth opportunities, to be taken care of, accommodation of long-term injuries, help with personal problems, honesty about performance, clear and consistent performance appraisals, quality training facilities, task-orientated team, commitment to team performance, loyal team members, team members accepting norms and standards, good team captain, team captain leading by example, team captain providing feedback and team captain taking responsibility) and

Player obligations (loyalty to rugby institute, constant good performance, constant good academic performance, supporting image, honesty, task-orientated, commitment to improvement, loyalty to team, acceptance of team norms and standards, innovative suggestions for improvement and acceptance of the captain's authority).

Certain items were dropped from the factor analysis due to their low loadings towards the two factors. These items included the promise of housing for the players, opportunities for development for players, accommodation of team and academic demands, team captain regulating emotional behaviour, accepting selectors' decisions and reaching expectations of team supporters. Thus, rugby team members did not perceive the aforementioned items as promises made either by or to the institution.

The final objective of this paper was to determine whether the psychological contract of team members correlates with their perceived performance. As table 4 indicates, no correlation could be found between the factors for the psychological contract factors and the performance factors, which indicates that the psychological contract does not have an effect on the perceived performance of rugby team members. There is, however, a strong correlation between BGP and AGP, and IO and PO.

Many factors may have an effect on the performance of teams, however, the current paper focused on how the psychological contract may have an effect on the perceived performance of a semi-professional rugby team. According to the literature, the psychological contract may have an effect on the performance of a team; however, the results of the paper show that there is no correlation between perceived performance and the psychological contract.

2.10 References

Anderson, N., & Schalk, R. (1998). The psychological contract in retrospect and prospect. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour, 19,* 637-647.

Argyris, J. S. (1960). *Understanding organizational behaviour.* London: Tavistock Publications.

Armstrong, M. (2006). *A handbook of human resource management practice* (10th ed.). London: Kogan Page.

De Campos, P. A. (1994). The relationship between coaches and athletes: The strength of the psychological contract in sports. *Doctoral dissertation.* United States International University, San Diego.

Dulac, T., Coyle-Shapiro, J. A-M., Henderson, D., & Wayne, S. J. (2008). Not all responses to breach are the same: The interconnection of social exchange and psychological contract processes in organizations. *Academy of Management Journal, 31*(6), 1079-1098.

Field, A. (2005). *Discovering statistics using SPSS* (2nd ed.). London: SAGE Publications.

French, W. L., Kast, F. E., & Rosenzweig, J. E. (1985). *Understanding human behaviour in organizations.* New York: Harper & Row.

Gakovic, A., & Tetrick, L. E. (2003). Psychological contract breach as a source of strain for employees. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 18*(2), 235-246.

Guest, D. E. (2004). The psychology of the employment relationship: An analysis based on the psychological contract. *Applied Psychology: An International Review, 53*(4), 541-555.

Holbeche, L. (2006). *Understanding change: Theory, implementation and success.* Boston: Butterworth-Heinemann.

Kramer, R. M. (2006). *Organizational trust: A reader.* London: Oxford University Press.

Lanning, W. (1979). Coach and athlete personality interaction: A critical variable in athletic success. *Journal of Sport Psychology, 1,* 262-267.

Lester, S. W., Kickul, J. R., Bergmann, T. J., & De Meuse, K. P. (2002). The effects of organizational resizing on the nature of the psychological contract and employee perceptions of contract fulfilment. In K. P. De Meuse & M. L. Marks (Eds.), *Resizing the organization: Managing layoffs, divestitures, and closings: Maximizing gain while minimizing pain* (78-107). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Levinson, H., Price, C. R., Munden, K. J., Mandl, H. J., & Solley, C. M. (1962). *Men, management and mental health.* Cambridge: Harvard University Press.

Martens, R. (1980). The uniqueness of young athletes: Psychological considerations. *American Journal of Sports Medicine, 5,* 382-385.

McMillan, J. (2006). Rugby: Strategy and structure. In A. Wladimir & S. Szymanski, *Handbook on the economics of sport* (565-572).

Mellalieu, S. (2008). Science and rugby union. *Journal of Sports Sciences, 26*(8), 791-794.

Morrison, E. W., & Robinson, S. L. (1997). When employees feel betrayed: A model of how psychological contract violations develops. *Academy of Management Journal, 22*(1), 225-256.Nauright, J. (1998). *Sport, cultures and identities in South Africa.* Retrieved February 6, 2009, from http://books.google.co.za/books?id=fY9slrDW8_QC&printsec=frontcover.

Paul, G. (2009). Once were warriors. *NZ Rugby World, 120,* 26-31.

Robinson, S. L. (1996). Trust and breach of the psychological contract. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 41,* 574-599.

Robinson, L. (2008). The business of sport. In B. Houlihan, *Sport and society: A student introduction* (307-328). London: Sage.

Robinson, S. L., & Brown, G. (2004). Psychological contract breach and violation in organizations. In R. W. Griffin & A. O'Leary-Kelly (Eds.), *The dark side of organizational behavior* (309-334). New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc.

Robinson, S. L., & Morrison, E. W. (2000). The development of psychological contract breach and violation: a longitudinal study. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour, 21*, 525-546.

Robinson, S. L., & Rousseau, D. M. (1994). Violating the psychological contract: not the expectation but the norm. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour, 15*, 245-259.

Robinson, S. L., Kraatz, M. S., & Rousseau, D. M. (1994). Changing obligations and the psychological contract: A longitudinal study. *Academy of Management Journal, 37*, 137-152.

Rousseau, D. M. (1995). *Psychological contracts in organizations: Understanding written and unwritten agreements.* London: Sage Publications, Inc.

Schalk, R., & Roe, R. E. (2007). Towards a dynamic model of the psychological contract. *Journal for the Theory of Social Behaviour, 37*(2), 167-182.

Smith, A. C. T., & Stewart, B. (2010). The special futures of sport: A critical revisit. *Sport Management Review, 13*, 1-13.

Sparrow, P., & Cooper, C. L. (2003). *The employment relationship: key challenges for HR.* London: Butterworth-Heinemann.

Stead, G. D. (2001). *Planning, designing and reporting research.* Cape Town: Pearson South Africa.

Suazo, M. M., Martinez, P. G., & Sandoval, R. (2009). Creating psychological and legal contracts through human resource practices: A signalling theory perspective. *Human Resource Management Review, 19*(2009), 154-166.

Thomas, G. (2006). Rugby's evolution has its challenges. *NZ Rugby World, 93*, 28-29.

University of Pretoria. (2008). *Tuks rugby academy: Vision.* Retrieved February 13, 2009, from http://web.up.ac.za/default.asp?ipkCategoryID=6283&subid=6283&ipklookid=1

Waterson, G. (2002). Professionalism. Message posted to http://www.rugbyforum.co.za/Week7.htm

3 Chapter 3: Research article 2 – Leadership styles and the performance of a semi-professional rugby team.

3.1 Introduction

> Throughout time, people have been willing to reach for seemingly unachievable goals and even make the ultimate sacrifice for their leaders. For good or for evil, political and military leaders, such as Alexander the Great, Hitler, and even George W. Bush, have been able to capture the hearts and minds of their followers and have lead them dutifully into some of the most fierce battles known to man to achieve their ultimate goals. Even in sports some of the most respected accomplished coaches such as Vince Lombardi of the Green Bay Packers and George Steinbrenner of the New York Yankees were able to take failing teams, engage their team members, and ultimately become some of the most successful sports teams in the United States (Burke, Sims, Lazzara, & Salas, 2007, p. 606).

When reading the above paragraph, certain questions come to mind. For instance "How do these leaders convince their followers to achieve their goals?", "Do they all have a certain common characteristic that makes them able to engage their followers in such a manner?", "Are they born with this characteristic?" and "Is it the leader or are there other variables impacting the followers?"

The past twenty-five years has seen an explosion of theoretical and empirical research regarding team effectiveness in order to establish a better understanding of the antecedents, processes, and emergent states which assist in effective team outcomes (Burke, Stagl, Klein, Goodwin, Salas, & Halpin, 2006).

According to Thompson (2008), a necessary component for effective teamwork is that of leadership – to shape goals, coordinate effort, and to motivate the members of the team. There is however, much disagreement among researchers regarding the definition of leadership (Kellett, 1999). Therefore, Kreitner and Kinicki (2007) have highlighted four commonalities among the

many definitions of leadership: Firstly, leadership should be seen as a process between a leader and followers. Secondly, leadership involves social influence. Thirdly, leadership occurs at multiple levels in an organisation and finally, leadership focuses on goal accomplishment.

Kellet (1999) confirms that several researchers in the field of sport management have promoted the use of literature from other fields, such as organisational management, in order to facilitate sport management research. According to Vigoda-Gadot (2007), the relationship between leadership and performance has received extensive interest, however, regardless of the numerous body of work in the research of leadership, there has been a lack of research regarding the integration pertaining to the relationship between specific leader behaviours and team performance outcomes (Burke et al., 2006).

Therefore, this paper attempted to determine the dynamics of leadership, leadership styles and preferred leadership styles in sports teams according to the literature. Using a preferred leadership style and actual leadership style questionnaire, it also attempted to determine the relationship between the own leadership style of a team member and the preferred leadership style of the team captain, as well as to determine if the own leadership style of team members and preferred leadership style of the captain influence the perceived performance through a season.

3.2 Research Objectives

3.2.1 General objective

The general objective of this paper is to determine how the preferred type of leadership style of the team captain and the own leadership styles of team members influence the perceived performance of the team.

3.2.2 Specific objectives

- To determine the dynamics of leadership, leadership styles and preferred leadership styles in sports teams according to the literature.

Phase 1

- To determine the relationship between the own leadership style of team members and the preferred leadership style of the team captain.

Phase 2

- To determine if the own leadership style of team members and preferred leadership style of the team captain has an influence on the perceived performance through the season.

- To determine the reliability and validity of the leadership style questionnaires.

3.3 Literature Review

3.3.1 Leadership

A key concept associated with leadership is that of leadership styles (Jones, 2008). Leadership styles can be defined as a combination of task and relationship behaviours that is used to influence subordinates in order to accomplish goals (Nagelkerk, 2005).

Early research in understanding leadership focused on the personal traits of the leader (Daft, 2002). This approach sought to discover a set of qualities (traits) that successful leaders possessed (Mollo, Stanz, & Groenewald, 2005). According to Forsyth (2006), this view faded as a succession of failures to find any consistent impact of personality on leadership behaviour, was reported.

In contrast with the trait approach, the behavioural approach hypothesized that effective leadership will be a function of the dominant behaviours of a leader (Crust & Lawrence, 2006). According to Mollo, Stanz, and Groenewald (2005), this approach distinguished effective and ineffective leaders from each other "by their characteristic behavioural patterns in their work roles" (p. 36). Researchers found that the behaviour of the leader directly affected the effectiveness of the work group and this led them to identify patterns of behaviour (called leadership styles) that leaders used to influence others (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2007).

However, the inability of researchers to identify universal leader traits or behaviours to determine effective leadership, led them in a new direction (Daft, 2002). Situational theories of leadership proposed that the effectiveness of a leader will depend on the situation (Kreitner &

Kinicki, 2007). This type of leader can adapt to different leadership styles for every particular situation, regardless of the effectiveness of any one style in the past (Gill, 2006). Finally, Bass (1997; as cited in Forsyth, 2006) developed the theory of transformational leadership that proposed that most leaders are transactional rather than transformational.

Transactional leaders will recognise the needs and desires of their followers and then clarify the way in which it will be satisfied in exchange for meeting certain objectives or performing in a certain way (Daft, 2002). In contrast, transformational leaders transform followers to pursue the goals of the organisation over self-interest (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2007). The following figure identifies the type of behaviours that transformational, transactional leaders and non-leadership will engage in.

Transformational leadership	**Transactional leadership**	**Non-leadership**
Inspirational motivation	Contingent reward	Laissez-faire
Idealised influence	Active management by exception	
Intellectual stimulation	Passive management by exception	
Individualised consideration		

Figure 4. Different types of leader behaviour.

Figure 1 shows that transformational leaders engage in four significant sets of behaviour. The first set of behaviour is that of inspirational motivation. According to Sosik, Godshalk, and Yammarino (2004), this set of behaviour involves the communication of high performance expectations that will lead to the activation of self-fulfilling prophecies of followers.

Inspirational leaders are perceived by their team members to portray the sort of behaviour such as setting challenging goals as standards, making use of symbols and images to get certain ideas across, offering meaning for proposed actions, indicating why followers will succeed, remaining calm when the going gets tough, appealing to feelings, stressing why they should beat the

competition, envisioning an attractive future and stipulating how they can achieve that future (Bass, 1990).

The second set of behaviour of a transformational leader is idealised influence. This type of leaders has a tendency to place the needs of their followers above their own needs, share the risks with their followers and demonstrate that they adhere to underlying principles and values (Jung, Wu, & Chow, 2008). They serve as role models for their followers through their behaviour and they are admired, respected and trusted (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

Leaders with intellectual stimulation behaviour will enable and encourage their followers to question the status quo and the established ways of problem solving (Rowold & Heinitz, 2007). They may also encourage their followers to think innovatively and give them challenging assignments (DuBrin, 2009). The final set of behaviour of a transformational leader is individualised consideration. With this type of behaviour leaders can build a one-to-one relationship with their followers and acknowledge that they have differing needs, skills, and aspirations (Gumusluoglu & Ilsev, 2009). It also entails coaching, counselling, and giving personal attention to their followers (Jung, Wu, & Chow, 2008).

Transactional leadership takes place when a leader rewards or discipline the follower, depending on the performance of the follower (Bass & Riggio, 2006). The key factors associated with transactional leadership are contingent rewards and management by exception (Miner, 2005). Contingent rewards involves the rewarding of followers for satisfactory performance, active management by exception involves leaders concentrating on the mistakes and failures of their followers, whereas passive management by exception leaders will only attend to problems once they have occurred (Antonakis, Cianciolo, & Sternberg, 2004).

Finally, a key factor associated with non-leadership is that of laissez-faire leadership. According to Kreitner and Kinicki (2007), this type of leadership ultimately refers to "a general failure to take responsibility for leading" (p. 524). This type of leader behaviour will give team members complete freedom of action, provide them with materials, refrain from participating except to answer questions when asked, and do not make evaluative remarks (Bass, 1990). Research has

shown that under laissez-faire leadership, teams are less organised, less efficient, and less satisfying for team members (Bass, 1990).

3.3.2 Team sport and leadership

A team can be defined as a "small group with complementary skills who hold themselves mutually accountable for common purpose, goals, and approach" (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2007, p. 340). Different types of teams can be distinguished, namely management, project, advisory, service, production, and action teams (Forsyth, 2006).

An action team can be characterised by high specialisation combined with high coordination and includes medical, military, police teams, as well as sports teams (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2007). According to Hale and Collins (2002), rugby is the ultimate team sport where all fifteen players have to be focused on identical team goals: "to play with an intensive, aggressive style; to communicate effectively; and to perform high-speed decisions and skills in synchrony" (p. ix).

An advantage for sports teams is that the size, structure, and responsibilities of each member do not need to be strategically planned, because the design of the team is defined by the rules of the sport (Forsyth, 2006). However, for teams to be successful, they should have confident and effective team leaders (Daft, 1999).

According to Loughead, Hardy, and Eys (2006; as cited in Eys, Loughead, & Hardy, 2007) athlete leadership in team sports can be represented by an individual, occupying a formal or an informal role, who influences the team members in order to achieve a common goal. The team captain and coach of a team occupy the role of formal leaders (Jarvis, 1999; Loughead & Hardy, 2005) and the role of the informal leaders are occupied by team members – other than the team captain – based on their interactions with other team members (Loughead & Hardy, 2005).

Chelladurai (1984) has developed a framework to study leadership in athletics. This model views athlete satisfaction and performance as the "products of the interaction of three components of leadership" (p.63). The three components of leadership is actual leadership, preferred leadership and required leadership (LeUnes & Nation, 2002).

Actual leadership behaviour is behaviour that is engaged in, irrespective of norms or team members' preferences (LeUnes & Nation, 2002). Preferred leader behaviour refers to the team members' expectations and required behaviour refers to the conventional norms of the organisation on a more formal basis, such as organisational demands (Cox, 2007; LeUnes & Nation, 2002).

According to Chelladurai (1984) the salient outcomes of performance and satisfaction are related to the degree of congruence between the three components of leader behaviour. The following model was derived from the Multidimensional model of sport leadership (Chelladurai, 1984).

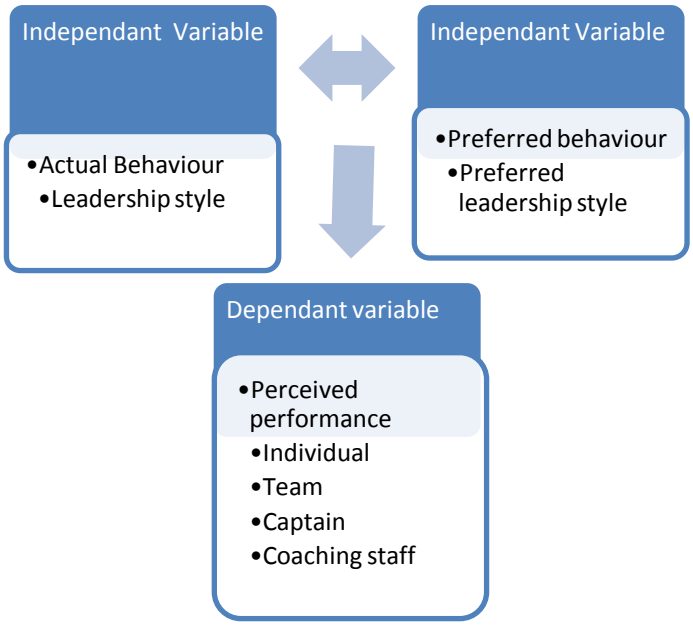

Figure 5. Leadership performance measurement model. Adapted from "Discrepancy between preferences and perceptions of leadership behaviour and satisfaction of athletes in varying sports" in the *Journal of Sport Psychology, 6,* 27-41, by P. Chelladurai, 1984, p.29.

To participate in a team sport means that one is subject to be either a winner or a loser due to the nature of competition. According to Chelladurai (1984), athletic competitions can be regarded, in general, as a zero-sum situation – there can only be one winner in any contest. When a team loses, it does not necessarily mean that they did not perform up to standard. The winning team could just have been a little better than them.

Therefore, a number of authors have proposed that an individuals' perception of relative performance (i.e. perception of performance relative to what was expected) may be a more meaningful measure of performance effectiveness (Chelladurai, 1984, p.63; as cited in Carron & Chelladurai, 1981; Frieze, Shomo, & Francis, 1979). Therefore, the dependant variable in this paper was perceived performance and not actual performance.

3.4 Method

3.4.1 Participants and procedure

The general objective of this study was to determine the influence of the team members' preferred leadership style for their team captain and their own leadership style on the perceived performance of a team. For this study "a team" refers to any team playing semi-professional rugby and team members receiving monetary rewards for playing for the particular team, thus being regarded as employees. Therefore, semi-professional rugby teams were defined as the theoretical population for this study.

The study population was university rugby teams that participate on club level. From this population a non-probability sampling method consisting out of a convenience sampling technique was used in order to choose the participants for the study population. According to Bryman and Bell (2007), a convenience sample can be simply defined as a sample that is available to the researcher by virtue of its accessibility.

Phase 1

In order to determine the content of the preferred leadership styles and own leadership styles of rugby team members, three teams were chosen to participate: the 0/19's, the 0/21's and the first team from a prominent rugby playing university in South Africa. Preferred leadership style questionnaires and own leadership style questionnaires were handed out with the onset of the season in order to determine the content of the team members' preferred leadership style and own leadership style.

Phase 2

To determine the impact of the preferred leadership style and own leadership style on the perceived performance of the team members, the first rugby team of a prominent rugby playing university in South Africa were chosen. The team chosen took part in an extremely well organised and professional university rugby competition. The competition consisted of 31 matches and was played every Monday evening for two months. This was broadcast live on television.

The preferred leadership style and own leadership style questionnaires were handed out with the onset of the season. The perceived performance questionnaires were handed out on a regular basis – prior to and after each home game – in order to determine the satisfaction with the teams' preparation/game, as well as the perceived performance of the team.

Samples for both phases were also deemed to be valid samples of the study population due to their participation in all of the important club level competitions in South Africa.

3.4.2 Measuring instruments

Phase 1 and 2

Preferred and own leadership style. The preferred leadership style and own leadership style questionnaire measured certain aspects of leadership styles that a team member would prefer from the captain and the actual leadership style of the team members. It consisted of 19 items that were answered on a Lickert-type five-point scale ranging from 1 "strongly disagree" to 5 "strongly agree". Questions asked included "Would you prefer that your captain communicate emotionally during practice?" and "Would you prefer that your captain share decisions with the team in practices?".

Phase 2

Perceived performance. Perceived performance of the individual, team, captain, and coaching staff: This questionnaire measured the level of performance that each team member experienced during each game. It consisted of four statements (yourself, your captain, the team, and the coaching staff) that were answered by means of a rating scale ranging from 0 to 10. Each team member had to rate himself, his captain, the team, and the coaching staff prior to and after each game on a scale from 0 to 10.

3.4.3 Statistical analysis

The data obtained from the above questionnaires were statistically analysed using SPSS 17.0 program.

Phase 1

To determine the content of the own leadership style and preferred leadership style questionnaire, descriptive statistics (means, standard deviations, skewness and kurtosis) were computed to analyse the data obtained from the questionnaires.

Phase 2

In order to determine the correlation between the own leadership style and preferred leadership style, and perceived performance, exploratory factor analysis was done to determine the factors underlying the leadership style and perceived performance questionnaires. Thereafter, a Pearson's product-moment (2-tailed) correlation was done to measure the strength of the relationship between the own and preferred leadership styles and perceived performance (Field, 2005). Cronbach's alpha coefficients were also computed to determine the reliability of the constructs.

3.4.4 Results

Phase 1

Table 5. Mean, standard deviation (SD), skewness, and kurtosis for preferred leadership style and own leadership style

Variables	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
Communicate emotionally: During practice	3.47	1.30	-0.77	-0.50
	4.13	0.95	-1.29	1.76
Communicate emotionally: Socially	3.11	1.22	-0.37	-0.88
	3.05	1.18	-0.09	-0.78
Communicate emotionally: During games	3.98	1.32	-1.17	0.16
	4.53	0.89	-2.39	5.86
Communicate emotionally: With coaches	3.79	1.15	-0.98	0.41
	4.13	0.94	-1.42	2.64
Communicate emotionally: With referees	3.27	1.43	-0.42	-1.16
	3.72	1.16	-0.92	0.30
Authoritative: Game plan	3.34	1.21	-0.48	-0.62
	3.27	1.30	-0.39	-0.96
Authoritative: Decisions during games	4.46	0.72	-1.94	6.32
	4.48	0.70	-1.85	6.00
Authoritative: Social activities	2.84	1.16	-0.04	-0.61
	2.82	1.10	-0.08	-0.56
Sole responsibility: Game results	2.53	1.49	0.42	-1.32
	3.28	1.43	-0.31	-1.23
Sole responsibility: Mistakes of team members	2.26	1.38	0.74	-0.81
	2.99	1.44	-0.10	-1.33

Sole responsibility: Decisions during game	3.93	1.18	-1.19	0.63
	4.33	0.97	-1.84	3.52
Sole responsibility: Misbehaviour of team members	2.66	1.44	0.21	-1.35
	3.12	1.43	-0.11	-1.29
Decision-making: Preparing for game	4.55	0.66	-2.20	8.47
	4.48	0.75	-1.93	5.37
Decision-making: Practices	4.54	0.67	-2.15	8.26
	4.54	0.65	-2.19	9.18
Decision-making: During games	4.32	1.03	-1.76	2.72
	4.40	0.97	-1.86	3.15
Inspirational	4.47	0.92	-2.12	4.48
	4.47	0.97	-2.43	5.99
Considering	4.22	0.79	-1.16	2.31
	4.29	0.95	-2.00	4.71
Charismatic	3.84	0.99	-0.80	0.69
	3.76	1.22	-0.94	0.15
Laissez-faire	2.47	1.30	0.37	-1.05
	2.58	1.49	0.35	-1.31

Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics of all the items for the preferred leadership style questionnaire and the own leadership style questionnaire. The means of almost all the variables are above 3, which indicate that most of the rugby team members prefer that type of leadership style from their team captain and would prefer that type of leadership style for themselves.

There is however, some variables, such as laissez-faire, sole responsibility: misbehaving of team members, sole responsibility: mistakes of team members, sole responsibility: game results, and

authoritative: social activities, with means smaller than 3, which indicate that most of the rugby team members would not prefer that type of leadership style from their captain or from themselves.

The kurtosis of the variables authoritative: decisions during games, decision-making: preparing for game, decision-making: practices, and inspirational, were all very high which indicate that the distributions for those variables are relatively pointy (Field, 2005).

Phase 2

Exploratory factor analysis was done and four factors were extracted: Before game performance (BGP), After game performance (AGP), Preferred leadership style (PLS), and Own leadership style (OLS). Pearson's product-moment (2-tailed) correlation was done for the four factors and the results are indicated in Table 2.

Table 6. Correlation coefficients between contents (n = 27)

Items	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
1. Before game performance	1	-	-	-
2. After game performance	0.479*$^{+}$	1	-	-
3. Preferred leadership style	-0.024	0.093	1	-
4. Own leadership style	-0.150	0.076	0.783**$^{++}$	1

* Statistically significant correlation: p <0,05

** Statistically significant correlation: p < 0.01

+Practically significant correlation: r = 0,30 (medium effect)

++Practically significant correlation: r = 0,50 (large effect)

Table 2 indicates that there is a relative strong correlation between BGP and AGP (0.479) and a very strong correlation between PLS and OLS (0.783). There is however, no correlation between the two factors of performance and that of PLS and OLS. The correlation between BGP and AGP is statistically significant at a confidence level of 95% and is practically significant with a medium effect (r = 0.30).

The correlation between PLS and OLS is statistically significant at a confidence level of 99% and is practically significant with a large effect ($r = 0.50$). The Cronbach's α for PLS is 0.83 and OLS is 0.90, which indicates that the preferred and own leadership style questionnaires are both valid and reliable.

3.5 Discussion

The general objective of this study was to determine how the preferred type of leadership style of the team captain and the own leadership styles of team members influence the perceived performance of the team.

The first phase of this study investigated the content of the preferred leadership style of the team captain and the own leadership style of team members. The results indicated that rugby team members would not prefer their team captain to take sole responsibility for game results, mistakes of team members or the misbehaviour of team members.

They would also not prefer a team captain that is authoritative during social activities and neither would they prefer a team captain without any leadership (laissez-faire). Almost all the team members would prefer a team captain with an authoritative leadership style to make decisions during the game. The results indicate that the type of leadership style that rugby team members would prefer from their captain as well as for themselves is that of shared decision-making. Team members would also prefer an inspirational and considering leadership style.

The second phase of this study investigated the correlation between the preferred leadership styles of the team captain and own leadership style of team members, as well as BGP and AGP. According to the literature, leadership styles can have an effect on the performance of teams. However, the results of this study indicated that there were no correlation between the factors of leadership styles and the factors of performance.

A limitation may be that the actual performance of the team was not taken into account with this study. The results also indicated that there is a strong correlation between the preferred leadership style of the team captain and the own leadership style of team members. This means that

rugby team members would prefer that their captain has the same type of leadership style than their own. There were also a strong correlation between BGP and AGP, which indicates that if players feel that their preparation for the game was not good, then their performance after the game will also be bad.

3.6 Conclusion

The main objectives of this study were to determine the dynamics of leadership styles and preferred leadership styles in sports teams, according to the literature; to determine the relationship between the preferred leadership style of the team captain and the own leadership style of team members; and to determine if the preferred leadership style of the team captain and the own leadership style of team members correlate with the perceived performance of rugby team members through a rugby season.

A large amount of research has been allocated to the theoretical and empirical research of team effectiveness in order to determine the antecedents, processes and emergent states that have an effect on effective team outcomes. According to the literature, leadership is an extremely important component for effective teamwork, even though little research has been done regarding the relationship between specific leader behaviours and team performance outcomes.

These leader behaviours, such as transformational, transactional, and non-leadership leader behaviour, differ in terms of the type of leadership style a leader would engage in. Different leadership styles will influence subordinates in different ways. The literature also distinguishes between different types of teams. Sports teams are part of action teams, which can be characterised by high specialisation together with high coordination.

Through the literature, it has also become apparent that an individual, in a formal or informal role, that influences the team to perform, can represent leadership in team sports. Formal leaders are represented by the team captain or the coach of a team, whereas informal leaders can be represented by any team member based on their interactions with the other team members. Therefore, the literature has shown that leadership is a very important function within sports teams and may have an adverse effect on the performance of a team.

The empirical analysis of this study has however shown that there is no correlation between leadership and performance. This may be due to some limitations such as not taking into account the actual results of games played as well as only measuring home games.

3.7 References

Antonakis, J., Cianciolo, A. T., & Sternberg, R. J. (2004). *The nature of leadership.* London: SAGE Publications.

Bass, B. M. (1990). *Handbook of leadership: theory, research and managerial applications* (3rd ed.). London: Oxford University Press.

Bass, B. M. (1997). Does the transactional-transformational leadership paradigm transcend organizational and national boundaries? *American Psychologist, 52*, 130-139.

Bass, B. M., & Riggio, R. E. (2006). *Transformational leadership* (2nd ed.). London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.

Bryman, A., & Bell, E. (2007). *Business research methods* (2nd ed.). London: Oxford University Press.

Burke, C. S., Sims, D. E., Lazzara, E. H., & Salas, E. (2007). Trust in leadership: a multi-level review and integration. *The Leadership Quarterly, 18*, 606-632.

Burke, C. S., Stagl, K. C., Klein, C., Goodwin, G. F., Salas, E., & Halpin, S. M. (2006). What type of leadership behaviours are functional in teams? a meta-analysis. *The Leadership Quaterly, 17*, 288-307.

Carron, A. V., & Chelladurai, P. (1981). The dynamics of group cohesion in sport. *Journal of Sport Psychology, 3*, 123-139.

Chelladurai, P. (1984). Discrepancy between preferences and perceptions of leadership behaviour and satisfaction of athletes in varying sports. *Journal of Sport Psychology*, 6, 27-41.

Cox, R. H. (2007). *Sport psychology* (6th ed.). London: McGraw-Hill.

Crust, L., & Lawrence, I. (2006). A review of leadership in sport: implications for football management. *Athletic Insight: The Online Journal of Sport Psychology, 8*(4), 28-48.

Daft, R. L. (1999). *Leadership: theory and practice.* New York: The Dryden Press.

Daft, R. L. (2002). *The leadership experience* (2nd ed.). London: Harcourt College Publishers.

DuBrin, A. J. (2009). *Leadership: research findings, practise and skills* (6th ed.). Boston: Cengage Learning.

Eys, M. A., Loughead, T. M., & Hardy, J. (2007). Athlete leadership dispersion and satisfaction in interactive sports teams. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise, 8,* 281-296.

Field, A. (2005). *Discovering statistics using SPSS* (2nd ed.). London: SAGE Publications.

Forsyth, D. R. (2006). *Group dynamics* (4th ed.). London: Thomson Wadsworth.

Frieze, I. H., Shomo, K. H., & Francis, W. D. (1979). *Determinants of subjective feelings of success.* Paper presented at a meeting of the LRDC conference, teacher and student perceptions of success and failure: Implications of learning. Pittsburgh, PA.

Gill, R. (2006). *Theory and practice of leadership.* London: Sage Publications, Ltd.

Gumusluoglu, L., & Ilsev, A. (2009). Transformational leadership, creativity, and organizational innovation. *Journal of Business Research, 62,* 461-473.

Hale, B. D., & Collins, D. J. (2002). *Rugby tough.* Retrieved February 26, 2009, from http://books.google.co.za/books?id=oLs5lYT3o10C&printsec=frontcover&dq=rugby&lr=#v=onepage&q=&f=false.

Jarvis, M. (1999). *Sport psychology.* London: Routledge.

Jones, G. M. (2008). *The development of a leadership styles competency framework (LSCF) associated with effective leadership in the role of the regional rugby development manager in schools in the united kingdom.* Potchefstroom: NWU. M.Com Thesis.

Jung, D., Wu, A., & Chow, C. W. (2008). Towards understanding the direct and indirect effects of CEOs' transformational leadership on firm innovation. *The Leadership Quarterly, 19,* 582-594.

Kellett, P. (1999). Organisational leadership: lessons from professional coaches. *Sport Management Review, 2,* 150-171.

Kreitner, R., & Kinicki, A. (2007). *Organizational behaviour* (7th ed.). London: McGraw-Hill/Irwin.

LeUnes, A., & Nation, J. R. (2002). *Sport psychology* (3rd ed.). New York: Thomson Learning, Inc.

Loughead, T. M., & Hardy, J. (2005). An examination of coach and peer leader behaviours in sport. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise, 6,* 303-312.

Loughead, T. M., Hardy, J., & Eys, M. A. (2006). The nature of athlete leadership. *Journal of Sport Behaviour, 29,* 142-158.

Miner, J. B. (2005). *Organizational behaviour: essential theories of motivation and leadership.* New York: M. E. Sharp, Inc.

Mollo, S. M., Stanz, K., & Groenewald, T. (2005). Leadership competencies in a manufacturing environment. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management, 3*(1), 34-42.

Nagelkerk, J. (2005). *Leadership and nursing care management* (3rd ed.). Boston: Elsevier Health Sciences.

Thompson, L. L. (2008). *Making the team: a guide for managers* (3rd ed.). New Jersey: Pearson Education Inc.

Rowold, J., & Heinitz, K. (2007). Transformational and charismatic leadership: assessing the convergent, divergent and criterion validity of the MLQ and the CKS. *The Leadership Quarterly, 18,* 121-133.

Sosik, J. J., Godshalk, V. M., & Yammarino, F. J. (2004). Transformational leadership, learning goal orientation, and expectations for career success in mentor-protégé relationships: a multiple levels of analysis perspective. *The Leadership Quarterly, 15,* 241-261.

Vigoda-Gadot, E. (2007). Leadership style, organizational politics, and employees' performance: an empirical examination of two competing models. *Personnel Review, 36*(5), 661-683.

4 Chapter 4: Conclusion, limitations and recommendations.

The present paper investigated whether the psychological contract and leadership styles influence the perceived performance of a semi-professional rugby team. More specifically, on the one hand, this paper focused on the content of the psychological contract between rugby team members and their institute and the correlation between the psychological contract and the perceived performance of the team members. On the other hand, this paper focused on the content of the preferred leadership styles of the team captain and the own leadership styles of team members, and the correlation between these leadership styles and the perceived performance of the team members.

The literature defines the psychological contract as the mutual expectations and obligations that exist between two parties. According to Rousseau and Schalk (2000) these expectations and obligations develop from the promises made as the employment agreement starts and continue, from the hiring procedure to the day-to-day interactions between these parties. This is however, a subjective experience and the promises and obligations are solely based on the perception of the individual.

Therefore, individuals may hold different beliefs regarding what they owe each other in an exchange agreement. This may lead to psychological contract breach or violation. When an individual experience that the other party to the exchange agreement failed to meet an expectation or promise of the psychological contract, this may be seen as psychological contract breach. Violation can be described as the emotional response to the experience of psychological contract breach.

The relationship between a rugby team member and a rugby institute also consist of promises and obligations between the parties. A rugby team member may for instance feel that if he delivers on his promise to the institute to give 100% during practices and games, he should be selected for the first team. If the institute does not deliver, the player will experience psychological contract breach and violation. This experience may result in the rugby member withholding his contributions that will have a negative effect on his performance and ultimately have a negative effect on the teams' performance (Restubog, Bordia, & Tang, 2006).

Another aspect that may have an impact on the success and performance of a semi-professional rugby team, is that of leadership. More specifically this paper investigated leadership styles.

According to Jones (2008) leadership styles are a key concept associated with leadership. The last two decades have seen an extensive amount of research in the field of leadership and therefore, quite a few different types of leadership styles including inspirational motivation, idealised influence, intellectual stimulation, individualised consideration, contingent reward, active management-by-exception, passive management-by-exception, and laissez-faire, can be distinguished. Leadership in team sports can be represented by a formal role, for example the captain and the coach, or by an informal role, for example any other team member.

According to the literature, an individuals' perception of relative performance (i.e. perception of performance relative to what was expected) might be a more meaningful measure of performance.

4.1 Findings

In chapter two, the influence of the psychological contract on the perceived performance of the rugby team members was determined. The results indicated that the rugby team members experienced that most of the promises from the rugby institute were made to them and that they made most of the promises to the rugby institute. Housing, opportunities for development as a player, accommodation of team and academic demands, accommodation by university to match team and academic demands, team captain regulating emotional behaviour, accepting selectors' decisions and reaching expectations of team supporters, were promises and obligations that rugby team members did not experienced as promised.

The results further extracted two factors, Institute obligations (IO) and Player obligations (PO) and the means of the two factors are respectively 4.38 and 4.56. This indicated that most of the players experienced that the promises by the institute were made to them and were kept largely or fully kept. Promises made to the Institution by the players were also made and were kept largely of fully kept.

The results also indicated two factors for Psychological contract, namely IO and PO. These two factors showed a strong correlation. Furthermore, the results indicated two factors for perceived performance, Before game performance (BGP) and After game performance (AGP). These two factors also showed a strong correlation, which indicated that if players perceived their performance before the game to be good, they would also perceive their performance after the game as good. There was however, no correlation between the psychological contract and the perceived performance of rugby team members.

In chapter three, the influence of the team members' preferred leadership style for their team captain and their own leadership style on the perceived performance of the team, was determined. The results indicated that almost all the variables had means above three, which indicated that most rugby team members would prefer that type of leadership style for their team captain and for themselves. Liassez-faire, sole responsibility: misbehaving of team members, sole responsibility: mistakes of team members, sole responsibility: game results and autoritative: social activities are leadership styles that rugby team members would not prefer for their team captain or themselves.

The results also indicated that there are two factors for leadership, preferred leadership style of team captain and own leadership style of rugby team member. There was a strong correlation between these two factors, which indicates that a rugby team member would prefer that the team captain has the same type of leadership that he prefers for himself.

Furthermore, the results indicated two factors for perceived performance, BGP and AGP. There was again a strong correlation between these two factors, which indicated that if players perceived that their performance before the game was good, then they would perceive their performance after the game also as good. There was however, no correlation between the factors for leadership styles and the factors for perceived performance.

4.2 Limitations

The general objective of this paper was to determine how the psychological contract, the type of leadership style of the team captain and the own leadership styles of team members influence the perceived performance of the team. No correlation could be found between the

psychological contract and perceived performance, and the type of leadership style of the team captain and the own leadership styles of team members and perceived performance. This can be due to a few limitations such as the fact that the actual results of games were not taken into consideration, and questionnaires were also only handed out during home games.

The away games were therefore not taken into consideration, which may have had an influence on the perceived performance. Another limitation of this paper was that it only had male participants, and only rugby team members from one university were used as participants. Therefore, the results of this paper can only be applied to male rugby team members.

A further limitation of this paper is that only rugby team members were used. Other types of teams may have had other results. Soccer teams, for example, may have a different culture amongst players and therefore may experience certain promises or obligations more important, or not so important, than those of rugby team members.

Another limitation for this paper was that the questionnaires were not anonymous. Due to the longitudinal nature of this study, team members had to complete the questionnaires with their names and surnames. This may have had an influence on how honestly the rugby team members completed the questionnaires.

4.3 Theoretical and practical implications and recommendations

As indicated in Chapter 1, research in the psychological contract has received much attention since 1995. However, as DeCampos (1994) also indicated, little research has been done to determine the influence of the psychological contract on sports teams. One of the objectives of this paper was to determine the dynamics of the psychological contract in sports teams. It was found that there was a great amount of research on the psychological contract and a great amount of research were also conducted for sports, teams, and performance. However, very little research linked the psychological contract and sport teams. Therefore, the theoretical implication for this paper is that it contributes to the gap in the literature regarding the psychological contract in sport teams.

The practical implications for this paper are important, as it is very useful to coaches and rugby team members. The results from the content of the psychological contract questionnaire can provide deeper insight about what each party would expect from each other, which may prevent conflict and problems over the long term.

The results from the leadership style questionnaires can also be very useful: Rugby team members would prefer that their team captain would exert the same type of leadership style that they have. This can be useful when choosing the team captain.

From the aforementioned, it is therefore recommended that future research should be conducted regarding the psychological contract and sports teams in order to fill the gap in the literature between psychological contract and the performance of sports teams. It is also recommended that similar future studies would include coaches and rugby administrators in the study, as this would deliver valuable information.

4.4 References

De Campos, P. A. (1994). The relationship between coaches and athletes: The strength of the psychological contract in sports. *Doctoral dissertation.* United States International University, San Diego.

Jones, G. M. (2008). *The development of a leadership styles competency framework (LSCF) associated with effective leadership in the role of the regional rugby development manager in schools in the united kingdom.* Potchefstroom: NWU. M.Com Thesis.

Restubog, S. L., Bordia, P., & Tang, R. (2006). Effects of psychological contract breach on performance of IT employees: The mediating role of affective commitment. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 79*(2), 299-306.

Rousseau, D. M., & Schalk, R. (2000). *Psychological contracts in employment: Cross-national perspectives.* London: Sage Publications, Inc.

5 References

Anderson, N., & Schalk, R. (1998). The psychological contract in retrospect and prospect. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 19*, 637-647.

Antonakis, J., Cianciolo, A. T., & Sternberg, R. J. (2004). *The nature of leadership.* London: SAGE Publications.

Argyris, J. S. (1960). *Understanding organizational behaviour.* London: Tavistock Publications.

Armstrong, M. (2006). *A handbook of human resource management practice* (10th ed.). London: Kogan Page.

Ball, D. W. (1975). A note on method in the sociological study of sport. In D.W. Ball and J.W. Loy, *Sport and social order: Contribution to the sociology of sport.*

Basic Conditions of Employment Act number 75. (1997). Pretoria, South Africa: Government Printer.

Bass, B. M. (1990). *Handbook of leadership: Theory, research and managerial applications* (3rd ed.). New York: The free press.

Bass, B. M. (1997). Does the transactional-transformational leadership paradigm transcend organizational and national boundaries? *American Psychologist, 52*, 130-139.

Bass, B. M., & Riggio, R. E. (2006). *Transformational leadership* (2nd ed.). London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.

Bryman, A., & Bell, E. (2007). *Business research methods* (2nd ed.). London: Oxford University Press.

Burke, C. S., Sims, D. E., Lazzara, E. H., & Salas, E. (2007). Trust in leadership: A multi-level review and integration. *The Leadership Quarterly, 18*, 606-632.

Burke, C. S., Stagl, K. C., Klein, C., Goodwin, G. F., Salas, E., & Halpin, S. M. (2006). What type of leadership behaviours are functional in teams? A meta-analysis. *The Leadership Quaterly, 17*, 288-307.

Carron, A. V., & Chelladurai, P. (1981). The dynamics of group cohesion in sport. *Journal of Sport Psychology, 3,* 123-139.

Chelladurai, P. (1984). Discrepancy between preferences and perceptions of leadership behaviour and satisfaction of athletes in varying sports. *Journal of Sport Psychology,* 6, 27-41.

Chelladurai, P., & Saleh, S. (1980). Dimensions of leader behaviour in sports: Development of a leadership scale. *Journal of Sport Psychology,* 2, 24-35.

Cox, R. H. (2007). *Sport Psychology* (6th ed.). London: McGraw-Hill.

Cozby, P. C. (2009). *Methods in behavioural research* (10th ed.). London: McGraw-Hill.

Crust, L., & Lawrence, I. (2006). A review of leadership in sport: Implications for football management. *Athletic Insight: The Online Journal of Sport Psychology, 8*(4), 28-48.

Daft, R. L. (1999). *Leadership: Theory and practice.* New York: The Dryden Press.

Daft, R. L. (2002). *The leadership experience* (2nd ed.). London: Harcourt College Publishers.

De Campos, P. A. (1994). The relationship between coaches and athletes: The strength of the psychological contract in sports. *Doctoral dissertation.* United States International University, San Diego.

Diener, E., & Crandall, R. (1978). *Ethics in social and behavioural research.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Doyle, M. E., & Smith, M. K. (2001). *Classical leadership.* Retrieved April 12, 2008, from http://www.infed.org/leadership/traditional_leadership.htm

Dubrin, A. J. (2007). *Leadership: Research findings, practice, and skills* (5th ed.). Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.

DuBrin, A. J. (2009). *Leadership: Research findings, practise and skills* (6th ed.). Boston: Cengage Learning.

Dulac, T., Coyle-Shapiro, J. A-M., Henderson, D., & Wayne, S. J. (2008). Not all responses to breach are the same: The interconnection of social exchange and psychological contract processes in organizations. *Academy of Management Journal, 31*(6), 1079-1098.

Eys, M. A., Loughead, T. M., & Hardy, J. (2007). Athlete leadership dispersion and satisfaction in interactive sport teams. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise, 8,* 281-296.

Field, A. (2005). *Discovering statistics using SPSS* (2nd ed.). London: SAGE Publications.

Flood, P. C., Turner, T., Ramamoorthy, N., & Pearson, J. (2005). Causes and consequences of psychological contracts among knowledge workers in the high technology and financial services industry. *International Journal of Human Resource Management,* 12(7), 1152-1165. Retrieved March 14, 2009, from http://www.puk.ac.za:2506/ehost/detail?vid=10&hid=8&sid=a283d0dc-3645-4a3d-b8da-a2e33861cf88%40sessionmgr2&bdata=JmxvZ2lucGFnZT1Mb2dpbi5hc3Amc2l0ZT1laG9zdC1saXZl#db=buh&AN=5322926

Forsyth, D. R. (2006). *Group dynamics* (4th ed.). London: Thomson Learning.

French, W. L., Kast, F. E., & Rosenzweig, J. E. (1985). *Understanding human behaviour in organizations.* New York: Harper & Row.

Frieze, I. H., Shomo, K. H., & Francis, W. D. (1979). *Determinants of subjective feelings of success.* Paper presented at a meeting of the LRDC conference, teacher and student perceptions of success and failure: Implications of learning. Pittsburgh, PA.

Gakovic, A., & Tetrick, L. E. (2003). Psychological contract breach as a source of strain for employees. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 18*(2), 235-246.

Gill, R. (2006). *Theory and practice of leadership.* London: Sage Publications, Ltd.

Graham, J. W. (1987). The essence of leadership: Fostering follower autonomy, not automatic followership. In J.G. Hunt (Ed.), *Emerging leadership vistas.* New York: Pergamon.

Guest, D. E. (2004). The psychology of the employment relationship: An analysis based on the psychological contract. *Applied Psychology: An International Review, 53*(4), 541-555.

Guest, D., & Conway, N. (2004). *Employee well-being and the psychological contract.* Retrieved May 22, 2009, form http://images.google.co.za/imgres?imgurl=http://www.cipd.co.uk/.

Gumusluoglu, L., & Ilsev, A. (2009). Transformational leadership, creativity, and organizational innovation. *Journal of Business Research, 62,* 461-473.

Hale, B. D., & Collins, D. J. (2002). *Rugby tough.* Retrieved February 26, 2009, from http://books.google.co.za/books?id=oLs5lYT3o10C&printsec=frontcover&dq=rugby&lr=#v=onepage&q=&f=false.

Harmse, J. J. (2008). *ELVs stealing rugby's soul.* Retrieved February 6, 2009, from http://www.news24.com/News24/Sport_columnists/JJ_Harmse/0,,2-2283-2288_2351195,00.html

Hersey, P., & Blanchard, K. M. (1988). *Management of organisational behaviour: Utilising human resources* (5th ed.). Retrieved March 15, 2009, from http://books.google.co.za/books?id=lS5HAAAAMAAJ&q=hersey+blanchard&dq=hersey+blanchard&lr=&pgis=1

Hess, N., & Jepsen, D. M. (2008). The psychological contract: Investigation of generational and career stage differences. *Academy of Management Proceedings,* 6, 1-6.

Holbeche, L. (2006). *Understanding change: Theory, implementation and success.* Boston: Butterworth-Heinemann.

Hughes, R. L., Ginnett, R. C., & Curphy, G. J. (2006). *Leadership: Enhancing the lessons of experience* (5th ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.

Jarvis, M. (1999). *Sport Psychology*. London: Routledge.

Jones, G. M. (2008). *The development of a leadership styles competency framework (LSCF) associated with effective leadership in the role of the regional rugby development manager in schools in the united kingdom.* Potchefstroom: NWU. M.Com Thesis.

Jung, D., Wu, A., & Chow, C. W. (2008). Towards understanding the direct and indirect effects of CEOs' transformational leadership on firm innovation. *The Leadership Quarterly, 19,* 582-594.

Kellett, P. (1999). Organisational leadership: Lessons from professional coaches. *Sport Management Review, 2,* 150-171.

Kramer, R. M. (2006). *Organizational trust: A reader.* London: Oxford University Press.

Kreitner, R., & Kinicki, A. (2007). *Organizational behaviour* (7th ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill/Irwin.

Labour Relations Act number 66. (1995). Pretoria, South Africa: Government Printer.

Lanning, W. (1979). Coach and athlete personality interaction: A critical variable in athletic success. *Journal of Sport Psychology, 1,* 262-267.

Larwood, L., Wright, T. A., Desrochers, S., & Dahir, V. (1998). Extending latent role and psychological contract theories to predict intent to turnover and politics in business organizations. *Group and Organization Management,* 23(2), 100-123. Retrieved March 14, 2009, from http://www.puk.ac.za:2506/ehost/detail?vid=11&hid=8&sid=a283d0dc-3645-4a3d-b8da-a2e33861cf88%40sessionmgr2&bdata=JmxvZ2lucGFnZT1Mb2dpbi5hc3Amc2l0ZT1laG9zdC1saXZl#db=buh&AN=752083

Lester, S. W., Kickul, J. R., Bergmann, T. J., & De Meuse, K. P. (2002). The effects of organizational resizing on the nature of the psychological contract and employee perceptions of contract fulfilment. In K. P. De Meuse & M. L. Marks (Eds.), *Resizing the organization: Managing layoffs, divestitures, and closings: Maximizing gain while minimizing pain* (78-107). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

LeUnes, A., & Nation, J. R. (2002). *Sport psychology* (3rd ed.). New York: Thomson Learning, Inc.

Levinson, H., Price, C. R., Munden, K. J., Mandl, H. J., & Solley, C. M. (1962). *Men, management and mental health.* Cambridge: Harvard University Press.

Loughead, T. M., & Hardy, J. (2005). An examination of coach and peer leader behaviours in sport. *Psychology of Sport and Exercise,* 6, 303-312.

Loughead, T. M., Hardy, J., & Eys, M. A. (2006). The nature of athlete leadership. *Journal of Sport Behavior, 29,* 142-158.

Martens, R. (1980). The uniqueness of young athletes: Psychological considerations. *American Journal of Sports Medicine, 5,* 382-385.

McMillan, J. (2006). Rugby: Strategy and structure. In A. Wladimir & S. Szymanski, *Handbook on the economics of sport* (565-572).

Mellalieu, S. (2008). Science and rugby union. *Journal of Sports Sciences, 26*(8), 791-794.

Miner, J. B. (2005). *Organizational behaviour: Essential theories of motivation and leadership.* New York: M. E. Sharp, Inc.

Mollo, S. M., Stanz, K., & Groenewald, T. (2005). Leadership competencies in a manufacturing environment. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management, 3*(1), 34-42.

Morrison, E. W., & Robinson, S. L. (1997). When employees feel betrayed: A model of how psychological contract violation develops. *Academy of Management Review,* 22(1), 226-256. Retrieved March 14, 2009, from http://www.puk.ac.za:2506/ehost/detail?vid=17&hid=8&sid=a283d0dc-3645-4a3d-b8da-a2e33861cf88%40sessionmgr2&bdata=JmxvZ2lucGFnZT1Mb2dpbi5hc3Amc2l0ZT1laG9zdC1saXZl#db=buh&AN=9707180265

Nagelkerk, J. (2005). *Leadership and nursing care management* (3rd ed.). Boston: Elsevier Health Sciences.

Nauright, J. (1998). *Sport, cultures and identities in South Africa.* Retrieved February 6, 2009, from http://books.google.co.za/books?id=fY9slrDW8_QC&printsec=frontcover

Patricios, J. (2006). Schools rugby – have we reached the precipice? Retrieved March 26, 2009, from http://www.superschools.co.za/sporttalk.asp?id=4956&des=sportstalk

Paul, G. (2009). Once were warriors. *NZ Rugby World, 120,* 26-31.

Robinson, L. (2008). The business of sport. In B. Houlihan, *Sport and society: A student introduction* (307-328). London: Sage.

Robinson, S. L. (1996). Trust and breach of the psychological contract. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 41,* 574-599.

Robinson, S. L., & Brown, G. (2004). Psychological contract breach and violation in organizations. In R. W. Griffin & A. O'Leary-Kelly (Eds.), *The dark side of organizational behaviour* (309-334). New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc.

Robinson, S. L., & Morrison, E. W. (2000). The development of psychological contract breach and violation: a longitudinal study. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour, 21,* 525-546.

Robinson, S. L., & Rousseau, D. M. (1994). Violating the psychological contract: not the expectation but the norm. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour, 15,* 245-259.

Robinson, S. L., Kraatz, M. S., & Rousseau, D. M. (1994). Changing obligations and the psychological contract: A longitudinal study. *Academy of Management Journal, 37,* 137-152.

Rousseau, D. M. (1995). *Psychological contracts in organizations: Understanding written and unwritten agreements.* London: Sage Publications, Inc.

Rousseau, D. M., & Schalk, R. (2000). *Psychological contracts in employment: Cross-national perspectives.* London: Sage Publications, Inc.

Rowold, J., & Heinitz, K. (2007). Transformational and charismatic leadership: assessing the convergent, divergent and criterion validity of the MLQ and the CKS. *The Leadership Quarterly, 18,* 121-133.

Schalk, R., & Roe, R. E. (2007). Towards a dynamic model of the psychological contract. *Journal for the Theory of Social Behaviour,* 37(2), 167 – 178.

Smith, A. C. T., & Stewart, B. (2010). The special futures of sport: A critical revisit. *Sport Management Review, 13,* 1-13.

Sosik, J. J., Godshalk, V. M., & Yammarino, F. J. (2004). Transformational leadership, learning goal orientation, and expectations for career success in mentor-protégé relationships: a multiple levels of analysis perspective. *The Leadership Quarterly, 15,* 241-261.

Sparrow, P., & Cooper, C. L. (2003). *The employment relationship: Key challenges for HR.* London: Butterworth-Heinemann.

Spiers, D. (2008). DHS and Falcons merge. Retrieved March 27, 2009, from http://www.kznrugby.co.za/feature06u.html

Stead, G. D. (2001). *Planning, designing and reporting research.* Cape Town: Pearson South Africa.

Struwig, F. W., & Stead, G. B. (2001). *Planning, reporting and designing research.* Pretoria: Pearson.

Suazo, M. M., Martinez, P. G., & Sandoval, R. (2009). Creating psychological and legal contracts through human resource practices: A signalling theory perspective. *Human Resource Management Review, 19*(2009), 154-166.

Sykes, A. O. (1993). *An introduction to regression analysis.* Retrieved May 4, 2009, from http://www.law.uchicago.edu/Lawecon/WkngPprs_01-25/20.Sykes.Regression.pdf

Thomas, G. (2006). Rugby's evolution has its challenges. *NZ Rugby World, 93,* 28-29.

Thompson, L. L. (2008). *Making the team: A guide for managers* (3rd ed.). New Jersey: Pearson Education, Inc.

University of Pretoria. (2008). *Tuks rugby academy: Vision.* Retrieved February 13, 2009, from http://web.up.ac.za/default.asp?ipkCategoryID=6283&subid=6283&ipklookid=1

Van Reenen, R. (2008). *Career development and adult learning for professional individual – An educational and management perspective.* Retrieved February 6, 2009, from http://www.rossacademy.com/

Vigoda-Gadot, E. (2007). Leadership style, organizational politics, and employees' performance: an empirical examination of two competing models. *Personnel Review, 36*(5), 661-683.

Waterson, G. (2002). Professionalism. Message posted to http://www.rugbyforum.co.za/Week7.htm