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The relationship among coach's leadership style, team culture, and performance in university soccer teams in Korea

Kang-Won You

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**THE RELATIONSHIP AMONG COACH'S LEADERSHIP
STYLE, TEAM CULTURE, AND PERFORMANCE IN
UNIVERSITY SOCCER TEAMS IN KOREA**

by

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DISSERTATION

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to analyze the relationship among coach's leadership style, team culture, and performance in university soccer teams in Korea. First, this study focused on leadership behaviors of a coach. Preferred and actual leadership behaviors were investigated. Second, this study focused on the team culture. Cultural functions of the teams in U-league were investigated. Third, leadership behaviors and team culture were investigated in relation to team performance.

The population of this study was all the soccer players of university teams which were registered to KFA (Korean Football Association) and participated in U-league. The instruments used were Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ, Bass & Avolio, 1995) and Organizational Culture Assessment Questionnaire (OCAQ, Sashkin, 2001).

Using cluster random sampling, 316 players from 4 high performing teams and 4 low performing teams participated in the study.

The results of the study showed four major findings. First, as players gained more experience, they tended to prefer transformative leadership behaviors more than transactional leadership behaviors. Second, leadership behaviors of a coach in high performing teams were more transformational and transactional than low performing teams, therefore both transformational and transactional leadership behaviors should be complimentary with each other. Third, both transactional and transformational leadership behaviors were strong in building cultural functions in university soccer teams, so leaders should try to enhance their transformative leadership behaviors along with transactional leadership behaviors to establish effective cultural functions of their teams. Fourth, apparent differences existed in cultural functions between high performing and low performing teams, therefore when a team goes through any problem, a leader has to be sensitive not only to performance itself but also to cultural functions.

DEDICATION

I want to thank my wife, Hyojin Lee, who has walked with me through many roads and through to the end of this one. Thank you, Hyojin, for your patience and sacrifice. Seung-joo and Hyunho, now I can play with you more. I love you with all my heart.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

List of Figures.....	x
List of Tables.....	x
 Chapter I. Introduction.....	 1
Transactional vs. Transformational Leadership.....	4
Organizational Culture.....	5
Statement of the Problem.....	7
Purpose of the Study.....	8
Research Questions.....	8
Delimitations of the Study.....	9
Limitations of the Study.....	10
Assumptions of the Study.....	10
Definition of Terms.....	11
Significance of the Study.....	13
 Chapter II. Review of Literature.....	 16
Leadership.....	16
Definition of Leadership.....	16
The Importance of Leadership in the Sport Organization.....	18
Leadership Theories.....	19
Trait Approach.....	20
Behavioral Approach.....	22
Situational/Contingency Approach.....	24
The path-goal theory of leadership.....	25
Situational leadership theory by Hersey and Blanchard.....	26
LPC approach by Fiedler.....	26
Charismatic Leadership.....	27

House's theory of charismatic leadership.....	28
Conger and Kanungo's theory of charismatic leadership.....	29
Transactional vs. Transformational Leadership.....	29
Transactional Leadership.....	30
Negative Effects of Transactional Leadership.....	32
Transformational Leadership.....	35
Measurement of Transformational Leadership.....	36
Morality in Transactional and Transformational Leadership.....	37
Relationship between Transactional and Transformational Leadership...	39
Full Range Leadership Model.....	44
Organizational Culture.....	45
Concept of Organizational Culture.....	45
Elements of Organizational Culture.....	49
Effect of Culture.....	54
Assessing Organizational Culture.....	57
Leadership and Organizational Culture.....	59
Managing Organization's Culture.....	61
Studies about Leadership and Organization Culture.....	62
The Context: University Soccer in Korea.....	66
Chapter III. Methodology.....	68
The Setting.....	68
Population and Sample.....	69
Instrumentation.....	71
Instrument Purification.....	71
Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ, 2nd edition).....	73
Organizational Culture Assessment Questionnaire (OCAQ).....	75
Team Record.....	76
Demographic Information Questionnaire.....	76

Data Collection.....	76
Data Analysis.....	78
Chapter IV. Results.....	81
Description of Subjects.....	82
Exploratory Factor Analyses and the Reliability of the Survey Instruments.....	83
Research Question 1.....	89
Research Question 2.....	94
Research Question 3.....	96
Research Question 4.....	98
Chapter V. Discussion and Recommendations.....	100
Discussion.....	101
Research Question 1.....	101
Research Question 2.....	104
Research Question 3.....	105
Research Question 4.....	108
Implication.....	110
Recommendations for Future Research.....	113
REFERENCES.....	115
APPENDICES.....	130
Appendix A: Participant Cover Letter.....	130
Appendix B: Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire.....	134
Appendix C: Organizational Culture Assessment Questionnaire.....	139
Appendix D: Demographic Information Questionnaire.....	142
Appendix E: Institutional Review Board Approval.....	145

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1. Contingent Reinforcement and Follower Effort.....	34
Figure 2. Leadership Processes.....	41
Figure 3. Personal Antecedents of Transactional and Transformational Leadership.....	43
Figure 4. Full Range Leadership Model.....	45
Figure 5. Seven Dimensions of Organizational Culture	53
Figure 6. How Organizational Culture Impacts Performance and Satisfaction.....	55
Figure 7. Difference in High Performing Teams and Low Performing Teams.....	69

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1. The Definitions of Leadership.....	17
Table 2. Major Leadership Theories.....	20
Table 3. Characteristics of Transformational and Transactional Leaders.....	30
Table 4. Moral Elements of Transformational and Transactional Leadership.....	38
Table 5. The Definitions of Organizational Culture.....	46
Table 6. Contrasting Organizational Culture and Organizational Climate Research Perspectives.....	48
Table 7. Areas of Convergence in the Culture and Climate Literature.....	49
Table 8. Adaptive versus Nonadaptive Organizational Culture.....	57
Table 9. University Soccer Teams in U-League.....	67
Table 10. Descriptive Statistics for Socio-Demographic Variables (N=316).....	83
Table 11. Exploratory Factor Analysis of OCAQ.....	85
Table 12. Exploratory Factor Analysis of MLQ for Preferred Leadership Behaviors.....	87
Table 13. Exploratory Factor Analysis of MLQ for Actual Leadership Behaviors.....	88
Table 14. Leadership Behaviors according to Grade.....	91

Table 15. Leadership Behaviors according to Position.....	92
Table 16. Leadership Behaviors according to Years of Experience.....	93
Table 17. Differences in Actual Leadership Behaviors between High and Low Performance Teams.....	94
Table 18. Differences in Preferred Leadership Behaviors between High and Low Performance Teams.....	95
Table 19. Influence of the Transactional Leadership Behaviors on Team Culture.....	97
Table 20. Influence of the Transformational Leadership Behaviors on Team Culture....	98
Table 21. Differences in Cultural Functions between High and Low Performance Teams.....	99

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The sport industry is growing fast and becoming more and more complex. The soccer industry is no exception. The 2010 World Cup Final between Spain and the Netherlands drew a total of 24.3 million U.S. viewers, making it the most watched soccer game in U.S. television history (Gorman, 2010). Adidas has extended its sponsorship agreement with FIFA for the 2010 and 2014 World Cup finals worth \$351 million (Shank, 2009). The World Cup information network handled ticketing for 2.5 million spectators, accreditation of 50,000 staff, volunteers and players, and the information and transportation needs of 10,000 journalists (Howard & Crompton, 2005, p. 461). They also stated that the World Cup website received 20 million internet hits a day.

The Korean soccer industry has developed incredibly in many respects since the successful 2002 World Cup. Korea spent a total of \$2.36 billion in order to host the 2002 FIFA World Cup by investing in World Cup-related projects such as stadium construction, the Korean local organizing committee's operating costs, and consumption expenditure of foreign tourists (Jang, 2004). The economic impact on production amounted to approximately \$8 billion: \$3.7 billion for value added and 245,338 new jobs during the period from 1998 to 2002. In addition to that, the GDP (\$9 billion) was increased by 2.2% (Parr, 2002).

As the popularity of soccer grows, interests in soccer become detailed. Fans have come to be concerned about not only what is seen superficially but also what works behind the games such as personal interest stories about soccer players, game style, game strategies, coaches, etc. Since Guus Hiddink, the head coach of national team in 2002

World Cup, gained huge popularity nationwide, interest in leadership and team culture fostered by the leader drew increased attention. Leaders can help shape and maintain the desired or ideal organizational culture according to Wallace and Weese (1995), and organization culture is one of the most important factors that may bring success to the team.

In the soccer industry in Korea, the question of effective coaching leadership and organizational culture has been a subject of discussion for many sport administrators, especially after the 2002 Korea & Japan World Cup. Before this, the Korean National Team's record in World Cup games was 0-10-4 without a win for 48 years. Guus Hiddink coached the team to its first win in the Korean World Cup soccer history. With extraordinary leadership and by using scientific and systematic training techniques and insight about the team culture, the national team's accomplishment has placed Korean soccer among the best in the world.

Previously, Korean soccer fans' major interest was who are the competent players on the team and which region of the country the team is based. With the appearance of Guus Hiddink, soccer fans came to consider the role of a coach to the soccer game and realize the entertaining factors that a coach can make. In other words, the concept of 'leadership' manifested itself in Korean soccer fans' perception. So, in order to frame the concept of leadership for this study, it is important to further define and explain the term and its applications.

Yukl (1989) emphasized the concept of leadership mentioning that "the study of leadership has been an important and central part of the literature of management and organization behavior for several decades" (p. 251). Some researchers argued that

leadership has an identifiable set of skills and practices that is available to all people (Kouzes & Posner, 2007). They explained leadership as a relationship between those who want to lead and those who decide to follow. Yukl and Van Fleet (1992) provided a more elaborate definition describing leadership as a process of influencing the task objectives and strategies of a group or organization, influencing group maintenance and identification, and influencing the culture of organizations. Leadership can also be defined in terms of the focus for group process, personality and its effects, a behavior or act, a form of persuasion, an emerging effect of interaction, a differentiated role, and the initiation of structure (Bass, 1990).

Burns (1978) and Bass (1985) largely divided leadership into transactional and transformational leadership. Burns (1978) mentioned transactional and transformational leadership as being ends of a continuum but Bass (1985) saw them as separate in that a leader can be both transactional and transformational. Burns (1978) explained that transactional leadership involves the leader in some form of transaction such as rewards like more pay, recognition, promotion, own self-interests and efficient results with subordinates. In contrast, Bass and Avolio (1990) mentioned that transformational leaders increase their subordinates' confidence and enhance awareness of selected goals and how they may be obtained. They also inspire followers to look their team interests more than personal interests and seek to satisfy such higher-level needs as self-actualization.

More specifically in sport, Chelladurai and Riemer (1998) mentioned that leadership research in sport has been sparse and sporadic. In fact, the majority of leadership research in sport has focused on coaches because they are typically the one responsible for making final decisions regarding significant team matters. In 1994, Weese

(1994) recognized that leadership had become the most popular subject in the sport/fitness industries. Weese (1994) found out there were about 7,500 citations on leadership in Bass and Stogdill's Handbook of Leadership (1990). The importance of effective leadership has been cited by athletes and coaches as a vital component to achievement and athlete satisfaction (Chelladurai & Riemer, 1998). They argued that, up to that point, most sport leadership research focused on coaching effectiveness by identifying their personality traits, behavioral attributes, and situational determinants. Yukl, 1989, pointed out that, the focus of most leadership research has been on transactional and transformational leadership.

Transactional vs. Transformational Leadership

The study of leadership has been evolving through several phases. It began with the trait approach in the 1930s, followed by behavioral approach in the 1950s, and continued with the situational/contingency approach in the 1970s (Bass, 2008). Transactional and transformational leadership theories have drawn attention most recently. The two theories are regarded as “new leadership” perspective which is described as affecting “followers in ways that are quantitatively greater and qualitatively different than the effects specified in past theories” (Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993, p. 1). There are some differences between the two theories.

Burns (1978) said transactional leadership is based on a leader-subordinate exchange relationship where the subordinate is rewarded in return for compliance with the leader's expectations. The problem with this leadership style is that even though there exists relationships between leader and followers, it does not unite the “leaders and

followers together in a mutual and continuing pursuit of a higher purpose” (p. 20) which could be the reason why the achievement of the national representative team had not been very successful before Hiddink. They were regarded more as followers or parts which prohibits the motive of the team members to do better.

Transformational leadership is defined as “the process of influencing major changes in attitudes and assumptions of organizational members and building commitment for the organizations’ mission and objectives” (Yukl, 1989, p. 204).

Different from transactional leaders, transformational leaders appeal to higher ideals, which make followers feel included and supported. Thus, followers are expected to perform beyond expectations and maximize their performance for the development of the organization (Bass, 1985). In Chapter II transactional and transformational leadership theories are explained in detail.

Organizational Culture

Together with leadership, organizational culture has also gained momentum in the organizational behavior research (Wallace & Weese, 1995). As mentioned previously, Guus Hiddink is pointed out as one of the best coaches in Korean soccer history with the great record he established. However, the great record is not the only reason why Hiddink gained nation-wide popularity. The organizational culture he implanted in the Korean soccer environment was regarded as sensational, although there was some skepticism in the beginning. Getting out of the typical transactional leadership style of Korean coaches, Hiddink created an environment where players came to create an atmosphere where they could draw on their best potential. The change in organizational culture resulted in

dramatic difference. So, given the positive effects of a change in culture, it is also important to further describe organizational culture relative to the present study.

Organizational culture is defined as the deep rooted beliefs, values, and assumptions widely shared by organizational members that shape the identity and behavioral norms for the group (Schein, 2004). Schein (2004) mentioned that leadership and organizational culture are purported to be tightly joined concepts. He continually explained that leaders must have a deep understanding to communicate and create new visions and inspire followers' commitment to the vision. However, Schein (2004) also showed that determining the differences between espoused values and actual values is difficult to identify and, as a result, underlying assumptions are more powerful than espoused values in determining the culture of an organization. He wrote that "the unique and essential function of leadership is the manipulation of culture" (p. 317).

According to Schein (2004) "culture is both a dynamic phenomenon that surrounds us at all times, being constantly enacted and created by our interactions with others and shaped by leadership behavior, and a set of structures, routines, rules, and norms that guide and constrain behavior" (p. 1). Rousseau (1990) explained that culture is multi-layered with external and internal elements. The external elements are physical representations like buildings, symbols, and signs. The internal elements are organization's beliefs and values. Slack (1997) added a 'power' element contending that "Those who hold the power in an organization will choose a set of structural arrangements that will maintain or increase their power" (p. 177).

Culture is a dynamic phenomenon, so it is not easy to be delineated or measured. Schein (2004) suggested culture can be assessed by means of various individual and

group interview processes. Especially, group interview method is great in terms of validity and efficiency. Schein urged that culture cannot be assessed by means of surveys or questionnaires, because it is hard to decide what to ask in order to identify culture. In addition, it is hard to judge it as the responses to questions about culture are not ensured in terms of reliability and validity. "Survey responses can be viewed as cultural artifacts and as reflections of the organization's climate, but they do not tell you anything about the deeper values or shared assumptions that are operating" (pp. 361-362).

However, there have been attempts to clarify cultural features in more of concrete or distinct manners. Different from Schein, Sashkin (2001) tried to quantify organizational culture. He developed Organizational Culture Assessment Questionnaire (OCAQ) composed of five factors such as managing change, achieving goals, coordinated teamwork, customer orientation, and cultural strength. Among many methods, The present study is going to use OCAQ as a main instrument to collect data about team culture because it is efficient in identifying the problems in an organization and helps define desirable organizational culture. More detailed explanation about organization culture is in Chapter II.

Statement of the Problem

Many sport organizations in Korea are oriented to transactional leadership style due to the effect of traditional Confucian culture. Confucian culture is deeply rooted in Korean society and very hard to change. After the successful 2002 World Cup, there has been heated debate among soccer fans and soccer administrators about how to popularize

soccer in Korea, and as a result, soccer has obviously become the most popular sport in Korea.

However, many coaches with a purely transactional leadership style are thought to create problems in their soccer teams and it is pointed out by many soccer administrators, critics and fans as one of the most chronic reasons why Korean soccer is evaluated that it can't accomplish as is expected. Leadership is regarded as a significant factor in building team culture and team performance and research suggests that organizational culture is a factor that contributes to the team performance. However, there has been an apparent lack of information about how coach leadership, team culture, and performance are interrelated with each other in university soccer teams in Korea.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship of coach leadership style, team culture, and team performance in university soccer teams in Korea. First, this study focused on the leadership behaviors of the coach. Preferred and actual leadership behaviors were investigated. Second, this study focused on the team culture. Cultural functions of the teams in U-league were investigated. Third, leadership behaviors and team culture were investigated in relation to team performance.

Research Questions

The study contains the following research questions:

1. Are there differences in player's preferred and actual coach leadership behaviors?
 - a. Are there differences in player's preferred and actual coach leadership

- behaviors according to their grade?
 - b. Are there differences in player's preferred and actual coach leadership behaviors according to their position?
 - c. Are there differences in player's preferred and actual coach leadership behaviors according to their years of experience?
2. Are there differences in player's preferred and actual leadership behavior between high and low performance teams?
 3. What leadership behaviors of a coach predict team culture?
 - a. How do the transactional coach leadership behaviors predict the team culture?
 - b. How do the transformational coach leadership behaviors predict the team culture?
 4. Are there differences in team's cultural functions between high and low performance teams?

Delimitations of the Study

The delimitations of this study are:

1. This study was conducted on university soccer teams registered to the KFA (Korea Football Association) in Korea.
2. This study was conducted on the players who were regular members of the university soccer teams.
3. This study explored the leadership behaviors of the coach, team culture, and team performance of the university soccer teams participated in U-league in Korea.
4. The validated questionnaires were utilized only for the purpose of identifying the

leadership style of the coach and team culture.

Limitations of the Study

Several factors contributing to the limitations of the study were as follows:

1. The university soccer players in this study may not be representative of all other university soccer players in the world. So, the results and conclusions may not be globally generalized. The results of this study may be applicable only to Korean university soccer teams and coaches.
2. Only university soccer teams registered in KFA and who participate in U-league could be subjects of this study, which means 1) if a university team is not registered to KFA, it cannot be a subject of this study, 2) if a university team is registered to KFA but does not participate in U-league, it cannot be a subject of this study, 3) if any university team could participate in U-league and not registered to KFA, it cannot be a subject of this study.
3. The researcher doesn't speak English as his native language. The original questionnaire written in English was translated into Korean, and the final result reported in English. The control of potential translation nuance and vagaries were beyond the scope of this study.

Assumptions of the Study

This study was based on the following assumptions:

1. The instruments applied in this study measured leadership behaviors and team culture validly and reliably.

2. Participants in this study clearly understood the questionnaires.
3. Participants in this study answered the questions in the survey independently.
4. Participants in this study answered survey questions honestly with regard to coaches' behaviors to coach's leadership behaviors and perceptions of organizational culture.

Definition of Terms

A basic set of definitions is listed as follow:

Charisma: "Greater level of long term performance by developing followers to a higher level of autonomy" (Bass & Avolio, 1990, p. 242).

Contingent Reward: "An exchange process between the followers' needs being met as their performance or behavior satisfies the leader. An active form of management because the leader constantly reinforces the followers' performance" (Bass, 1990, p. 22).

Culture: The set of shared attitudes, values, goals, and practices that characterizes a company or corporation (Merriam-Webster, 2009).

Individualized Consideration: "Understand and share in the follower's concerns and developmental needs while treating each follower uniquely. Give personal attention, treats subordinate individually" (Bass, 1990, p. 22).

Inspirational Leader: Personal encouragement and persuasion to pursue a vision of a better situation are effective techniques of the inspirational leader (Bass, 1983).

Intellectual Stimulation: “The arousal and change in followers of problem awareness and problem solving of thought and imagination, and of beliefs and values, rather than arousal and change in immediate action” (Bass, 1985, p. 99).

Laissez-faire: “Abdicate responsibilities, avoids making decisions” (Bass, 1990, p. 22).

Leadership: “The process of influencing the activities of an individual or a group in effort toward goal achievement in a given situation” (Hersey & Blanchard, 1998, p. 83). “Leadership is exercised when someone in a position of power deliberately attempts to “influence other organizational members toward some accomplishments” (Soucie, 1994, p. 3).

Management-by-Exception (active): “Watching and searching for deviations from rules and standards, then taking corrective actions” (Bass, 1990, p. 22).

Management-by-Exception (passive): “Intervenes only if standards are not met” (Bass, 1990, p. 22).

Organizational Culture: “A pattern of shared basic assumptions that was learned by a group as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal intention, that worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problem” (Schein, 2004, p. 12)

Sport Organization: “A sport organization is a social entity involved in the sport industry; it is goal-directed, with a consciously structured activity system and a relatively identifiable boundary” (Slack & Parent, 2006, p. 5).

Transactional Leadership: The exchanging of relationship with their followers, in which the leaders reward followers when they successfully complete agreed-upon tasks and punish followers when mistakes occur (Avolio & Bass, 1990).

Transformational Leadership: “The process of influencing major changes in attitudes and assumptions of organizational members and building commitment for the organizations mission and objectives” (Yukl, 1989, p. 204).

Performance: The execution of an action. Something accomplished (Merriam-Webster, 2009).

Significance of the Study

Leadership and culture are not separable. Schein (2004) described they are like sides of the same coin. Figuring out how they interact with each other can be quite complicated but meaningful in understanding how the organization evolves. Most importantly, these factors can influence team performance.

There are 72 university soccer teams around regions in Korea. Some continuously win games, and others do not, which may lead to change of the coaching staffs at the end of the year. There are some teams famous for their family-like relationships among the members and there are other teams where problems between members and the coach or amongst members never stop. What makes these differences and how significant is it in the team performance?

University soccer has significant value in Korean soccer industry. First, it establishes soccer infrastructure in Korea. Universities take care of facilities for soccer games in their school and attract future soccer fans. The infrastructure shaped in school is

significant because it keeps on supporting amateur soccer players and bridges to the development of professional soccer. Second, the culture that the university soccer players go through in their teams will help shape the team culture they would belong to later on. Considering university soccer players are going to lead future soccer industry, how university teams shape their culture will make a significant effect on the culture of any soccer organization in the future. Third, university players learn how a leader is supposed to behave by experiencing their team coach. Therefore, leadership experience in the university will shape future soccer leadership in Korea.

Team record means a lot for university athletes. They do not exist for profit but for public relations of the school. Achieving good records go a long way to gain popularity of the school. For professional soccer players, personal achievement may be more important than team success because they have every right and chance to move to another one, but for university soccer players, it is almost impossible to move to another school because low team performance cannot be the cause of changing school in Korean situation. Without a good team record, individual players may not even have a chance to be exposed to media. Of course, some exceptional players can still be successful in their soccer career regardless of their team success, but most ordinary players are in the same boat; without team success they will not be appreciated as they should. They have to build desirable team culture which lead to success for all.

This study was about leadership, culture, and their relationship with team performance in university soccer teams in Korea. In order for a university soccer team to accomplish what it intends and plans, leadership and culture should be regarded with significance. These two are considered as one of the most important factors for today's

organizational success and effectiveness. Appropriate leadership can empower the subordinates to be creative, responsible, and confident, and as a result, an organization can be efficient, effective, and productive. Investigating university soccer team's leadership and culture may provide a sound basis for the overall development of Korean soccer industry. This study provided important information about leadership, culture and their relationship with team performance in university soccer teams in Korea both from theoretical and practical perspectives.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The purpose of this study was to examine aspects of leadership and organizational culture in university soccer teams in Korea. This chapter provides the theoretical backgrounds of the concepts and relationships examined in this study. This literature review consists of six stages: 1) discussion of leadership, including definitions and the importance of leadership in the sport organization; 2) leadership theories: trait approach, behavioral approach, situational approach, charismatic approach; 3) exploration of transactional vs. transformational leadership; 4) discussion of organizational culture; 5) leadership and organizational culture, including studying dealing with these issues; and 6) the context: university soccer in Korea.

Leadership

Definition of Leadership

Leadership is probably one of the most broadly studied topics about sport organization. Leadership has drawn a great deal of attention from many researchers and continued to be a popular research subject and a significant determinant of managerial effectiveness in any organizational context. Leadership scholars pointed out that effective leadership is closely related to organizational success (Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 1990; Bennis, 1989; Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Burns, 1978; Conger, 1989; Kouzes & Posner, 2007; Nanus, 1989; Sashkin, 2001; Schein, 2004; Scott, 1997; Tichy & Devanna, 1986; Yammarino & Bass, 1990; Yukl, 1989).

Bass (1990) mentioned that the study of leadership has been ongoing since the beginning of civilization and many scholars have made an effort to identify theories in describing successful leadership. Bass (2008) also stated that, in mid-1999, “55,172 publications on leadership could be found in the Online Computer Library Center (OCLC)” (p. 6). Concepts of leadership abound in the literature across industries and disciplines. These are summarized in the following table.

Table 1

The Definitions of Leadership

Author/Year Definition	
Hemphill & Coons, 1957	The behavior of an individual when he is directing the activities of a group towards a shared goal.
Janda, 1960	A particular type of power relationship characterized by a group member's perception that another group member has the right to prescribe behavior patterns for the former regarding his activity as a group member.
Jacobs, 1971	An interaction between persons in which one presents information of a sort and in such a manner that the other becomes convinced that his outcomes will be improved if he behaves in the manner suggested or desired.
Stogdill, 1974	The initiation and maintenance of structure in expectation and inter action.
Katz & Kahn, 1978	The influential increment over and above mechanical compliance with the routine directives of the organization.
Bergeron, 1979	Sum of activities through which a hierarchical superior influences the behavior of subordinates toward the voluntary and more effective pursuit of organizational objectives.
Roach & Behling, 1984	The process of influencing the activities of an organized group toward goal achievement.

Note. Adapted from Soucie, D. (1994). Effective managerial leadership in sport organizations. *Journal of Sport Management*, 8, 1-13.

Examination of leadership is necessary in deciding which leadership style leads to the highest productivity, group effectiveness, job satisfaction, and goal achievement. According to Yukl (1989), most of the leadership definitions state in common that leadership is a trait that is required in a group and that it involves an influence process. Therefore, it can be said that managerial leadership can be defined as leadership exercised by managers who deliberately attempt to influence other organizational members in order to accomplish an organizational goal or purpose. However how leadership is defined, measured, assessed, or linked to outcomes, has not been agreed upon among the scholars even though many studies exist about leadership (Birnbaum, 1989).

The Importance of Leadership in the Sport Organization

In sport organizations, the role of leaders, especially coaches, is significant. Leadership is closely related to organizational effectiveness. Andrew and Kent (2007) contended that leadership affects organizational effectiveness because it energizes organizational members and directs group behavior. Song (2002) asserted that leadership is the most important factor in understanding organizational effectiveness as well as in deciding the ultimate success or failure of an organization. Legendary basketball coach John Wooden wrote, “A leader, particularly a teacher or coach, has a most powerful influence on those he or she leads, perhaps more than anyone outside of the family. Therefore, it is the obligation of that leader, teacher, or coach to treat such responsibility as a grave concern” (Wooden & Jamison, 1997, p. 111).

Leadership affects organizational climate and culture as well. Transformational leadership and organizational culture has gained great significance over the last twenty

years (Weese, 1996). Organizational research from sport organization, business and education areas recently has identified the significance of leadership in the creation and management of organizational climate and culture (Scott, 1999). Scott defined organization climate as a “measurable property of the work environment that is collectively perceived by organizational members and reflects the values and attitudes of organizational culture” (p. 301). Schein (1991) contended creating and managing culture is the only thing really important that leaders do.

Leadership Theories

Leadership research is very popular in the field of management. Leadership is an interaction between two or more members of a group that often involves a structuring or restructuring of the members (Bass, 2008). Bass wrote that leadership can be conceived as directing the attention of other members to goals and the paths to make it convenient to achieve them.

Researchers in leadership have investigated traits, behaviors, situations, and a combination of these ideas to better understand successful leadership. The most observed or recognized leadership theories over the years include trait theory, behavioral theory, contingency or situational theory, and transactional versus transformational leadership (Bass, 2008).

Specifically, leadership research began with the trait approach of the 1930s, and continued with the behavioral and situational/contingency approaches of the 1950s and 1970s, respectively. Most recently, transactional and transformational leadership, which

Bryman (1992) labeled the “new leadership” perspective has received most attention, especially transformational leadership which has been studied most since 1980s.

Major leadership theories and their characteristics are summarized in Table 2.

Table 2

Major Leadership Theories

Year	Theory	Basic
Up to 1900	Great man	Talent, heroism; one great leader influencing the masses
1900-1940	Trait	Individual traits, talent, and skills
1940-1960	Behavior	Leaders’ behavior style of efficiency
1960-1980	Contingency	Situational variables and moderators leaders must address
1980-present	Transformational	Leaders initiating change and culture transformation through superior charisma, influence, and communication

Note. Adapted from Bass (2008). *The Bass handbook of leadership: Theory, research & managerial applications*. New York: Free Press.

Trait Approach

The trait approach is one of the earliest approaches in leadership research. This approach assumes that good leaders are born, not made (Slack & Parent, 2006).

Researchers regard that leadership is a measurable dimensional trait and it would distinguish leaders from non-leaders and effective leaders from ineffective leaders (Lord, Devader, & Alliger, 1986). According to Yukl (1989), useful, relevant, and effective traits in most leadership positions are high self-confidence, emotional stability, energy level, initiative, stress tolerance, and favorable attitude toward authority figures. He also

asserted that analytical ability, persuasiveness, speaking ability, memory for details, empathy, tact, and charm are also significant characteristics for leaders.

In the 1920s, scholars tried to figure out what characteristics or personality traits were common to good leaders. They thought that traits such as intelligence, assertiveness, self-confidence and independence were relatively stable personality characteristics of leaders. Slack and Parent (2006) organized type of traits into three categories: the individual's physical characteristics such as height, physical appearance, age; intellectual qualities such as intelligence, speaking ability, and insight; and personality features such as emotional stability, dominance, and sensitivity.

A great amount of trait studies were done during the 1930s and 1940s in order to find out the traits of natural leaders. For example, Stogdill (1948) found some support for a difference in traits appearing in leaders and those appearing in nonleaders. However, he identified the limitation of his research and said "the qualities, characteristics, and skills required in a leader are determined to a large extent by the demands of the situation in which he is to function as a leader" (Bass, 1990, p. 65). Like the study of Stogdill, huge research has been done in the field of trait theory but any specific trait that would guarantee successful leadership was not found (Yukl, 1989).

The trait approach to leadership is considered important in the athletic area and has been examined. Walsh and Carron (1977) reviewed research on coaches and conclude that there are not consistent differences between the personality profiles of coaches compared to the general population. Weinberg and Gould (1999) mentioned that "one profile of typical coaches was tough minded, authoritarian, willing to bear the pressure of fans and the media, emotionally mature, independent in their thinking, and

realistic in their perspective” (p. 189), but they did not provide enough evidence to support this idea. It can be said that no particular set of traits seems to characterize effective sport leadership. In the field of sport research, trait approach is not popular anymore because it has been revealed that there is not a single ideal and definite leadership trait among coaches and athletes. There are many other factors involved in deciding effective leadership in sport.

Behavioral Approach

In the 1950s researchers began to think about the actual behaviors of leaders on the job because the trait approach had not provided satisfactory answers about leadership. They paid attention to what leaders do to make themselves effective rather than their innate traits (Yukl, 1989). In this approach, examination is focused on discovering universal behaviors of effective leaders (Ziad, 2003). Ziad mentioned that anyone could learn to be a leader by being taught the behaviors of other effective leaders. As opposed to trait theory, the behavioral approach considers that leaders are made, not born (Weinberg & Gould, 1999). As a result, leader training was more emphasized than ever and investigating whether one kind of behavior was more efficient than the other became more popular (Bass, 1990; Bryman, 1996).

The best-recognized studies in behavioral leadership approach are the Ohio State Studies (OSS) and the Michigan Studies (MS). OSS used questionnaire to identify types of behavior and their leadership style to study leader behavior in numerous types of groups and situations. The studies were conducted on Air Force Commanders and members of bomber crews, officers, non-commissioned personnel, civilian administrators in the Navy Department, manufacturing supervisors, executives, teachers, principals and

school superintendents and leaders of various civilian groups. According to Song (2002), the OSS tried to identify independent dimensions of leader behavior and found that two categories could explain most of the leadership behavior described by employees: initiating structure and consideration. Consideration means “the extent to which a leader acts in a friendly and supportive manner, shows concern for subordinates, and looks out for their welfare.” Initiating structure means “the extent to which a leader defines and structures his or her own role and the roles of subordinates toward attainment of the group’s formal goals” (Yukl, 2006, p. 47). LBDQ (Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire) was an instrument used and it was administered to 300 individuals of various groups of individuals. Over the years, the LBDQ has been used in many leadership studies. However Bryman (1992) raised several concerns about it. First, what were found from LBDQ were not consistent and insignificant statistically. Second, it didn’t consider situational factors. “There has been a tendency for atheoretical investigations of particular moderating variables” (Bryman, 1992, p. 7). Third, as it was cross-sectional, causality was not clear. In other words, it was not clear if leadership style influenced group performance or group performance influenced leadership style. Fourth, it focused only on group-level or averaged responses, not individual organization members. Fifth, it didn’t address the question of informal leadership, a relevant practice in many organizations. Finally, validity of LBDQ measure was not ensured.

The Michigan Studies (MS) reported two dimensions of leadership behaviors: employee-oriented and production-oriented. An employee-oriented leader is “one who emphasizes interpersonal relations,” and a production-oriented leader is “one who emphasizes task aspects of the job” (Robbins, 1994, p. 369). According to the MS,

employee-oriented leaders tend to have higher group productivity and higher job satisfaction, but the production-oriented leaders are associated with negative outcomes (Song, 2002).

Bowers and Seashore (1966) summarized the results from the OSS and MS: 1) support, 2) interaction facilitation, 3) goal emphasis, and 4) work facilitation. They asserted that formal leaders or members of the particular work group could carry out the practice to be a good leader.

Slack and Parent (2006) said that both of OSS and MS have many similarities by mentioning that both focused on the behavior of leaders or their style, not their personal qualities. Also, both identified two dimensions of style, one focusing on organizational tasks and the other on employee relations. Robbins (1994) wrote both studies confronted the same problem, that they could not successfully identify consistent relationships between leadership behaviors and group performance. The situational factors that influence success or failure of leadership should be considered.

Situational/Contingency Approach

Robbin (1994) explained that behavioral approach is not good enough in explaining how situational factors can result in different outcomes. Stogdill (1974) stated that “the evidence suggests that leadership is a relation that exists between persons in a social situation, and that persons who are leaders in one situation may not necessarily be leaders in other situations” (pp. 63-64). The situational approach, or the contingency approach, arose in the beginning of the 1960’s because earlier approaches were not able to explain the many different aspects of leadership traits or behaviors successfully (Ziad, 2003). Ziad noted it’s possible to develop various models of effective leadership behavior

depending on different types of situations by observing how effectively leaders behave in different situations. Stogdill (1974) explained that based on the situational approach, leader is not the son of the previous leader or the one who is related to other leaders, but the one who is demanded in a certain situation.

There are three best-known situational approaches. The path-goal theory of leadership, Hersey and Blanchard's situational theory, and Fiedler's LPC approach are those.

The path-goal theory of leadership. House (1971) and his colleagues developed the path-goal theory of leadership. This theory is called path-goal because it is mostly concerned with how the leader influences the subordinates' perceptions of their work goals, personal goals, and paths to goal attainment. According to this theory, leaders' effectiveness can be decided based on subordinates' motivation, ability to perform effectively, and satisfaction. The leader is expected to motivate or satisfy to the degree that the behavior increases subordinate goal attainment.

The path-goal theory tries to explain how different types of leader behavior influence subordinates under various situational conditions. Slack and Parent (2006) summarized leader behaviors into four kinds of leadership. First, supportive leadership increases the satisfaction and effort of subordinates in case work is stressful, frustrating, tedious, or low in autonomy. Second, instrumental leadership (directive leadership) enhances the satisfaction and effort of subordinates in case tasks are unstructured and complex in nature and subordinates have little experience in doing the tasks and no formalized procedures to help them complete their work. Third, participative leadership is necessary when tasks are relatively unstructured. Participative leadership could help

subordinates understand the relationship between their efforts and goal attainment. It helps them select goals in which they are personally interested and as a result, they tend to be more motivated. It could also give subordinates control over their own work, and accordingly increase the level of satisfaction. Fourth, achievement leadership “will cause subordinates to strive for higher standards of performance and to have more confidence in their ability to meet challenging goals” when tasks are unstructured (House & Mitchell, 1974, p. 91).

Situational leadership theory by Hersey and Blanchard. Hersey and Blanchard (1998) asserted that situational leadership is a practical model intended to help leaders be more effective in their interactions with people. They noted that situational leadership is based on interplay among three factors: 1) the amount of guidance and direction a leader gives (similar to task behavior), 2) the amount of socio-emotional support a leader provides (similar to relationship behavior), and 3) the readiness level that followers exhibit in performing a specific task, function, or objective. In this leadership model, two leadership orientations such as task behavior and relationship behavior interact with each other. Task behavior involves the leader in structuring how work is to be done. Leaders tell people as a guidance what to do, how to do it, when to do it, where to do it, and who is to do it. Relationship behavior involves providing support to employees and openly communicating with them. Leaders listen to, facilitate, and support the employees.

LPC approach by Fiedler. Different from the path-goal approach and situational approach by Hersey and Blanchard, Fiedler (1967) paid attention to how situational variables moderate the relationship between leader traits and organizational effectiveness. LPC represents Least Preferred Coworker. Robbins (1994) said LPC theory posits that

effective group performance should be based on the proper match between the leader's interacting style with his or her subordinates and degree to which the situation gives control and influence to the leader. Situational favorability means mediating the relationship between the leader's motivational traits and group performance. Favorability is composed of three situational factors such as leader-member relations, position power of the leader, and task structure (Slack & Parent, 2006). Fiedler's LPC model shifted leadership research from emphasizing leader traits to identifying the best style contingent on the situation.

According to Yukl (1989), the situational approach emphasizes the significance of contextual factors such as the nature of the work performed by the leader's unit, the nature of the external environment, and the characteristics of followers. He argued that situational theories also have conceptual weaknesses; they are based on inaccurate measures and rely on weak research designs. Findings are not very specific and therefore are difficult to apply (Song, 2002). Song also mentioned that not only are situational factors numerous but also it is almost impossible for leaders to satisfy all the requirements of every situation, deal with every constraint, and satisfy all the demands of organizational members and clients making conclusive findings difficult to achieve.

Charismatic Leadership

In the researches in organization and management, charisma started to draw attention and be examined in the late 1970s and early 1980s (Slack & Parent, 2006). Weber established the concept of charisma at the outset. Weber (1968) wrote that leaders use charisma in order to gain authority in his book *Economy and Society*. According to him, charisma is defined as "a certain quality of an individual personality by virtue of

which he is considered extraordinary and treated as endowed with supernatural, superhuman, or at least specifically exceptional powers or qualities.” (p. 241) He also mentioned ordinary people cannot possibly access to these qualities as they are regarded to have divine and exemplary origin. Therefore, people with these qualities are considered as leaders. Weber (1947) described the charismatic leader as one who reveals “a transcendent mission or course of action that may not be in itself appealing to the potential followers, but which is acted on because the followers believe their leader is extraordinarily gifted.” The leader is described as “supernatural, superhuman or exceptional” (p. 358). House (1977), and Conger and Kanungo (1987) are important scholars who provided insight into charismatic leadership within the organizational context.

House’s theory of charismatic leadership. What makes House’s theory different from others is that he explained charisma from a psychological perspective rather than from a sociological or political science perspective in order to better understand how charismatic leadership emerges and its effects in modern organizations (House, 1977). He said charismatic leaders can be distinguished from other leaders in that they are able to have followers trust what the leader believes is correct, identify what they believe as that of their leader, accept the leader’s belief without a question, affect for the leader, obey to the leader, emulate the leader, and get emotionally involved with the leader in the mission. Followers come to have heightened goals, and feel like they will be able to accomplish and contribute to the accomplishment of the mission

Leaders are expected to role-model, build image, articulate goal, exhibit high expectations, show confidence, affect followers’ goals, and motivate to arouse leader

behavior. Limitation of his theory is that it is for the purpose of guiding future research and it includes a set of propositions that are hopefully testable. Thus Hebb (1969) asserted, “A good theory is one that holds together long enough to get you to a better theory” (p. 21).

Conger and Kanungo’s theory of charismatic leadership. Conger and Kanungo (1987) said leaders are attributed certain charismatic qualities by their followers so they try to identify what types of leader behavior resulted in these attributions. They found that leaders are seen as charismatic when they involve themselves in activities that require self-sacrifice and high personal risk to achieve their vision. Later, they developed the process of attribution as a series of stages. First, the leader senses opportunity and formulates a vision. Second, the leader articulates the vision. Third, the leader needs charisma to build trust in the vision. Finally, the leader should successfully achieve the vision.

Transactional vs. Transformational Leadership

A new paradigm of leadership has drawn broad attention. Bass (1990) suggested that the transactional and transformational leadership model is new paradigm of leadership and those can not only be replaced but also explained by other leadership models. Yukl (1989) noted, “the theories of transactional versus transformational leadership are broader in scope than the aforementioned leadership theories in terms that they involve leader traits, behavior, power and situational variables at the same time. Bass (1990) summarized characteristics of transformational and transactional leadership as follows:

Table 3

Characteristics of Transformational and Transactional Leaders

Transformational Leader
<i>Charisma:</i> provides vision and sense of mission, instills pride, gains respect and trust.
<i>Inspiration:</i> communicates high expectations, uses symbols to focus efforts expresses important purpose in simple ways.
<i>Intellectual Stimulation:</i> promotes intelligence, rationality, and careful problem-solving.
<i>Individualized Consideration:</i> Gives personal attention, treats each employee individually, coaches advises.

Transactional Leader
<i>Contingent Reward:</i> contracts exchange of rewards for effect, promises rewards for good performance, recognizes accomplishments.
<i>Management by Exception (active):</i> watches and searches for deviations from rules and standards, takes corrective action.
<i>Management by Exception (passive):</i> intervenes only if standards are not met.
<i>Laissez-Faire:</i> abdicates responsibilities, avoids making decisions.

Note. Adapted from Bass (1990). Transactional to transformational leadership: Learning to share the vision. *Organizational Dynamics*, 18(3), 22.

Transactional Leadership

Transactional leadership has been described as an exchange of requests or needs to be satisfied between the leader and the followers (Bass, 2008; Burns, 1978). Bass (1985) described transactional leader in terms of his relations with subordinates:

1. The leader recognizes what it is we want to get from our work and tries to see that we get what we want if our performance warrants it.
2. The leader exchanges rewards and promises of reward for our effort.
3. The leader is responsive to our immediate self-interests if they can be met by our getting the work done. (p. 11)

This kind of leader works to clarify roles and task requirements of followers, recognizes the needs and desires of subordinates and make it clear that if they work to fulfill their job requirements, then those needs and desires will be met. Transactional leadership theory is based on the notion that leader-follower relations build on a series of exchanges or contracts between leaders and followers (Song, 2002). Hsu, Bell, and Cheng (2002) also pointed out a transactional leader frequently uses initiating structure or consideration in order to increase followers' expectations that they will be rewarded based on their performance because leadership is an exchange process. These leaders "give followers something they want in exchange for something the leaders want" (Kuhnert & Lewis, 1987, p. 649).

Transactional leadership is consistent with what was originally contracted with the leader (Bass & Avolio, 1990). Bass (1985) said a transactional leader operates within the existing system or culture, has a preference for risk avoidance, pays attention to time constraints and efficiency, and generally prefers process over substance as a means for maintaining control. An adept transactional leader is likely to be effective in stable, predictable environments where charting activity against prior performance is the most successful strategy (Song, 2002). In this respect, Bass (2008) stated that "not only if not overlooked or forgiven, failure will bring disappointment, excuses, dissatisfaction, and psychological or material punishment, but also if the transaction occurs and needs of leader and follower are met, and if the leader has formal or informal power to do so, he or she reinforces the successful performance" (p. 618).

Negative Effects of Transactional Leadership

Bass (1985) suggested that contingent reward should be underutilized even though it provides role clarity, role acceptance, satisfaction, and performance. Bass also mentioned that what management-by-exception, negative feedback, and contingent aversive reinforcement have in common is that leaders intervene only when something wrong happens. He specifically asserted the negative effects of transitional leadership like following.

First, feedback should be underutilized. What's commonly happens is that supervisors actually say and believe they are giving feedback to subordinates, but the subordinates do not feel they get feedback. This difference in perception of feedback occurs because subordinates and supervisors regard the importance of various feedbacks differently. For example, Greller (1980) found that subordinates value feedbacks about task itself, comparisons to the work of others, and co-worker's comments about their working studied about metropolitan transit organization. On the other hand, supervisors put more significance on their own comments to their subordinates, their recommendations for rewards like raises, promotions, and more interesting assignments than their subordinates do.

Second, there are problems with incentive payment schemes. When rewards are fully dependent on performance, productivity is likely to increase. However strict payments can be exploitative. It may not consider the factors that the workers are not able to control which affect their productivity. In addition, if quantity only is emphasized, quality may not be regarded. Strict rate payment can possibly result in worker

dissatisfaction and conflict among themselves and with management. Sometimes, they may pursue self-interest which is in conflict with co-worker and organizational interests

Third, supervisors can lack control over rewards. If supervisors lack the necessary reputation to deliver necessary rewards, they are not going to be seen as effective transactional leaders (Tsui, 1982).

Fourth, if promises of reward or threats of punishment are seen as coercive or manipulative, unintended consequences could occur. Stockdale (1981) asserted the importance of free will by saying “You cannot persuade to act in their own self-interest all of the time.....Some men all of the time and all men some of the time knowingly will do what is clearly to their disadvantage if only because they do not like to be suffocated by carrot-and-stick coercion. I will not be a piano key; I will not bow to the tyranny of reason” (p. 15). Subordinates may find a shortcut simply to fulfill the exchange of reward for compliance. Reprimands or punishments may successfully inhibit subordinates’ undesirable behavior, but also generate variety of dysfunctional behaviors like reaction formation, guilt, and hostility. These negative behaviors are likely to occur when highly motivated subordinates are under stress or overloaded. They may regard negative feedback as a personal attack instead of a well-intentioned one.

Bass summarized contingent reinforcement and follower effort as following chart:

This chart demonstrates that when subordinates succeed in their jobs, they are going to get reward as promised, satisfaction and self-esteem. However, if they fail to comply with the leader's directory, leaders are likely to reprimand or threaten, which might generate unintended effects like hostility, apathy, anxiety, and loss of self-esteem.

Transformational Leadership

Many scholars in various fields have long recognized that leadership goes beyond the notion of a social exchange between leader and followers. Leadership cannot be simply limited to reward followers with carrots for compliance or punishment with a stick for failure. Leadership must address the follower's sense of self-worth to have the follower truly committed and involved in the effort at hand (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Recent research demonstrates the significance of transformational leadership in various settings (Avolio & Yammarino, 2002).

The transformational approach to leadership has gained popularity in the research literature since its inception in the late 1970. Burns (1978) is often cited as the source of the concepts of this approach to leadership theory. Burns regarded transformational leadership as a contrast to transactional leadership. He also defined a transforming leader as one who (1) raises the followers' level of consciousness about the importance and value of designated outcomes and ways of reaching them; (2) gets the followers to transcend their own self-interest for the sake of the team, organization, or larger polity; (3) and raises the followers' level of need on Maslow's (1954) hierarchy from lower-level needs for achievement and self-actualization. Cascio (1995) noted that "today's networked, interdependent, culturally diverse organizations require transformational leadership" (p. 930).

According to Bass (2008), a transformational leader enhances their followers' confidence and increases awareness of selected goals and how they may be obtained. He also inspires followers to look beyond their own self-interests and seek to satisfy such higher-level needs self-actualization. Bass and Avolio (1994) also mentioned that transformational leadership occurs when a leader:

1. Stimulates interest among colleagues and followers to view their work from new perspectives;
2. Generates awareness of the mission or vision of the team and organization;
3. Develops colleagues and followers to higher levels of ability and potential;
4. Motivates colleagues and followers to look beyond their own interests toward those that will benefit the group. (p.2)

Yukl (2006) reported that leaders with transformational leadership have a clear vision and communicate it to followers, act confidently and are optimistic, articulate confidence to followers, lead followers by example, use symbolic actions to emphasize key values, and take advantage of the empowerment of followers to achieve the vision. He also stated that transformational leaders communicate a clear vision of the potential and priority of an organization. The vision helps followers see what an organization can accomplish, helps followers understand their purpose in the organization, and helps guide followers' actions and decisions. Communicating the vision is not enough; the leader must also convince the followers of its feasibility and gain their agreement.

Measurement of Transformational Leadership

The most widely used instrument to measure transformational leadership is Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ; Bass & Avolio, 2000). MLQ assesses the

components of transactional leadership, transformational leadership and laissez-faire. Leaders with laissez-faire leadership are non-authoritarian. They let the followers feel responsible and obliged in their own ways, so take least control of the followers (Bass & Riggio, 2006). There are two forms of the MLQ. The first one is the Leader Form. It asks the leader to rate his or her own leader behavior, but self-rating is susceptible to bias, so MLQ Rater Form is more commonly used. The MLQ Rater Form asks associates of leaders (for example, supervisees, director reports, or etc.) to rate the frequency of their leader's transactional and transformational leadership behavior using 5-point ratings scales.

The original MLQ was composed of 73 items but was criticized for including items that did not focus directly on leader behaviors (Yukl, 2006). The first published version of the MLQ contained 67 items measuring the FRL model, and 37 items among them assessed transformational leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1990). The current version of the MLQ (5X) contains 36 standardized items, four items assessing each of the nine leadership dimensions associated with the FRL model, and the nine measuring outcomes including ratings of the leader's effectiveness, satisfaction with the leader, and the extent to which followers exert extra effort as a result of the leader's performance.

Morality in Transactional and Transformational Leadership

Burns (1978) emphasized the significance of the transformational leadership in terms of morality and firmly believes that leaders are required to be morally uplifting in order to be transforming. According to Banerji and Krishnan (2000), transformational leaders tend to behave ethically in tempting scenarios, especially those who are highly motivated and intellectually stimulated. To have clear understanding about authentic

transformational leadership, Bass and Steidlmeier (1999) elaborated moral elements of transformational and transactional leadership as in Table 4. In transactional leadership, leadership dynamics such as task, reward system, intentions, trust, and due process are considered as significant are perceived as important moral element to be considered, but in transformational leadership, but leadership dynamics such as idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration are perceived as important moral element to be considered.

Table 4

Moral Elements of Transformational and Transactional Leadership

Leadership dynamic	Transactional leadership ethical concern
Task	Whether what is being done (the end) and the means employed to do it are morally legitimate
Reward system	Whether sanctions or incentives impair effective freedom and respect conscience
Intentions	Truth telling
Trust	Promise keeping
Due process	Impartial process of settling conflicts and claims
Transformational leadership	
Idealized influence	Whether “puffery” and egoism on part of the leader predominate and whether the leader is manipulative or not
Inspirational motivation	Whether providing for true empowerment and self-actualization of followers or not
Intellectual stimulation	Whether the leader’s program is open to dynamic transcendence and spirituality or is closed propaganda and a “line” to follow
Individualized consideration	Whether followers are treated as ends or means, whether their unique dignity and interests are respected or not

Note. Adapted from Bass, B. J., & Steidlmeier, P. (1999). Ethics, character, and authentic transformational leadership behavior. *Leadership Quarterly*, 10(2), 181-218.

Relationship between Transactional and Transformational Leadership

Burns (1978) and Bass (1985) viewed transactional and transformational leadership differently. Even though Burns (1978) believed that a leader could be placed on a single continuum as either a transactional or transformational leader, Bass (1985) claimed that transactional and transformational leadership reflect two distinct dimensions rather than opposite ends of one continuum. Bass's framework incorporates both transactional leadership and transformational leadership. By including both concepts, his framework covers a broader range of behaviors than the earlier leadership theories including transactional leadership theory (Bass & Avolio, 1994).

According to Burns (1974), transactional leadership does not successfully make leader and followers pursue a higher purposes together, while transformational leadership allow leaders and followers achieve higher levels of motivation and morality. Bass and Riggio (2006) said transactional leaders are those who lead through social exchange, while transactional business leaders offer financial rewards for productivity or deny rewards for lack of productivity. Zaleznik (1983) described that transactional leader analyzes employee lower-level needs and determines their goals. In other words, leader simply tries to satisfy the employee's basic needs in order to maintain the organizational status quo. According to Bass (1985), the transactional leader also limits the employee's 1) effort toward goals, 2) job satisfaction, and 3) effectiveness toward contributing to organizational goals. Bass (1986) indicated that transactional leadership is acceptable, but basically it just maintains the mediocrity of the organization. Transformational leaders, on the other hand, are those who stimulate and inspire followers to both achieve extraordinary outcomes and, in the process, develop their own leadership capacity.

“Transformational leaders help followers grow and develop into leaders by responding to individual followers’ needs by empowering them and by aligning the objectives and goals of the individual followers, the leader, the group, and the larger organization” (p. 3).

Transformational leaders recognize and make use of employees’ higher-level needs which aren’t limited to superficial self-interests. By doing so, transformational leaders can motivate employees to perform better than expected initially (Bass, 1985).

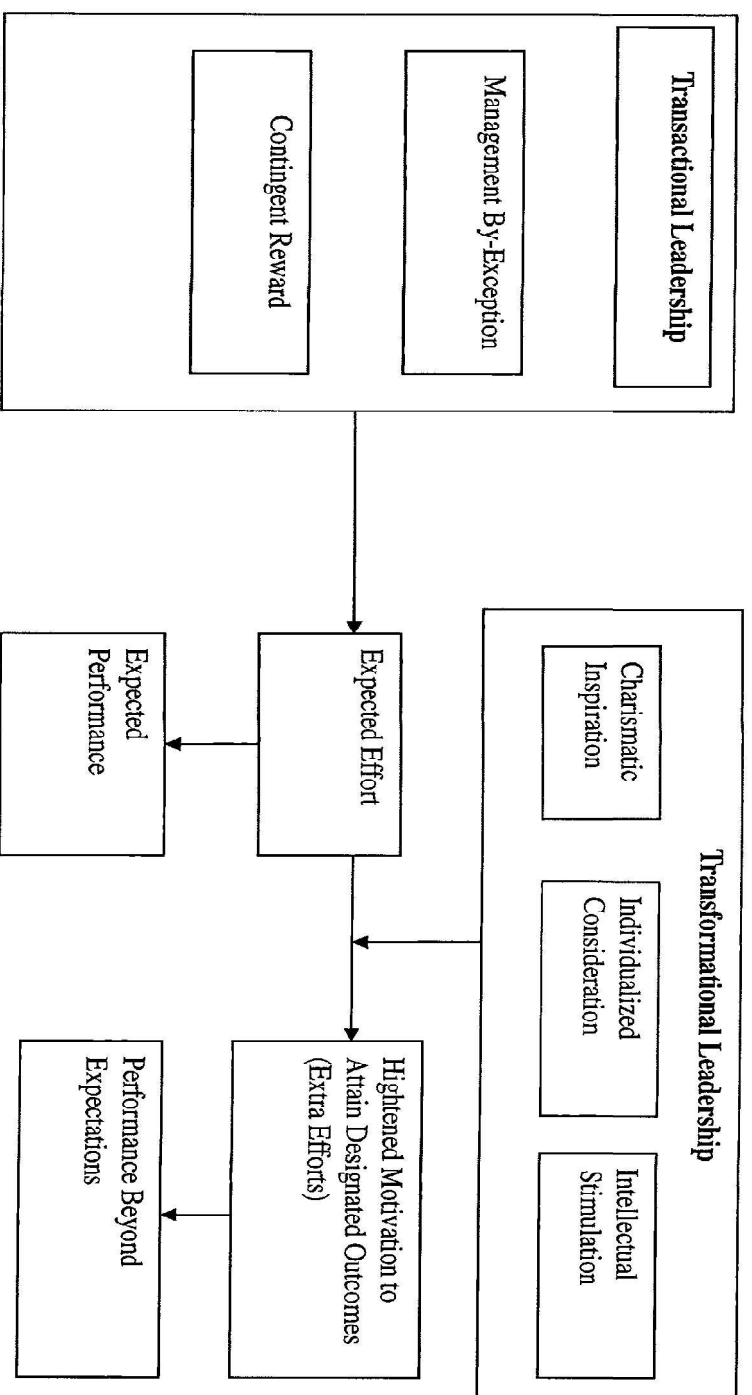


Figure 2. Leadership Processes. Note. From Bass, B. M. & Avolio, B. J. (1990). The implications of transactional and transformational leadership for individual, team, and organizational development. Research in Organizational Change & Development, 4, 237.

Yukl (1989) explained the term transformational leadership as the process of influencing major change in the attitudes and assumptions of organization members and building commitment for the organization's mission or objectives. While transactional leadership has been described as an exchange of requests or needs to be satisfied, transformational leadership has pointed to mutual interests with followers and been represented to increase employee satisfaction, motivation, technological innovation through a strong relationship between leaders and followers (Bass, 2008). Bass argued that transformational leadership behavior generally describes how leaders plan, develop, and accomplish significant change in an organization by being attentive to the needs and motives of their followers.

Bass (1990) said understanding leadership style and applying proper leadership to different situations is important in that it helps improve the environment for the employees or subordinates and in the end makes the organization successful. He contended there are several reasons why the transactional style should not be used very often, like time pressure, inadequate opportunities to observe followers, lack of appraisal systems, as so on. Using transformational leadership, the leader can support people to improve their potential fully so that they perform at their best. A transformational leader has vision, self-confidence, and inner strength to guide people toward goal. The following figure demonstrates that whereas transactional leadership enables expected performance, transformation enables people to perform beyond expectations.

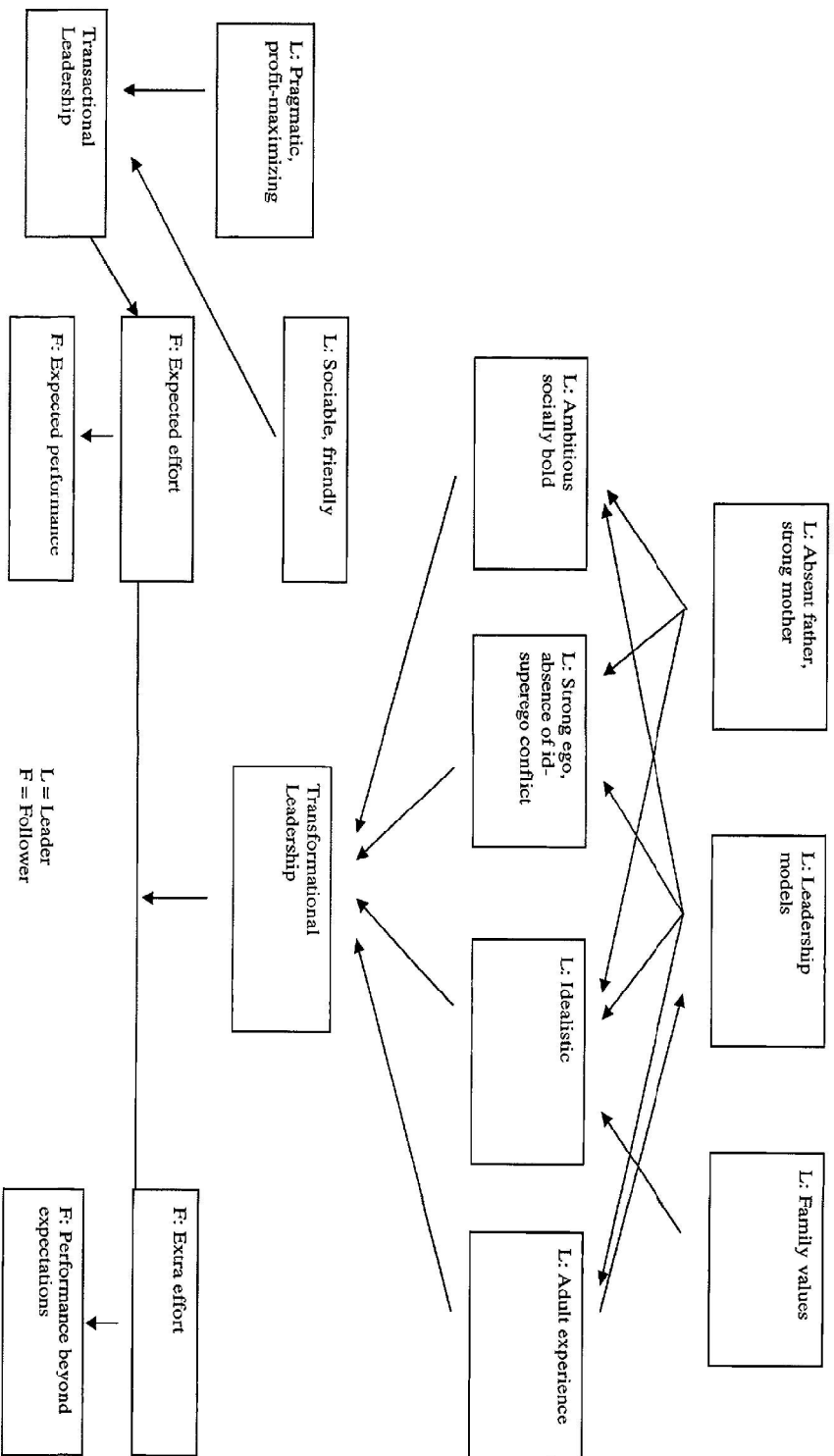


Figure 3. Personal Antecedents of Transactional and Transformational Leadership. Note: From Bass, B. M. (1985). *Leadership and performance beyond expectations*. NY: Free Press. 152.

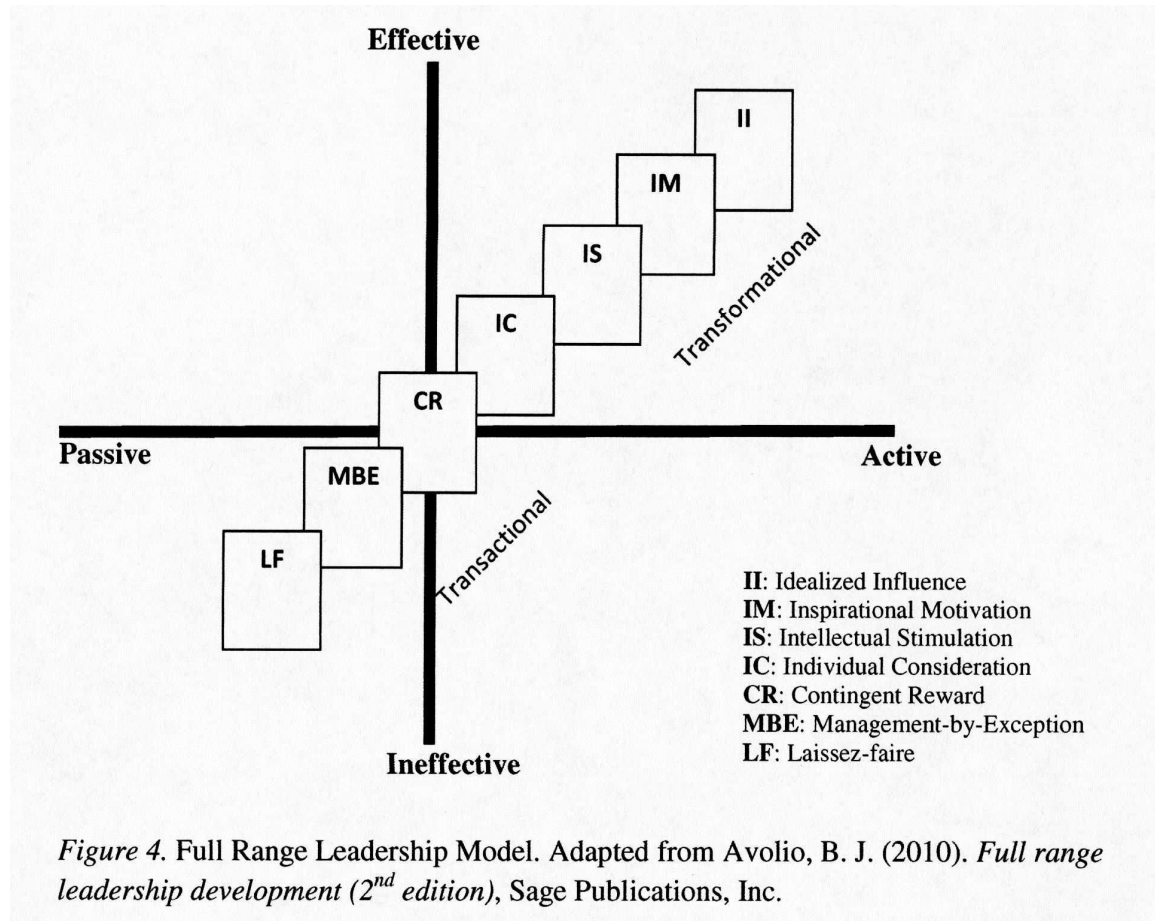
Full Range Leadership Model

After Burns (1978) introduced the concept of transformational leadership, Avolio (2010) refined the concept and suggested the idea of the full range leadership model. MLQ was used in order to determine “who attempts, who is successful, and who is effective as a leader” (Bass, 1995, p. 464). It identifies both transactional and transformational leadership behaviors and how the use of those facilitates an organization to adapt to changes in the environment. Kirkbride (2006) mentioned that the full range leadership model should be the most researched and validated leadership model used in the world nowadays.

Figure 4 presents the full range leadership model. The full range theory of leadership comprises of transformational leadership factors, transactional leadership factors, and laissez-faire, and they are organized around two axes each of which is degree of activity and degree of effectiveness. The activity axis shows how active or passive the leader is in terms of achieving the goals of the organization. In other words, how deeply the leader is engaged or involved is the main concern of the activity axis. The effective axis is about how effective the specific leadership style is.

As is mentioned earlier in the present study, transformational leadership behaviors are comprised of factors such as idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, and transactional leadership behaviors consist of contingent reward, management-by-exception. Figure 4 represents that transformative leaders are more active and effective in achieving the goals of the organizational than transactional leaders, however as situational leadership suggests that some behaviors are more appropriate in certain situations, the full range leadership model emphasizes the

situational factors. Even if transformational leadership is more effective in general, transactional behaviors can be better used in certain situations such as when serious safety issues are involved. Therefore, Avolio (2007) recommended that a fuller and more integrative focus which considers the leader, the led, and the complexity of the context, because leaders are the part of dynamic.



Organizational Culture

Concept of Organizational Culture

There exist cultures within organizations. Within the last ten years, organizational culture has been regarded as one of the most significant areas in sport management studies (Scott, 1997). Many organizational culture theorists define organizational culture

as the deep-rooted values and beliefs held and practiced by members of an organization (Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Hatch, 1993; Martin, Feldman, Hatch & Sitkin, 1983; Schein 2004). Lee (2003) summarized definitions of organizational culture as shown in Table 5:

Table 5

The Definitions of Organizational Culture

Author/Year	Definition
Allaire & Firsirotu (1984)	A particularistic system of symbols shaped by ambient society and The organization's history, leadership and contingencies, differentially shared, used and modified by actors in the course of acting and making sense out of organizational events
Covell, Walker, Siciliano & Hess (2003)	The term used to describe the set of beliefs, norms, and values that are shared by the members of an organization. These beliefs, norms, and values have to do with the way the organization operates and what is important in that organization
Siehl & Martin (1988)	Shared values and interpretations
Magretta (2002)	Set of assumptions about how we do things and who we are
Newman & Carpenter (1991)	Have both formal and informal structures
Hawk (1995)	What it's like to work around here
Robbins (2002)	A system of shared meaning held by members that distinguishes the organization from other organizations
Scott (1997)	Organizational culture is not readily observable through external analysis, consists of widely shared values and assumptions that exist at deeper levels of the organization, and define ways in which the business operates.
Wallace & Weese (1995)	Deep-rooted beliefs, values, and assumptions widely shared by organizational members that powerfully shape the identity and behavioral norms for the group

Note. Adapted from Lee (2003). *An examination of organizational culture of selected national governing bodies using the competing values framework*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Northern Colorado. 23.

Scott (1999) argued that it is important to differentiate between organization culture and organization climate because their theoretical foundation is totally different. He mentioned that culture is based on social anthropology and not easily measured by observation, however climate is based on social psychology and can be measured through assessing employees' perceptions about their work environment.

Moran and Volkwein (1992) suggested that climate is established through the underlying culture of an organization. Climate researchers tend to put greater emphasis on organizational members' perceptions of "observable" practices and procedures that are closer to the "surface" of organizational life (Guion, 1973; James & Jones, 1974). Organizational climate enables the industrial/organizational psychologist to identify how the organization is a psychologically meaningful environment for individual organization members (Payne & Mansfield, 1976). On the other hand, culture researchers have not only asserted the importance of a deep understanding of underlying assumptions (Schein, 2004), but also have suggested that sport organizations operated with stable cultures develop their own thick culture rather than adapt to the external environment (Slack & Parent, 2006). Denison (1996) explained the difference between organizational climate and culture in detail in Table 6 and 7.

Table 6

Contrasting Organizational Culture and Organizational Climate Research Perspectives

Differences	Culture Literature	Climate Literature
Epistemology	Contextualized and idiographic	Comparative & nomothetic
Point of View	Emic (native point of view)	Etic (researcher's point of view)
Methodology	Qualitative field observation	Quantitative survey data
Level of Analysis	Underlying values and assumptions	Surface-level manifestations
Temporal Orientation	Historical evolution	A historical snapshot
Theoretical Foundation	Social construction; critical theory	Lewinian field theory
Discipline	Sociology and anthropology	Psychology

Note. Adapted from Denison, D. R. (1996). What is the difference between organizational culture and organizational climate? A native's point of view on a decade of paradigm wars. *Academy of Management Review*, 21(3), 625.

Table 7

Areas of Convergence in the Culture and Climate Literature

Areas of Convergence	Examples of Convergence
Definition of the phenomenon	Both focus on the internal social psychological environment as a holistic, collectively defined social context
Central Theoretical Issues	Shared dilemma: context is created by interaction, but context determines interaction Definition of domain varies greatly by individual theorist Dynamics between whole and part <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Multiple layers of analysis - Dimension vs. holistic analysis - Subcultures vs. unitary culture
Content & Substance	High overlap between the dimensions studies by quantitative culture researcher and earlier studies by climate researchers
Epistemology & Methods	Recent emergence of quantitative culture studies and qualitative climate studies
Theoretical Foundations	Roots of culture research are in social constructionism Roots of climate research are in Lewinian field theory Many recent studies have crossed or combined these traditions

Note. Adapted from Denison, D. R. (1996). What is the difference between organizational culture and organizational climate? A native's point of view on a decade of paradigm wars. *Academy of Management Review*, 21(3), 627

Elements of Organizational Culture

Culture is composed of several different levels. 'Level' means the degree to which cultural phenomenon is visible to the observer. Level of culture tends to be easy to observe and very difficult to decipher. Major levels are artifacts, espoused beliefs and values, and underlying assumptions (Schein, 2004).

The level of artifacts is situated at the surface and tangible. It includes phenomena that one can see, hear, and feel when one meets an unfamiliar culture such as architecture, language, technology, products, artistic creations, style, published lists of values, observable rituals and ceremonies, etc. (Schein, 2004). Young (2000) spoke that artifacts are quite easy to understand compared to other cultural levels. Artifacts bring immediate insight. Gagliardi (1990) said one's own response to physical artifacts can lead to the identification of major images and root metaphors that reflect the deepest level of the culture. Schein (2004) asserted that it is dangerous to infer the culture of an organization from artifacts alone because there always exist one's interpretations associated with feeling and reactions.

Espoused beliefs and values appear through formal and informal behaviors (Siehl & Martin, 1988). Schein (2004) referred to espoused values as "a way of dealing with the uncertainty of intrinsically uncontrollable or difficult event" (p. 20). Nelson and Quick (2003) said that values are testable in the physical environment and only by social consensus. Champoux (1996) mentioned that there are two different types of values: espoused values and in-use (enacted) values. The espoused values guide what veteran members say in a given situation and the in-use (enacted) values guide the behavior of organization members.

When members of an organization are in congruence with espoused values, it can be said that basic assumption is held in an organization. Schein (2004) said basic assumptions are values taken for granted, non-confrontable, nondebatable, therefore they are difficult to change. Basic assumptions are similar to what Argyris (1976) called "theories-in-use" – the implicit assumptions guide the group members' behavior, ways of

thinking, and feeling. Young (2000) explained basic assumptions are “the visible but identifiable reason why group members perceive, think, and feel the way they do about external survival and internal operational issues such as a mission, means of problem solving, relationships, time and space” (p. 19). Nelson and Quick (2003) summarized elements in basic assumptions as “relationship to environment, nature of reality, time and space, nature of human nature, nature of human activity, and nature of human relationships” (p. 539).

Schein (2004) concluded his explanation of the levels of culture. He noted that in analyzing culture, people have to recognize that artifacts are easy to observe but hard to decipher, therefore espoused beliefs and values may only reflect rationalizations and aspirations. In order to understand culture in a group, one has to identify what are the basic shared assumptions of that culture and understand the learning process of how the basic assumptions come to be.

Rousseau (1990) demonstrated layers of culture saying “Culture has many elements, layered along a continuum of subjectivity and accessibility” (p. 157). Choi (2005) summarized them into five levels. First, things physically manifested and products made out of cultural activity (e.g., logo and symbols) are called artifacts. Second, structural patterns of activities such as decision-making, communication and coordination are reflected through patterns of behavior. Outsiders are able to observe those activities and they help solve basic organization problems. Third, behavior norms are established through members’ beliefs about which are acceptable or unacceptable. Members come to predict norms of behavior mutually. Fourth, value should be prioritized to certain states or outcomes, such as innovation versus predictabilities and risk seeking versus risk

avoidance. Finally, even the organizational members are not aware of fundamental assumptions directly.

Robbins (2002) pointed out the different degrees of the characteristics in an organization that compose its diverse organizational culture. The six primary characteristics of organizational culture consist of the following:

1. Innovation and risk taking – The degree to which employees are encouraged to be innovative and take risks.
2. Attention to detail – The degree to which employees are expected to exhibit precision, analysis, and attention to detail.
3. Outcome orientation – The degree to which management focuses on results or outcomes rather than on the techniques and processes used to achieve those outcomes.
4. People orientation – The degree to which management decisions take into consideration the effect of outcomes on people within the organization.
5. Team orientation – The degree to which work activities are organized around teams rather than individuals.
6. Aggressiveness – The degree to which organizational activities emphasize maintaining the status quo in contrast to growth. (p. 235)

The different values or assumptions in an organization can influence the assessment of organizational culture. Therefore, the measures of organizational culture have moved “from a systems theory framework toward qualitative measurement of subjective variables, such as rituals and stories from the workplace” (Colyer, 2000).

Furthermore, Schein (2004) stated, “I have not found a reliable, quick way to identify cultural assumptions” (p. 135).

Champoux (1996) summarized dimensions of organizational culture. There are seven dimensions such as levels, pervasiveness, implicitness, imprinting, political, plurality, and interdependency, and each dimension suggests different ways to understand a culture (see Figure 5).

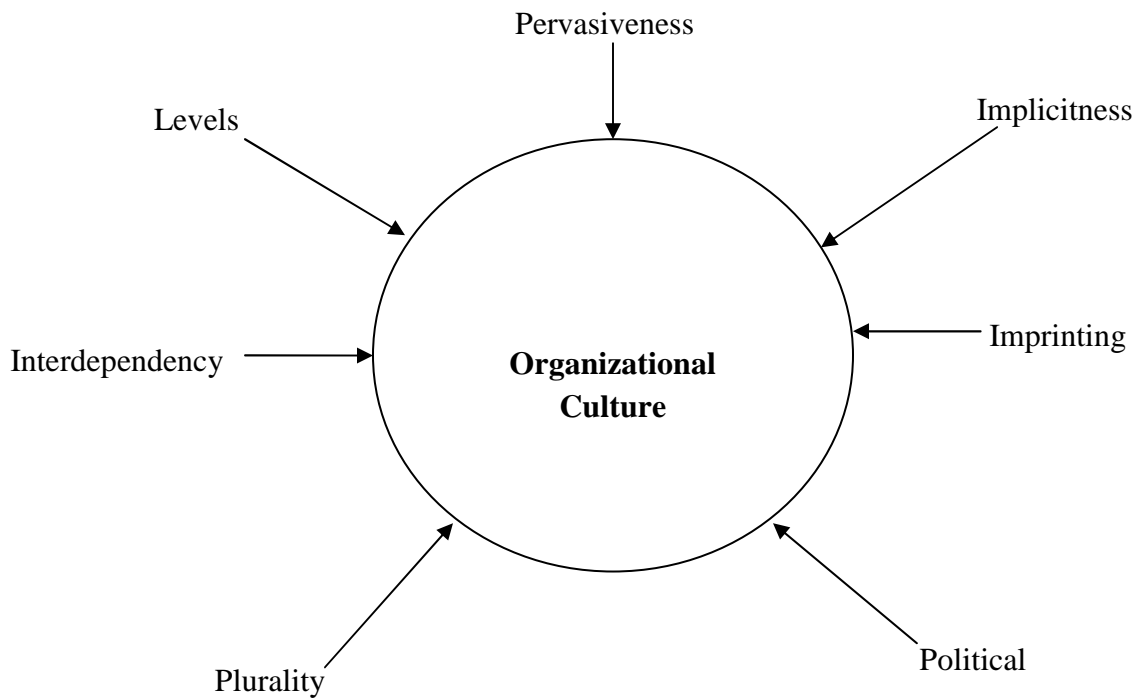


Figure 5. Seven Dimensions of Organizational Culture. Adapted from Champoux, J. E. (1996). Organizational behavior: Integrating individuals, groups, and processes. St. Paul, MN: West. 104.

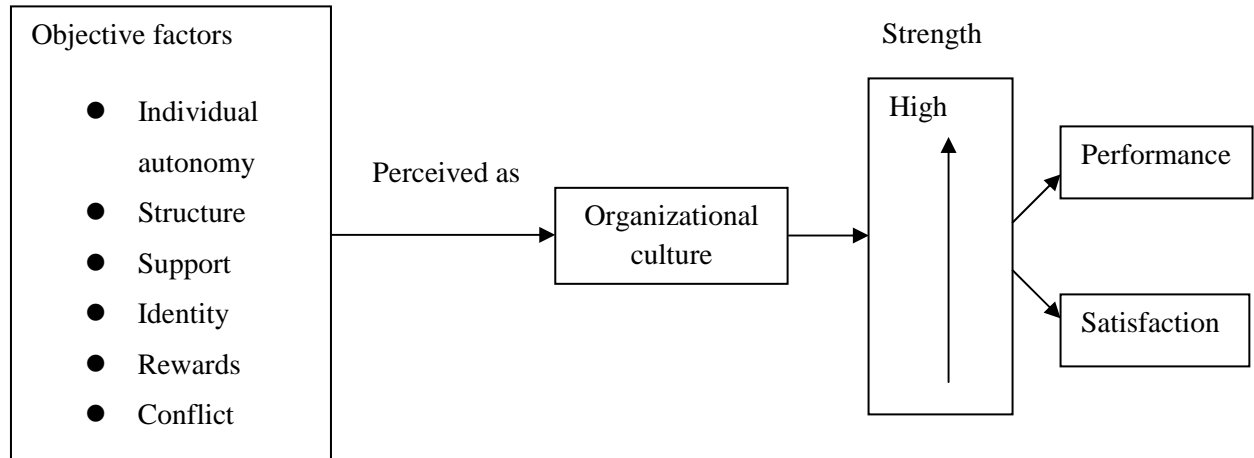
The levels dimension encompasses the different degrees of visibility in organizational culture, for instance, physical qualities of an organizational culture are easy to see but core values are least visible. The pervasiveness dimension explains how

culture is wide-spread in an organization. Champoux (1996) explained “culture affects people, their beliefs, their relationships in and outside the organization, their views of the organization’s product or service, their views of competitors, and much more” (p. 104). The implicitness dimension is about how veteran employees often take the core values of the organization’s culture for granted. Sometimes veteran employees assume that everyone knows the core values, therefore they do not think it necessary to explain those core values to newcomers. The imprinting dimension is about culture having deep roots in the organizational history, so the values and beliefs are imprinted on the members of the culture so strongly, making it hard to change. The political dimension views culture as closely related to systems of power in an organization. As culture is attached to the values like coalitions, cliques, cabals, and alliances so strongly, it resists change. The plurality dimension describes how subcultures exist in most organizations. When managers try to change an organization’s culture, power struggles can occur among those subcultures. The interdependency dimension explains that complex connections can exist between subcultures, beliefs, and symbols. Cultures also are connected to external environment of the organization.

Effect of Culture

Nelson and Quick (2003) summarized four basic functions of organizational culture. First, culture enables the members to have a sense of identity which encourages them to be more committed to the organization. Second, culture helps employees better interpret what the events of the organization mean. Third, culture strengthens the values in the organization. Lastly, culture helps in shaping the behavior of the organization members.

Robbins (1994) asserted that there is a strong relationship between organizational culture and satisfaction, but individual differences moderate the relationship. The following figure demonstrates how organizational culture impacts performance and satisfaction.



*Figure 6. How Organizational Culture Impacts Performance and Satisfaction. Adapted from Robbins, S. P. (1994). *Organizational Behavior*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: A Simon & Schuster Company, 447.*

Robbins (1994) argued that satisfaction will be highest if individual needs and organizational culture coincide. The strength of organizational culture ranges from low to high. High satisfaction yields good performance. Defining the boundaries of the organization to facilitate individual interaction and limiting the scope of information processing to appropriate levels help organization build culture that create higher performance (Krefting & Frost, 1985).

Kotter and Heskett (1992) reviewed three perspectives to see the relationship between organization culture and performance: The strong culture perspective, the fit perspective, and the adaptation perspective.

The first one is the strong culture perspective. A strong culture is “an organizational culture with a consensus on the values that drive the company and with an intensity that is recognizable even to outsiders. Thus, strong culture is deeply held and widely shared. It is highly resistant to change” (p. 546). Kotter and Heskett (1992) asserted that strong cultures facilitate performance because, first, all employees share common goals, second, strong cultures generate high motivation, and third, strong cultures can control organization with no oppression of bureaucracy.

The second perspective is the fit perspective. The fit perspective means that a culture is good only when it fits the organization’s strategy. The fit perspective is useful in explaining short-term performance but is inappropriate for long-term performance.

The third one is the adaptation perspective. Once culture is established in an organization, it tends to perpetuate and be stable. But it does not mean that culture never changes. Kotter and Heskett (1992) said “turnover of key members, rapid assimilation of new employees, diversification into very different businesses, and geographical expansion can weaken or change a culture” (p. 7). They wrote in detail as follows:

1. Corporate culture can have a significant impact on a firm’s long-term economic performance.
2. Corporate culture will probably be an even more important factor in determining the success or failure of firms in the next decade.
3. Corporate cultures that inhibit strong long-term financial performance are not rare; they develop easily, even in firms that are full of reasonable and intelligent people.
4. Although tough to change, corporate cultures can be made more

performance enhancing. (pp. 11-12)

The difference between adaptive organization cultures and nonadaptive organization cultures is dramatic. The following table summarizes the difference.

Table 8

Adaptive versus Nonadaptive Organizational Culture

	Adaptive organizational culture	Nonadaptive organizational culture
Core values	Most managers care deeply about customers, stockholders, and employees. They also strongly value people and processes that can create useful change (e.g., leadership up and down the management hierarchy)	Most managers care mainly about themselves, their immediate work group, or some product (or technology) associated with that work group. They value the orderly and risk-reducing management process much more highly than leadership initiatives
Common behavior	Managers pay close attention to all their constituencies, especially customers, and initiate change when needed to serve their legitimate interests, even if that entails taking some risks	Managers tend to behave somewhat insularly, politically, and bureaucratically. As a result, they do not change their strategies quickly to adjust to or take advantage of changes in their business environment

Note: From Kotter & Heskett (1992). *Corporate Culture and Performance*. The Free Press: New York, NY, 51

Assessing Organizational Culture

Many scholars argued that assessing organizational culture with quantitative method can be problematic. Proponents of qualitative methods assert that culture is more appropriately assessed qualitatively because:

1. The fundamental content of culture is unconscious and highly subjective.
2. Interactive probing is required to access otherwise inaccessible and

unconscious cultural material.

3. Each culture is idiosyncratic and unique and requires nonstandardized assessments. (Schneider, 1990, p. 166)

Schneider (1990) noted that even though using quantitative method is controversial in culture study, quantitative assessment offers “opportunity for inter-organizational comparisons to assess often-assumed relations between culture and organization success, strategy, and goals” (p. 185). Quantitative methods are valuable in terms of precision, comparability, and objectivity (Nelson & Quick, 2003). Ouchi and Wilkins (1985) argued that “the whole point of the contemporary study of organizational culture is to go beyond the method of the anthropologist by applying multivariate statistical analysis” (p. 478).

This study will use Organizational Culture Assessment Questionnaire (OCAQ) by Sashkin (2001) to measure the culture of university soccer teams in Korea. Using this instrument measures I will measure four factors as follows:

1. Managing change: It reflects how well an organization is able to adapt to and deal with changes in its environment.
2. Achieving goals: It measures the extent to which an organization is effective in achieving goals, the extent that there are coherent and aligned goals and the degree to which shared values support organizational improvement.
3. Coordinated teamwork: It is the measure of the extent to which the effort of individuals and groups within the organization are tied together, coordinated, and sequenced so that everyone’s work efforts fit together effectively.

4. Cultural strength: It is a measure of the extent to which members of the organization agree on the values and extent to which certain core values are present. (p. 22)

Leadership and Organizational Culture

Culture is a dynamic phenomenon and influenced by leader behavior. Leaders are those who help shape the culture. Leadership and culture are two sides of the same coin. Cultural norms define how an organization will define leadership and leaders create and manage culture. Leadership and culture are conceptually intertwined with each other (Schein, 2004). Schein (2004) explained that culture begins with leaders by imposing their own values and assumptions on a group. If the assumptions imposed come to be taken for granted in a group where the leadership is regarded as acceptable, and then it will be defined as a culture. When certain assumptions do not work any longer facing some difficulties, leadership comes into play once more perceiving the limitations of one's own culture and the culture is evolved adaptively. He argued that organizational culture starts with the founders of the organization and filters down throughout the hierarchy, and organizational leaders will likely continue to try to shape culture so that it is consistent with the organization's goals. However, by definition, organizational culture is shared understanding and acceptance among staff members of what is valued and expected in an organization, thus "it may be directed, but it is not ultimately determined, from above" (MacIntosh & Doherty, 2005, p. 3). Therefore, cultural understanding is essential for all of the organization members, especially for the leaders (Schein, 2004).

Schneider (1994) also asserted the intimate relationship between culture and leadership by mentioning leaders build paradigms. He said “How the leaders of an organization believe things should be done drives the kind of culture that is established” (p. 10). According to Kuhn (1970), paradigm is defined as a “constellation of concepts, values, perceptions, and practices shared by a community which forms a particular vision of reality that is the basis of the way a community organizes itself” (p. 11). In other words, a paradigm is the way people understand and interpret the world. Schneider (1994) argued the importance of culture in an organization for following reasons:

1. It provides consistency for an organization and its people.
2. It provides order and structure for activity within an organization.
3. It establishes an internal way of life for people.
 - a. It provides boundaries and ground rules.
 - b. It establishes communications patterns.
 - c. It establishes membership criteria.
4. It determines the conditions for internal effectiveness.
 - a. It sets the conditions for reward and punishment.
 - b. It sets up expectations and priorities.
 - c. It determines the nature and use of power.
5. It strongly influences how an organization is structured.
6. It sets the patterns for internal relationships among people.
7. It defines effective and ineffective performance.
8. It fixes an organization’s approach to management.
9. It limits strategy.

10. It is fundamental to an organization's productivity.

11. It parallels individual character. (pp. 15-16)

Managing Organization's Culture

Managing organization's culture is as important as shaping it. In managing organization's culture, the role of leader is very significant. Schein (2004) suggested five elements to sustain and reinforce the organization's culture.

The first element is what managers pay attention to. Schein (2004) noted that paying attention means "anything from what is noticed and commented on, to what is measured, controlled, rewarded, and in other ways systematically dealt with" (p. 225). If leaders are consistent in what they pay attention to, measure, and control, employees get clear ideas about what should be regarded important in the organization. If leaders are inconsistent, employees waste much time trying to understand meaning of their leaders. Hoeber and Frisby (2001) warned that leaders may not be able to figure out incongruence between organizational values and practices if they simply depend on the dominant narrative.

The second element is how leaders react to crises. How leaders deal with crises suggests a powerful message about culture. Schein (2004) asserted that crises help spread culture because "the heightened emotional involvement during such periods increases the intensity of learning (and) if people share intense emotional experiences...they are more likely to remember what they have learned" (p. 230). Employees may realize the true color of their organization in crises, so pay close attention to how leaders react to the crises.

The third element is how leaders behave. Leaders can stress the values they are seeking through role modeling, teaching, and coaching. By demonstrating model behavior, leaders can encourage their employees to be more entrepreneurial.

The fourth element is how leaders allocate rewards and status. Rewarding what is valued is important in sustaining the organization's values. Schein (2004) noted "an organization's leaders can quickly get across their own priorities, values, and assumptions by consistently linking rewards and punishments to the behavior they are concerned with" (p. 234).

The fifth element is how leaders hire and fire individuals. How leaders hire and fire is a powerful way to reinforce an organizational culture. Leaders tend to look for individuals who share similar values with current organization members. Slack and Parent (2006) pointed out that while a homogenous group of people may reinforce a sport organization's culture, managers must be aware of the fact that if a manager keeps on reproducing a certain culture in a group, it can keep the group out from the upper levels of management (Kanter, 1977).

Studies about Leadership and Organization Culture

Organization culture is has become a popular area of study for sport teams, organizations and business (Slack & Parent, 2006). Cameron and Freeman (1991) asserted that a great amount of attention has been paid to the concept of organizational culture over the last several years. MacIntosh and Doherty (2007) argued that many authors have studied to focus on the nature and impact of organizational culture in a variety of contexts, including university campus recreation departments (Costa & Daprano, 2001; Weese, 1995, 1996), intercollegiate athletic departments (Scott, 1997;

Smart & Wolfe, 2000; Southhall, 2001), fitness organizations (MacIntosh & Doherty, 2005; Wallace & Weese, 1995), federal and stage sport organizations (Colyer, 2000; Kent & Weese, 2000; Pawlak, 1983; Smith & Shilbury, 2004), and sport organizations in general (Doherty & Chelladurai, 1999; Westerbeek, 1999). They also said that the leader should develop their power over managing culture to increase the success of their organizations or business.

MacIntosh and Doherty (2007) examined the external perception of organization culture and its relationship to clients' satisfaction with the organization. They examined clients' perception in the Canadian fitness industry satisfaction by asking whether they extended the membership or not. It was revealed that the values of performance, fitness and peak attitude were apparent, however the values of trust, innovation, integrity and communication were less apparent in the organization. MacIntosh and Doherty concluded that organizational culture can definitely make clients satisfied or not which affects extension of their membership. In other words, the scope of culture extends beyond the company boundaries. Corporate values are sure to shape clients' attitudes and future behavior.

Weese (1995) investigated the concepts of transformational leadership and organizational culture within campus recreation programs of Big Ten and Mid-American Conference. His three research questions were about the differences between high transformational leaders and low transformational leaders' impact on culture strength, culture-building activities, and penetrating the organizational culture throughout the top four administrative levels. This study revealed that the campus recreation programs administered by high transformational leaders possessed significantly stronger, positive

cultures than the campus recreational programs administered by low transformational leaders. This was because the high transformational leaders made staff members aware of potential and current customers' wants, needs, and desires.

Weese (1996) went on to investigate the relationship between transformational leadership, organizational culture, and organizational effectiveness in the same programs as his previous study. In this new study, he did not find any significant relationship between transformational leadership and organizational effectiveness, however he did find a significant relationship between the strength of culture and organizational effectiveness.

Wallace and Weese (1995) investigated the relationship between transformational leadership, organizational culture, and job satisfaction in Canadian YMCA organizations. The result indicates that even though there were nonsignificant differences found between the high and low transformational leadership groups for employee job satisfaction, a significant difference exists between the organizational culture of the high and low transformational groups. Transformational leaders develop a vision for the organization so it can be incorporated into the organization's culture. They let subordinates participate in culture-building activities and attain final goals.

Leadership style of coaches can make differences in team effectiveness. Pratt and Eitzen (1989) studied whether authoritarian or democratic forms of leadership are associated with team success. The authoritarian leader regards subordinates as a kind of instrument of the organization. He tends to be rigorous, strong, hierarchical, and impersonal. Many coaches are still authoritarian: being faced with many uncertainties like injuries, weather, bad luck, and so on, they try to control the situation as much as

they can. The democratic leader regards subordinates as a single unit. He emphasizes cooperation and interpersonal relationships, and his leadership style is supervisory rather than controlling. Pratt and Eitzen did not find one style to be more successful than the other. However Pratt and Eitzen found out that the effects of leadership style turned out to be different depending on the gender of the team. For boys' teams, authoritarian coaches were not better than democratic coaches in terms of winning. For girls' teams, highly authoritarian coaches tended to be more effective in winning. The researchers explained these three ways. First, as girls are less skillful, they need a coach who makes them practice longer. Second, as girls' teams are regarded as less important than boys' teams, coaches tend to be authoritarian to strengthen team identity. Third, coaches of girls' teams are more likely to exhibit control by adopting rules than coaches of boys' teams. This research suggests that there is no one right way of coaching. Successful coaches need to be open-minded and should be willing to understand the team culture and its members.

The study of Branch (1990) also demonstrated the behavior of leader as a predictor of organizational effectiveness. Findings indicate that leaders in an effective athletic organization are more predisposed to the accomplishments of goals and tasks than maintaining good interpersonal relationships with subordinates. Branch suggested that further research should be conducted about athletic leadership to confirm the leadership behavior dimensions used in his study were appropriate to measure the phenomena in the sport organization. As his study has its own uniqueness (high competitiveness of Division I-A athletic programs), it cannot be generalized to other situations.

Leadership behavior affects team cohesion. Nicholas (2006) investigated the directional relationship of coaching behavior, team cohesion and performance in high school sports. He concluded, “coaches who rated highest in training and instruction, and positive feedback had teams with higher task and social cohesion” (p. 223).

Organizational culture is a defining factor in the success and failure of organizations it influences by affecting leadership behavior (Coyler, 2000). Coyler’s study demonstrated that there exist cultural dimensions in a sport organization. He mentioned there are differences in the values held by employees and volunteers and this can lead to conflict. He concluded that in order to enhance the effectiveness of the way voluntary members, boards, and employees manage their sport organization, the leader needs to identify the cultural dimensions, understand the tensions, and develop strategies to change the culture.

The Context: University Soccer in Korea

Most of major universities in Korea manage a soccer team. According to Korea Football Association (KFA), there existed 72 university soccer teams participating in University League (U-league) all around region in Korea in the year of 2012. The 72 teams were divided into 8 regional ranges such as Jungbugwon 1, Jungbugwon 2, Jungbugwon 3, Jungbugwon 4, Honamgwon 1, Honamgwon 2, Youngnamgwon 1, and Youngnamgwon 2. Jungbugwon means central regional range, Honamgwon means south west regional range, and Youngnamgwon means south east regional range. Each regional range was composed of 9 teams.

U-league is managed into two levels; Regional range league and Championship. 9 teams in each regional range compete with each other. Among those 9 teams, the best 4 teams can participate in Championship. As there are 8 regional ranges, 32 teams in total can advance into Championship. Regional range league is held from March till September and Championship games are play from October till November every year.

Table 9

University Soccer Teams in U-League

Regional range	Universities
Jungbugwon 1	Sungkyunkwan Univ., Dong-Kuk Univ., Sun-Moon Univ., Kwan-Dong Univ., Pai-Chai Univ., Ho-Seo Univ., Han-Min Univ., Jeju International Univ., Seoul National Univ.
Jungbugwon 2	Kunkuk Univ., Ah-Joo Univ., Hong-Ik Univ., Suwon Univ., Chung-Buk Univ., Chung-Ang Univ., Sang-Ji Univ., Kyunggi Digital Seoul Culture&Art Univ., Chung-Nam Global Cyber Univ.
Jungbugwon 3	Kwang-Woon Univ., Yeon-Sei Univ., Korea Univ., Han-Yang Univ., Myung-Ji Univ., Han-Rah Univ., Kyunggi Univ., Kyunggi International Cyber Univ., Oh-San Univ.
Jungbugwon 4	Yong-In Univ., Kyung-Hee Univ., Sung-Shil Univ., Dan-Kook Univ., Han-nam Univ., Chung-Joo Univ., Han-Jung Univ., Song-Ho Univ., Se-Jong Univ.
Honamgwon 1	Kwang-Ju Univ., Woo-Seok Univ., Cho-Sun Univ., Seo-Nam Univ., Ho-Won Univ., Kun-Jang Univ., Dong-Kang Univ., Junnam Technical Univ., Mok-Po Technical Univ.,
Honamgwon 2	Ho-Nam Univ., Jeon-Ju Univ., Cho-Dang Univ., Dae-Bul Univ., Dong-Shin Univ., Nam-Bu Univ., Won-Kwang Univ., Cho-Sun Technical Univ.
Youngnamgwon 1	Dong-Eui Univ., Dong-Ah Univ., Dae-Gu Univ., In-Je Univ., Dae-Kyung Univ., Han-Kook International Univ., An-Dong Technical Univ., Kyung-Ju Univ., Mun-Kyung Univ.
Youngnamgwon 2	Young-Nam Univ., Ul-San Univ., JeonbukYewon Fine-Art Univ., Bu-Kyung Univ., JeonjuKijeon Univ., Kun-Dong Univ., Young-Dong Univ., Dae-Gu Fine-Art Univ.

Note: U-League Game Schedule. (n.d.). Retrieved Aug. 3, 2012, from <http://www.kfa.or.kr/>.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

The following chapter describes the methodology employed in conducting this study. This study was designed to examine preferred and actual coach leadership behavior, team culture, and how these are related with team performance in university soccer teams in Korea. This chapter presents a detailed description of the procedures to be used in this study. It is organized in the following manner: The Setting, Population and Sample, Instrumentation, Data Collection, and Data Analysis.

The Setting

This study was conducted utilizing players in the university soccer teams participating in U-league and registered to KFA (Korea Football Association). The population consist of seventy two university soccer teams in 8 regional ranges in 2012, as was described in *The Context: University Soccer in Korea*. As soccer is one of the most popular sports, most of universities in Korea have a school soccer team. Usually teams of prestigious universities rank high in matches, but interesting exceptions always happen depending on various factors including team members, teamwork, coaching staffs, administrative support, etc. Some universities have a female soccer team, but this study excluded all the female soccer teams because they don't participate in U-league and have their own league called Female University Soccer Club League.

Population and Sample

This study was conducted on players of the teams participating in U-league in Korea. The population of this study was all the players in the U-league. As was explained above, there were 72 teams participating in U-league in the year of 2012. Considering there were around 35 to 45 players per team, the population was about 2600. Among 72 teams, only 36 teams can advance into the Championship competition. After initially advancing, the 36 qualifying teams compete in a single elimination so that they are narrowed down into 16, 8, 4, 2, and the one final winner. In order to figure out the differences between high performing teams and low performing teams, samples of high performing teams were chosen from the teams in the Championship competition and samples of low performing teams were chosen from the players of the teams which failed to qualify for the Championship competition. Figure 7 describes the sampling procedure briefly.

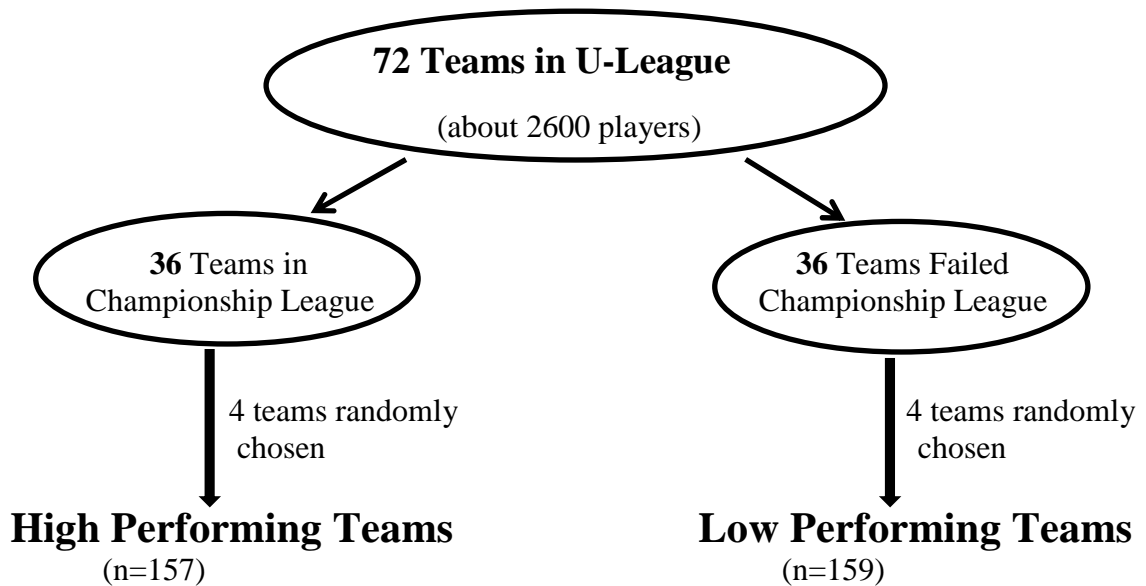


Figure 7. Difference in High Performing Teams and Low Performing Teams

Cluster random sampling method was used as a way to select samples. Cluster random sampling is similar to simple random sampling except that groups rather than individuals are randomly selected. It is an efficient method when it is impossible to select a random sample of individuals. It is convenient to implement in teams consuming less time and effort. However, the chance of selecting a sample that is not representative of the population is larger than simple random sampling method (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006). The researcher selected four teams in each of high and low performing teams in order to ensure better representativeness of the samples. In addition, the researcher intended to evenly distribute the number of players in each of high and low performing teams. As the researcher was working in a university in Korea and used to be in the soccer industry, he was able to take advantage of human networks, which enabled making the selection of sample teams quite easier. Many Korean university soccer teams go out of the country to practice in warm places, so it was necessary for the researcher to select teams that he could be conveniently accessed considering the time and effort that could be devoted to the study.

A total of 350 questionnaires were distributed of which 332 were collected. Among those collected, 16 had incomplete answers. After eliminating the 16 incomplete questionnaires, 316 questionnaires were retained for the study for subsequent analysis. Frankel and Wallen (2006) noted that a sample should be as large as the researcher can obtain with a reasonable expenditure of time and energy. They suggested that minimum number of subject needed for descriptive studies were 100 and correlational studies were at least 50. In addition, for factor analysis to be conducted, it was necessary to obtain a sample size of at least five times the number of tested variables (Hair, Anderson, Tatham,

& Black, 1995). As there were 32 items in MLQ and 24 items in OCAQ, the sample size of 316 was adequate to meet the criteria. Therefore, responses of 316 players from four high performing teams and four low performing teams were used in this research.

Instrumentation

Questionnaires were used to profile leadership behaviors of coaches and the culture of university soccer teams in Korea. The instrument is composed of four parts: 1) Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ, Bass & Avolio, 1995), 2) Organizational Culture Assessment Questionnaire (OCAQ, Sashkin, 2001), 3) Team record in U-league in 2012, and 4) Demographic Information Questionnaire. The researcher got permission from the inventors of the questionnaires to use and translate the original questionnaires from English into Korean.

Instrument Purification

All the scales used for this study have been proved to have sound properties through validation studies in various settings. However, this was the first time they have been used in U-league setting in Korea, so an instrument purification process was done in order to ensure reliability and validity.

“Fundamentally, content validity depends on the extent to which an empirical measurement reflects a specific domain of content” (Carmines & Zeller, 1979, p. 20). Chatterji (2003) suggested a panel of experts should conduct a structured review of each of the questionnaires to ensure their content relevance and content representativeness. Clark-Carter (1997) also mentioned that the preferred method for checking content validity is to employ a panel of experts in the field. To establish the content validity of

each of the constructs, the questionnaires were submitted to a panel of three experts who possess a substantial amount of knowledge and research experience in the field of sport management. First, the panel of experts was provided with detailed information about the fundamental purpose and overall design of the study. They reviewed each of the questionnaires carefully to determine whether the individual items adequately represent the domains of the underlying constructs in terms of wording, clarity, format, and adequacy.

MLQ and OCAQ were developed in English originally and have never been applied to U-league players in Korea. They needed to be translated into Korean to be administered in a Korean setting. The researcher adapted Song's (2002) version of MLQ to fit to the context of university soccer teams in Korea, and a bilingual expert back-translated them into English to ensure translation equivalence (Douglas & Craig, 1983). Through this process, the researcher identified whether or not there were any disagreements on the underlying constructs that were influenced by the translation process.

In order to extract the factors that explain the most variation in a set of variables, a principal component analysis with varimax rotation was conducted among many other rotation methods such as quartimax, varimax, oglimin, quartimin, orthoblique, etc. as it is orthogonal (uncorrelated) with each other factor (Joreskog & Sorbom, 1979) and most commonly used rotation criterion (Stevens, 1986). When the factors were determined, the items that were cross-loaded or showed low loadings were eliminated according to following criteria; 1) the Guttman-Kaiser rule, which eliminates or retains items with modification if the items obtain an Eigenvalue of smaller than 1.0, and 2) items with a

factor loading equal to or greater than .50 without double loading were retained. Even though factor loadings greater than .30 are considered significant and loadings of .40 are considered more important, loading greater than .50 are considered very significant. Therefore it can be said that the larger the absolute size of the factor loading, the more significant the loading is in interpreting the factor matrix (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1992).

Cronbach's alpha coefficients were calculated to examine the reliability and internal consistency of the scales. Cronbach's alpha coefficient can range from 0.0 to 1.0 and reflects the strength of the relationship between items within a scale. It is reported that internal consistency greater than .70 should be reliable (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). In addition, Bass and Avolio (1995) explained that the alpha reliability coefficient for the total items and for each leadership factor scale ranged from .74 to .94. Therefore, Cronbach's Alpha was calculated with the minimum cut-off set at .70 for this research.

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ, 2nd edition)

The survey instrument used to identify leadership style is the commercially available Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Form 5x-Short) developed by Bass and Avolio (1990). According to Bass and Avolio (1990), the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) suggests the most validated and efficient measure of not only a full range of leadership behavior but also transformational leadership to researchers. It was originally developed by Bass in 1985 to measure transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership styles. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Short Form (MLQ 5X) is a version modified from the original MLQ in 1990. Originally MLQ consisted of 90 items, divided into 13 scales, but MLQ 5X consists of 45 items including

the twelve Full Range Leadership styles, rater and leader forms. It is the most frequently used by researchers (Bass & Avolio, 1990). The survey relies on Likert-scale responses ranging from *frequently, if not always (5), fairly often (4), sometimes (3), once in a while (2), to not at all (1)*.

MLQ 5X was not modified from its original form for statements contained within it. Bass and Avolio (1995) reported the alpha reliability coefficient of the MLQ 5X ranges from .74 to .94, which is regarded as reasonable according to Nunally and Bernstein (1994) saying an internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha) greater than .70 is reasonably reliable. The instrument came to be an industry standard in education as well as private sector over the decade of the 1990s (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999).

The questions measure four components: employees' perceptions of transformational leadership factors, transactional leadership factors, laissez-faire leadership factors and outcomes of leadership. Transformational leadership measures five components: idealized influence (attributed), idealized influence (behavior), inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. Transactional leadership measures three components: contingent rewards, management by exception (active) and management by exception (passive). Laissez-faire leadership occurs when the leader doesn't intervene even when things go wrong (Bass & Avolio, 1990). The outcomes scale consists of extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction. As this study focused on transactional and transformational leadership style, the researcher removed questions about Laissez-faire leadership and outcomes scale. Therefore, the total number of survey questions came down from 45 to 32.

Song (2002) conducted a study about the relationship between transactional/transformational leadership behaviors and organizational culture in selected south Korean sport teams in 2002, and used MLQ (2nd edition) invented by Bass. He translated it into Korean in order to apply to a Korean population. As the population of this study is Korean also, the researcher used Song's translated version with some alterations to make it reasonable to university soccer players.

Organizational Culture Assessment Questionnaire (OCAQ)

Sashkin (2001) developed an instrument called the Organizational Culture Assessment Questionnaire (OCAQ) in order to identify and measure quantitatively the type and strength of the culture within an organization. He mentions the instrument assesses how members in the organization think, behave, and view their organizational environment. Parsons (1960) provided a foundation for the OCAQ by developing a framework and theory of action in social systems.

The original OCAQ consists of 30 questions and is composed of five parts: managing change, achieving goals, coordinating teamwork, building a strong culture, and customer orientation. Each of the five OCAQ scales include six items and each item is scored on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 5 "*completely true*", 4 "*mostly true*", 3 "*partly true*", 2 "*slightly true*", to 1 "*not true*." For the present study, customer orientation was not included because players cannot be regarded as customers to the coach, so only 24 questions were used. Song (2002) used OCAQ developed by Sashkin (2001) in his study about sport organizations in Korea. Song translated it into Korean language for Korean population and made some changes to the instrument to fit his study. As the population of this study is Korean, the researcher used Song's translated version

with some alterations to make it reasonable to university soccer players. Nunally & Bernstein (1994) said an internal consistency greater than .70 is reliable. Reliability of the OCAQ is .89 according to Hall (1999) in a study of schools and .81 for Korean sports team (Song, 2002), which was reasonable.

Team Record

As a way to evaluate team performance, team record was used. There was information about ranking, winning score, number of winning, losing, and ties in Korea Football Association official website (www.kfa.or.kr). The record of 2012 U-league was the most updated one, so it was used for the present study.

Demographic Information Questionnaire

The researcher developed a demographic information questionnaire to acquire descriptive information about each subject participating in this study. Questions are composed of name of the team, grade, position, and years of experience.

Data Collection

After being approved by the University of New Mexico Institutional Review Board and the dissertation committee, this research was conducted with players in the selected university soccer teams in Korea. While also working in Korea, the researcher met several university coaches and team managers to explain the purpose and significance of this study as well as the research process including data collection and analysis. The coaches and managers were appreciative of the agenda for this study and promised to help throughout the data collection process. The researcher encouraged participation by discussing the anonymity and confidentiality of the potential subjects and

emphasized how this study can contribute to improved perception of leadership and organizational culture in Korean university soccer. The researcher provided results obtained through the study to all the teams that participated. There was no formalized process necessary for data collection in the university soccer teams as long as the team manager and coach agreed to participate in this study.

The researcher visited all the universities where he got permission to study. Once the coach called a meeting and all the players were gathered in a room, the coach left the room. The researcher explained the purpose and significance of this study and mentioned the anonymity and confidentiality as he did to the coach and team manager. In addition, he set aside time to answer the questions regarding the study and the survey in order for the participants to have in-depth understanding about them. Then, the researcher distributed the survey packet to the players and allowed them one hour to complete it in a private place of their choosing. The survey packet included a cover letter and the questionnaires. The cover letter informed the subjects of purpose of the study and explained the significance of their participation. Also, it ensured them that the information would be kept completely confidential. The participants freely brought the sealed survey packet back to the researcher until the appointed time.

Data Analysis

The Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS version 18.0) was used to compute the data. Statistical analysis was used to analyze each of the research questions.

1. Are there differences in player's preferred and actual coach leadership behaviors?
 - a. Are there differences in player's preferred and actual coach leadership behaviors according to their grade?
 - b. Are there differences in player's preferred and actual coach leadership behaviors according to their position?
 - c. Are there differences in player's preferred and actual coach leadership behaviors according to their years of experience?

One-way ANOVA was used to analyze question 1-a, 1-b, and 1-c. There were four grades in the university; freshman, sophomore, junior, and senior. Player's positions consisted of offense, mid-field, and defense. Experience was divided into 3 categories such as less than 5 years, 5 to 10 years, and more than 10 years. One-way ANOVA was appropriate for comparing group means when more than 2 groups were being compared relative to an independent variable.

2. Are there differences in player's preferred and actual leadership behavior between high and low performance teams?

T-test was used in analyzing question 2. The t-test assessed whether the means of two groups were statistically different from each other. Using t-test, the researcher saw how high performance group and low performance group in U-league were different in terms of preferred and the actual coach leadership behaviors.

3. What leadership behaviors of a coach predict team culture?

- c. How do the transactional coach leadership behaviors predict the team culture?
- d. How do the transformational coach leadership behaviors predict the team culture?

Multiple regressions were used to analyze question 3-a and 3-b. Independent variables were transactional leadership behaviors in 3-a and transformational leadership behaviors in 3-b. Transactional leadership behaviors consist of Contingent Reward, Active Management-by-Exception, and Passive Management-by-Exception. Transformation leadership behaviors are Charisma, Inspirational Motivation, Intellectual Stimulation, and Individualized Consideration.

Multiple regressions are an appropriate statistical method to help determine if independent variables may cause any change in dependent variables. According to Portney and Watkins (1993) "...when a researcher wants to establish the relations as a basis for prediction, regression analysis is used" (p. 457). Pedhazur (1997) noted "multiple regression analysis is eminently suited for analyzing collective and separate effects of two or more independent variables on a dependent variable" (p. 3).

In regression analysis, R^2 indicates the proportion of variance accounted for by the independent variable(s). The larger the proportion, the stronger the effects observed in the study. Tests of regression coefficients indicate whether the effect of a given variable is significantly different from zero. In other words, tests of regression coefficients show whether a given independent variable has a significantly unique relationship with the dependent variable (Pedhazur, 1997). All the statistical significance tests were performed at an alpha level of .05.

4. Are there differences in team's cultural functions between high and low performance teams?

T-test was used to analyze question 4. Organizational cultural functions are Managing Change, Achieving Goals, Coordinated Teamwork, and Cultural Strength. Using the t-test method, differences between high performance and low performance teams in the U-league was investigated.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship of coach leadership style, team culture, and team performance in university soccer teams in Korea. In order to accomplish the purpose, 1) this study focused on leadership of the team's coach; Preferred and actual leadership behaviors were investigated. 2) This study also focused on the team culture. The strength of cultural functions was investigated. And 3) team performance was examined in relation to the leadership style and team culture.

Out of 72 university soccer teams participating in U-league in Korea, four high performing teams and four low performing teams were chosen to participate in the study. Cluster random sampling method was used to make it convenient to choose samples and make them representative of the population.

The instruments used in this study were the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) (Bass & Avolio, 2000), and the Organizational Culture Assessment Questionnaire (OCAQ) (Sashkin, 1996). A Likert-type scale was used for each question in the questionnaires. The scales contained 5 possible responses from 1 (not important at all) to 5 (frequently, if not always) for the actual and preferred leadership behaviors and from 1 (not true) to 5 (completely true) for the team's cultural strength. Data collected were analyzed with statistical methods such as exploratory factor analysis, t-test, ANOVA, and multiple regression analysis.

This chapter shows the statistical analyses of how the results of this research were obtained and explains their interpretations them in detail. Data are presented with the following information: 1) description of subjects according to grade, position, years

of experience, and team performance; 2) exploratory factor analysis of the survey instruments; 3) coach's preferred and actual leadership behavior according to grade, position, and years of experience; 4) coach's preferred and actual leadership behavior according to team performance; 5) the influence of the transactional and transformational coach leadership behaviors on the team's cultural functions; and 6) team's cultural functions according to team performance.

Description of Subjects

A socio-demographic description of the sample follows: The number of subjects was 316 in total. Subjects consisted of 153 freshmen (48.4%), 74 sophomores (23.4%), 62 juniors (19.6%), and 27 seniors (8.5%). There were 35.8% of players in the offense position ($n=113$), 26.3% in the mid-field ($n=83$), and 38.0% in the defense position ($n=120$). More than half of the subjects (64.2%, $n=203$) had 5 to 10 years of soccer experience or more than 10 years (29.7%, $n=94$). Subjects with less than 5 years of soccer experience take only 6% of all subjects ($n=19$). Half of the subjects were in the teams which were advanced into Championship for high performance (49.7%, $n=157$), and the rest of the subjects were in the category of low performance because their teams failed to advance into Championship because of poor performance in the league (50.3%, $n=159$). Table 10 presents the detailed socio-demographic information.

Table 10

Descriptive Statistics for Socio-Demographic Variables (N=316)

Variable	Category	Frequency	%	Cumulative %
Grade	Freshman	153	48.4	48.4
	Sophomore	74	23.4	71.8
	Junior	62	19.6	91.5
	Senior	27	8.5	100.0
Position	Offense	113	35.8	35.8
	Mid-field	83	26.3	62.0
	Defense	120	38.0	100.0
Years of Experience	Less than 5 years	19	6.0	6.0
	5 to 10 years	203	64.2	70.3
	More than 10 years	94	29.7	100.0
Team Performance	High performance	157	49.7	49.7
	Low performance	159	50.3	100.0

Exploratory Factor Analyses and the Reliability of the Survey Instruments

An exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted for this study to identify a viable factor structure for independent variables. An EFA of OCAQ was performed to check if all measured variables were related to each factor by factor loading estimates as well as each measured variable was loaded highly on only one factor and had a smaller loading on the other factor. Twenty four items were chosen to be tested. Principle component analysis with VARIMAX rotation was conducted and the results revealed four factors which supports OCAQ used for the study.

To check the degree of intercorrelations among the variables and the appropriateness of factor analysis, the Bartlett test of sphericity and the Kaiser-Meyer-

Olkin were obtained. The Bartlett test of sphericity showed that the result of the EFA was statistically significant, indicating that the correlation matrix had significant correlations among variables. In addition, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measured to check the degree of each variable to be predicted without error. The score of .80 or above is considered as meritorious and the result of KMO showed .907. Cronbach's alpha coefficients were used to assess the internal consistency of measurements for each construct. A Coefficient alpha over .7 indicates that the construct is reliable (Nunally, 1978). The construct seemed reliable as Cronbach's alpha for all factors were over .7. Table 11 summarizes the results of the EFA.

Table 11

Exploratory Factor Analysis of OCAQ

Attributes		Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
Factor 1:	Q18	.874	.248	.157	-.020
Achieving	Q2	.865	.305	.221	.003
Goals	Q14	.851	.170	.081	.014
	Q22	.844	.250	.195	-.037
	Q10	.822	.261	.137	-.005
	Q6	.781	.140	.088	.023
Factor 2:	Q21	.275	.867	.104	.057
Managing	Q13	.253	.863	.090	-.006
Change	Q1	.288	.854	.222	.016
	Q9	.238	.850	.140	.055
	Q5	.204	.783	.135	-.022
	Q17	.106	.781	.180	.016
Factor 3:	Q24	.177	.134	.857	-.045
Cultural	Q4	.145	.110	.827	-.011
Strength	Q20	.053	.101	.825	.008
	Q8	.196	.188	.821	-.003
	Q12	.089	.140	.818	.018
	Q16	.123	.121	.763	-.079
Factor 4:	Q23	-.008	-.041	-.005	.892
Coordinated	Q3	.036	.042	.003	.877
Teamwork	Q19	-.008	.039	-.024	.834
	Q11	-.057	.065	.004	.808
	Q7	.021	-.021	.072	.625
	Q15	.003	.008	-.140	.570
KMO		.907			
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity		.000 (sig)			
Initial Eigen Value		4.688	4.627	4.333	3.647
Variance (%)		19.535	19.277	18.054	15.197
Cumulative Variance (%)		19.535	38.812	56.866	72.063
Cronbach's Alpha		.943	.938	.917	.858

An EFA of the MLQ for preferred and actual leadership behavior was also performed. 31 items for each were chosen to be tested. Like an EFA of OCAQ, principle component analysis with VARIMAX rotation was conducted and the results revealed seven factors for each MLQ which supports the proposed model of the study. The Bartlett

test of sphericity showed that the result of the EFA was statistically significant, indicating that the correlation matrix had significant correlations among variables. In addition, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin score of MLQ for preferred leadership behavior came out as .864 and for actual leadership behavior was .887, which is considered as meritorious. The construct seemed reliable as Cronbach's alpha for all factors were over .7. Table 12 and 13 summarize the results of the EFA.

Table 12

Exploratory Factor Analysis of MLQ for Preferred Leadership Behaviors

Attributes		Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6	Factor 7
Factor 1: Charisma	Q30	.928	.028	.101	.118	.164	.134	.092
	Q5	.857	.047	.044	.057	.105	.126	.073
	Q8	.836	.073	.126	.043	.114	.128	.023
	Q16	.816	-.006	.071	.133	.148	.090	.099
	Q19	.805	.092	.045	.105	.146	.069	.107
	Q21	.803	.050	.088	.110	.134	.094	.051
	Q12	.792	-.025	.021	.093	.040	.109	.092
Factor 2: Management- by-Exception Passive	Q3	.046	.938	.042	.057	-.045	.029	-.061
	Q10	.079	.932	.046	.050	-.034	.015	-.076
	Q18	.030	.913	.074	.046	-.013	.061	-.084
	Q15	.051	.910	.054	-.017	-.050	.041	-.019
Factor 3: Inspirational Motivation	Q32	.086	.037	.922	.092	.011	.022	.072
	Q24	.100	.056	.908	.035	.019	.060	.019
	Q7	.093	.043	.907	.118	.026	.015	-.026
	Q11	.108	.081	.905	.038	.047	.039	-.009
Factor 4: Intellectual Stimulation	Q27	.192	.034	.080	.900	.128	.162	.072
	Q29	.151	.033	.058	.872	.129	.132	.034
	Q6	.105	.012	.077	.871	.138	.086	-.004
	Q2	.102	.061	.079	.819	.111	.026	.135
Factor 5: Contingent Reward	Q31	.222	-.075	.021	.168	.905	.042	.096
	Q14	.175	-.041	-.012	.077	.888	.021	.075
	Q1	.146	-.039	.010	.160	.812	.030	.045
	Q9	.158	-.001	.082	.096	.804	.042	.050
Factor 6: Management- by-Exception Active	Q22	.190	.069	.067	.176	.035	.882	.036
	Q4	.142	-.006	.069	.085	.041	.871	.029
	Q25	.131	.028	.004	.107	.061	.862	-.043
	Q20	.142	.057	.002	.021	-.003	.828	.059
Factor 7: Individualized Consideration	Q17	.118	-.044	.052	.060	.033	.019	.873
	Q28	.045	-.027	.017	.094	.089	.032	.868
	Q26	.119	-.130	.006	.064	.082	.044	.862
	Q13	.132	-.035	-.021	.001	.043	-.014	.829
KMO		.864						
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity		.000 (sig)						
Initial Eigen Value		5.278	3.486	3.415	3.237	3.127	3.119	3.066
Variance (%)		17.026	11.246	11.016	10.442	10.086	10.063	9.890
Cumulative Variance (%)		17.026	28.272	39.288	49.731	59.817	69.880	79.770
Cronbach's Alpha		.942	.948	.941	.919	.906	.901	.894

Table 13

Exploratory Factor Analysis of MLQ for Actual Leadership Behaviors

Attributes		Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6	Factor 7
Factor 1: Charisma	Q19	.865	.162	.108	.138	-.015	.142	.052
	Q3	.852	.114	.058	.133	-.042	.170	.083
	Q21	.838	.215	.020	.126	.005	.040	.037
	Q30	.836	.164	.085	.117	-.015	.146	.086
	Q16	.828	.166	.145	.075	-.063	.144	.100
	Q5	.826	.158	.141	.133	-.019	.100	.077
	Q12	.523	-.132	.031	.064	.006	.094	.052
Factor 2: Contingent Reward	Q14	.181	.864	.058	.112	-.075	.278	.062
	Q9	.110	.857	.049	.110	-.052	.156	.056
	Q1	.186	.854	.062	.127	-.046	.146	.063
	Q31	.160	.844	.031	.137	-.035	.239	.046
Factor 3: Inspirational Motivation	Q32	.122	.028	.906	.024	.054	.085	.043
	Q7	.127	.048	.894	.005	.067	.106	.101
	Q24	.079	.071	.889	.073	.053	.069	.079
	Q11	.121	.035	.889	.032	.007	.082	.053
Factor 4: Individualized Consideration	Q26	.212	.128	.025	.903	-.174	.158	.078
	Q17	.149	.122	.055	.877	-.098	.145	.060
	Q13	.154	.103	-.009	.877	-.077	.114	.077
	Q28	.186	.138	.084	.823	-.188	.160	.036
Factor 5: Management- by-Exception Passive	Q3	-.027	-.022	.050	-.145	.911	-.018	-.018
	Q15	-.018	-.034	.014	-.111	.906	-.086	.044
	Q10	-.004	-.034	.036	-.067	.883	-.048	.061
	Q18	-.046	-.092	.077	-.130	.879	-.001	.009
Factor 6: Intellectual Stimulation	Q29	.202	.188	.115	.171	-.068	.849	.087
	Q2	.187	.238	.146	.122	-.057	.826	.156
	Q27	.168	.225	.073	.148	-.068	.812	.067
	Q6	.215	.189	.074	.154	.007	.770	-.020
Factor 7: Management- by-Exception Active	Q20	.123	.012	.036	.015	.008	.092	.886
	Q22	.036	-.020	.090	.079	.044	.112	.857
	Q4	.101	.077	.036	.083	.085	.107	.829
	Q25	.082	.097	.076	.029	-.031	-.061	.599
KMO		.887						
Bertlett's Test of Sphericity		.000 (sig)						
Initial Eigen Value		4.985	3.381	3.358	3.350	3.335	3.110	2.695
Variance (%)		16.081	10.905	10.834	10.808	10.757	10.031	8.694
Cumulative Variance (%)		16.081	26.987	37.820	48.628	59.385	69.416	78.110
Cronbach's Alpha		.793	.929	.891	.940	.926	.908	.745

Research Question 1

1. Are there differences in player's preferred and actual coach leadership behaviors?

Examination of the data using a one-way ANOVA indicated there were no statistical differences ($p < .05$) between the four grades about actual and preferred leadership behaviors in the area of Contingent Reward, Passive Management-by-Exception, Charisma, Inspirational Motivation, Intellectual Stimulation, and Individual Consideration. Active Management-by-Exception as an actual leadership behavior did not show statistically a significant difference between grades, but it did as a preferred leadership behavior. As shown in Table 14, Junior players were significantly different from Freshman, Sophomore, and Senior players regarding Management-by-Exception as a preferred leadership behavior. Scheffe's post-hoc comparisons indicated that for Active Management-by-Exception, Junior players ($M=3.90$) had higher mean scores than Freshman ($M=3.74$), Sophomore ($M=3.59$), and Senior ($M=3.35$) players.

Data analysis using a one-way ANOVA revealed that there were no statistically significant differences ($p < .05$) between three positions regarding most of actual and preferred leadership behaviors as was shown in Table 15. Individual Consideration, however, as a preferred leadership style showed statistically significant differences according to positions. Scheffe's post-hoc comparisons indicated that Mid-field players had higher mean scores ($M=4.15$) than Defense players ($M=3.75$) and Offense players ($M=3.99$).

Significant statistical differences were found between the three groups with different experience when analyzed using a one-way ANOVA. As shown in Table 16, there were statistically significant differences between players with less than 5 years, 5 to

10 years and more than 10 years of experience at the p level of .05. Significant group mean differences found in actual leadership behaviors were Passive Management-by-Exception and Individualized Consideration. Scheffe's post-hoc comparison indicated that players with Less than 5 years of experience ($M=3.04$) perceive Passive Management-by-Exception as an actual leadership behavior more strongly than players with 5 to 10 years ($M=2.18$) and More than 10 years of experience ($M=2.18$). Players with More than 10 years of experience ($M=4.04$) more strongly perceived that Individualized Consideration as actual leadership behavior than players with Less than 5 years ($M=3.32$) or 5 to 10 years of experience ($M=3.81$). There were statistically significant differences in preferred leadership behaviors between groups with different experience in the area of Contingent Reward, Passive Management-by-Exception, Charisma, Intellectual Stimulation, and Individualized Consideration. Scheffe's post-hoc comparison indicated that players with 5 to 10 years of experience (4.08) preferred Contingent Reward as a leadership behavior more than players with Less than 5 years ($M=3.45$) or More than 10 years ($M=4.03$). Players with Less than 5 years of experience ($M=3.61$) preferred Passive Management-by-Exception more than players with 5 to 10 years (3.01) or More than 10 years ($M=2.84$). Charisma is preferred more by players with More than 10 years of experience ($M=4.12$) than players with 5 to 10 years ($M=3.88$) and Less than 5 years ($M=3.71$). Intellectual Stimulation is preferred more by players with 5 to 10 years of experience ($M=4.04$) than players with Less than 5 ($M=3.38$) or More than 10 years ($M=3.95$). Individualized Consideration is preferred more by players with More than 10 years of experience ($M=4.04$) than players with 5 to 10 years ($M=3.95$) and Less than 5 years ($M=3.38$).

Table 14

Leadership Behaviors according to Grade

Leadership Behaviors	Freshman		Sophomore		Junior		Senior		F	P	LSD	
	N=153		N=74		N=62		N=27					
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD				
Contingent Reward	Actual	3.87	.98	3.84	.94	4.06	.92	3.85	.95	.774	.509	n.s
	Preferred	4.12	.84	3.89	.88	4.01	.89	3.87	.92	1.540	.204	n.s
Management-by-Exception Passive	Actual	2.22	1.04	2.32	1.13	2.35	1.04	1.79	.63	2.101	1.00	n.s
	Preferred	3.04	1.23	3.13	1.17	2.93	1.22	2.55	1.18	1.663	.175	n.s
Management-by-Exception Active	Actual	3.98	1.07	3.89	.89	3.90	.81	3.67	1.16	.788	.501	n.s
	Preferred	3.74	.98	3.59	.86	3.90	.84	3.35	.96	2.691	.046*	3>1,2,4
Charisma	Actual	3.79	.91	3.62	1.00	3.77	.83	3.71	.97	.594	.620	n.s
	Preferred	3.96	.82	3.86	.78	4.01	.87	3.95	.89	.422	.737	n.s
Inspirational Motivation	Actual	3.37	1.09	3.54	1.05	3.53	1.02	3.45	1.06	.603	.614	n.s
	Preferred	3.65	1.00	3.80	.91	3.82	1.02	3.59	1.00	.783	.504	n.s
Intellectual Stimulation	Actual	3.97	.84	4.00	.85	4.06	.80	3.92	.87	.266	.850	n.s
	Preferred	4.00	.78	4.01	.74	3.99	.83	3.74	.98	.867	.458	n.s
Individualized Consideration	Actual	3.84	.97	3.87	.99	3.81	.99	3.91	.86	.086	.967	n.s
	Preferred	3.98	.88	3.82	.98	4.02	.96	3.92	.79	.678	.566	n.s

* $p<.05$, ** $p<.01$, *** $p<.001$

Table 15

Leadership Behaviors according to Position

Leadership Behaviors	Defense		Mid-field		Offense		F	P	LSD	
	N=113		N=83		N=120					
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD				
Contingent Reward	Actual	3.89	.94	3.90	.92	3.90	1.01	.007	.993	n.s
	Preferred	3.96	.92	4.03	.79	4.08	.88	.628	.534	n.s
Management-by-Exception Passive	Actual	2.30	1.05	2.37	1.13	2.07	.94	2.474	.086	n.s
	Preferred	3.04	1.24	3.14	1.22	2.84	1.17	1.665	.191	n.s
Management-by-Exception Active	Actual	3.94	1.16	3.96	.93	3.85	.85	.393	.676	n.s
	Preferred	3.74	.86	3.80	.92	3.59	1.00	1.388	.251	n.s
Charisma	Actual	3.86	.80	3.64	.90	3.70	1.02	1.555	.213	n.s
	Preferred	3.93	.79	3.97	.84	3.94	.85	.044	.957	n.s
Inspirational Motivation	Actual	3.47	1.06	3.31	1.12	3.53	1.02	1.051	.351	n.s
	Preferred	3.77	1.03	3.67	1.03	3.70	.92	.266	.767	n.s
Intellectual Stimulation	Actual	4.00	.87	3.96	.81	4.00	.82	.079	.924	n.s
	Preferred	3.90	.79	3.93	.80	4.08	.81	1.606	.202	n.s
Individualized Consideration	Actual	3.89	.99	3.72	1.00	3.90	.92	.963	.383	n.s
	Preferred	3.75	1.01	4.15	.80	3.99	.86	4.979	.007**	1<2, 1<3

* $p<.05$, ** $p<.01$, *** $p<.001$

Table 16

Leadership Behaviors according to Years of Experience

Leadership Behaviors	Less than 5 years		5 to 10 years		More than 10 years		F	P	LSD	
	N=19		N=203		N=94					
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD				
Contingent Reward	Actual	3.66	.91	3.89	.95	3.98	.98	.948	.389	n.s
	Preferred	3.45	.88	4.08	.85	4.03	.88	4.651	.010*	1<2,1<3
Management-by-Exception Passive	Actual	3.04	1.02	2.18	1.08	2.18	.88	6.328	.002**	1>2,1>3
	Preferred	3.61	.98	3.01	1.23	2.84	1.18	3.257	.040*	1>2,1>3
Management-by-Exception Active	Actual	3.58	1.03	4.00	1.01	3.81	.93	2.321	.100	n.s
	Preferred	3.59	.85	3.71	.92	3.70	.98	.143	.867	n.s
Charisma	Actual	3.76	.95	3.73	.95	3.76	.84	.037	.964	n.s
	Preferred	3.71	1.11	3.88	.84	4.12	.70	3.593	.029*	1<2,1<3
Inspirational Motivation	Actual	3.53	1.20	3.49	1.04	3.35	1.08	.582	.559	n.s
	Preferred	3.49	.95	3.73	.96	3.74	1.05	.554	.575	n.s
Intellectual Stimulation	Actual	3.83	.82	3.99	.84	4.03	.83	.443	.643	n.s
	Preferred	3.38	.90	4.04	.74	3.95	.86	6.168	.002**	1<2,1<3
Individualized Consideration	Actual	3.32	.89	3.81	.99	4.04	.89	5.065	.007**	1<2,1<3
	Preferred	3.38	.83	3.95	.94	4.04	.83	4.244	.015*	1<2,1<3

* $p<.05$, ** $p<.01$, *** $p<.001$

Research Question 2

Are there differences in player's preferred and actual leadership behavior between high performance and low performance teams?

Table 17 showed the mean scores of team members' perception of actual coach leadership behaviors in high performance teams and low performance teams. The mean scores were analyzed using a paired sample t-test. There were statistically significant differences ($p < .05$) found in most of transactional and transformational leadership behaviors: Contingent Reward ($t = 4.799$), Management-by-Exception Passive ($t = -5.607$), Inspirational Motivation ($t = 3.751$), Intellectual Stimulation ($t = 2.587$), and Individual Consideration ($t = 2.638$). No significant differences were found in Active Management-by-Exception and Charisma.

Table 17

Differences in Actual Leadership Behaviors between High and Low Performance Teams

Leadership Behaviors	High Performance		Low Performance		<i>t</i>	<i>P</i>
	<i>N</i> =157		<i>N</i> =159			
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>		
Transactional Leadership Behaviors						
Contingent Reward	4.15	.74	3.65	1.08	4.799	.000*
Passive Management-by-Exception	1.92	.78	2.54	1.16	-5.607	.000*
Active Management-by-Exception	3.96	1.04	3.87	.94	.842	.400
Transformational Leadership Behaviors						
Charisma	3.80	.80	3.69	1.02	1.802	.280
Inspirational Motivation	3.67	.97	3.23	1.10	3.751	.000*
Intellectual Stimulation	4.11	7.63	3.87	.88	2.587	.010*
Individual Consideration	3.99	.88	3.71	1.03	2.638	.009*

Note. * $p < .05$

Table 18 showed the mean scores of team members' preferred coach leadership behaviors in high performance teams and low performance teams. The mean scores were analyzed using a paired sample t-test as well. There were statistically significant differences ($p < .05$) found in most transformational leadership behaviors but in none of transactional leadership behaviors: Inspirational Motivation ($t = 3.756$), Intellectual Stimulation ($t = 2.132$), and Individual Consideration ($t = 3.066$). No significant differences were found in all of transactional leadership behaviors and Charisma.

Table 18

Differences in Preferred Leadership Behavior between High and Low Performance Teams

Leadership Behaviors	High Performance		Low Performance		<i>t</i>	<i>P</i>
	<i>N</i> =157		<i>N</i> =159			
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>		
Transactional Leadership Behaviors						
Contingent Reward	3.94	.92	4.11	.81	-1.795	.074
Passive Management-by-Exception	2.91	1.18	3.08	1.24	-1.242	.215
Active Management-by-Exception	3.77	.90	3.63	.96	1.296	.196
Transformational Leadership Behaviors						
Charisma	3.90	.79	3.98	.86	-.836	.404
Inspirational Motivation	3.92	.82	3.51	1.09	3.756	.000*
Intellectual Stimulation	4.07	.72	3.88	.87	2.132	.034*
Individual Consideration	4.10	.80	3.79	.99	3.066	.002*

Note. * $p < .05$

Research Question 3

What leadership behaviors of a coach predict team culture?

According to Table 19, all transactional leadership behaviors had statistically significant effect on Managing Change and Achieving Goals. Contingent Reward ($\beta=.139$) and Active Management-by-Exception ($\beta=.111$) had positive effect but Passive Management-by-Exception ($\beta=-.154$) had negative effect on Managing Change, and 6.5% of the Managing Change team culture was explained by transactional leadership behaviors. Contingent Reward ($\beta=.180$) and Active Management-by-Exception ($\beta=.113$) had positive effect but Passive Management-by-Exception ($\beta=-.241$) had negative effective effect on Achieving Goals, and 11.9% of Achieving Goals team culture was explained by transactional leadership behaviors. Passive ($\beta=.218$) and Active Management-by-Exception ($\beta=.119$) had statistically significant on Coordinated Teamwork, and 6.4% of Coordinated Teamwork was explained by transactional leadership behaviors. Contingent reward didn't make statistically significant effect on Coordinated Teamwork. Transactional leadership had least effect on Cultural Strength. Only Passive Management-by-Exception had statistically significant effect on Cultural Strength ($\beta=-.119$), and 1.7% of Cultural Strength was explained by transactional leadership behaviors.

Table 19

Influence of the Transactional Leadership Behaviors on Team Culture

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable			
	Managing Change	Achieving Goals	Coordinated Teamwork	Cultural Strength
Contingent Reward	.139*	.180**	.034	.039
Passive Management-by-Exception	-.154**	-.241***	.218***	-.119*
Active Management-by-Exception	.111*	.113*	.119*	-.009
R ²	.065	.119	.064	.017

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

In order to see the influence of the transformational coach leadership behaviors on the team members' perceptions of their team culture, multiple regression procedure was used to analyze as well. Four transformational leadership behaviors, such as Charisma, Inspirational Motivation, Intellectual Stimulation, and Individualized Consideration, were regarded as predictors (independent variables) and dependent variables were Managing Change, Achieving Goals, Coordinated Teamwork and Cultural Strength. Significance is determined at the level of .05. The number of participants was 316.

According to Table 20, only some of transformational leadership behaviors had statistically significant effect on cultural functions. Specifically, Individualized Consideration ($\beta = .305$) had positive effect on Managing Change, and 10.7% of the Managing Change team culture was explained by transformational leadership behaviors. Inspirational Motivation ($\beta = .126$) and Individualized Consideration ($\beta = .209$) had

significant influence on Achieving Goals, and 9.5% of Achieving Goals team culture was explained by transformational leadership behaviors. Charisma ($\beta = -.135$) had negative effective on Coordinated Teamwork, and 2.6% of Charisma was explained by transformational leadership behaviors. Cultural Strength turned out not to be influenced by transformational leadership behaviors.

Table 20

Influence of the Transformational Leadership Behaviors on Team Culture

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable			
	Managing Change	Achieving Goals	Coordinated Teamwork	Cultural Strength
Charisma	.049	.013	-.135*	.039
Inspirational Motivation	.040	.126*	.060	.023
Intellectual Stimulation	-.014	.083	.085	.014
Individualized Consideration	.305**	.209**	-.081	.084
R ²	.107	.095	.026	.014

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Research Question 4

Are there differences in team's cultural functions between high performance and low performance teams?

Table 21 shows the mean scores of cultural functions in high performance teams and low performance teams. The mean scores were analyzed using a paired sample t-test. There were statistically significant differences ($p < .001$) found in three of the cultural

functions: Managing Change ($t=3.706$), Achieving Goals ($t=6.351$), and Cultural Strength ($t=1.091$). No statistically significant differences were found in Coordinated Teamwork

Table 21

Differences in Cultural Functions between High and Low Performance Teams

Cultural Functions	High Performance		Low Performance		<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
	<i>N</i> =157		<i>N</i> =159			
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>		
Managing Change	3.840	.710	3.436	1.173	3.706	.000***
Achieving Goals	4.709	.768	3.406	1.090	6.351	.000***
Coordinated Teamwork	2.743	.873	2.794	.905	-.504	.723
Cultural Strength	3.300	.692	3.191	1.029	1.091	.000***

Note. *** $p<.001$

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The primary purpose of this study was to examine the relationship of coach leadership style, team culture, and team performance in university soccer teams in Korea. Four research questions were examined for the purpose. A total of 316 subjects from four high performing teams and four low performing teams in U-league participated in the study. Questionnaires were administered after a detailed explanation about their significance and possible contribution to the field. Confidentiality was ensured in order for the subjects to feel comfortable and not to get pressure to give sincere answers when they have negative opinion about their coach or team. The researcher visited each team participating and collected the sealed survey packets on the spot.

In this study, the MLQ (5x-short) was slightly modified and used to measure the actual and preferred leadership behaviors of each coach. Out of 32 questions in total, 20 questions regarding transformational leadership consisted of eight questions assessing Charisma, four questions of Inspirational Motivation, four questions of Intellectual Stimulation, and 4 questions of Individualized Consideration. 12 questions regarding transactional leadership consisted of 4 questions of Contingent Reward, four questions of Active Management-by-Exception, and four questions of Passive Management-by-Exception. OCAQ was used to investigate organizational cultural functions, but a scale of ‘customer orientation’ was omitted. A total of 24 questions consisted of each of six questions about Managing Change, Achieving Goals, Coordinating Teamwork and Cultural Strength. Both the MLQ and OCAQ were examined for their validity and reliability. Demographic information such as grade, position, and years of experience

were identified using a questionnaire. The study demonstrated how coach's leadership style, team culture, and performance were interrelated with each other in university soccer teams in Korea.

Chapter I through III included an overview of the study, review of relevant literature, and a description of the research methodology used in the study. Chapter IV presented results of the factor analysis and research findings using SPSS as related to the study questions. Chapter V provides a discussion and practical implications drawn from the findings of the study and offers recommendations for further research.

Discussion

There were four research questions suggested in the beginning of the study. Some of the research questions included sub-questions to help gain in-depth understanding of the matter. As this study involved university soccer teams in Korea, findings should be understood in a Korean university soccer team context.

Research Question 1: Leadership Behaviors of Coach according to Grade, Position, and Years of Experience

Research question 1 tried to identify how university soccer players perceive their current coaches leadership style and how they want their coach's leadership behaviors to be. Because the study involved 316 subjects, it was not possible to reflect detailed individual differences in participant's perceptions of coach leadership. However, participants perceptions by category including grade level, playing position, and years of experience were chosen as factors to be considered.

There were no statistically significant differences in the actual leadership behaviors and preferred leadership behaviors according to grade. In other words, grade was not a strong factor making differences in preferred and actual leadership behaviors of a coach. However, it turned out that players showed significant differences in Active Management-by-Exception as preferred leadership behaviors in the order of Junior, Freshman, Sophomore and Senior. If Management-by-Exception is active, the leader pays attention to the mistakes or errors of the followers and takes corrective action directly (Bass, 2008). According to the results of this study, junior players more preferred that their leader give them negative feedback or disciplinary action directly when they deviated from a rule than other grade players.

It was also determined that there were no differences in playing position with regard to actual leadership behaviors and preferred leadership behaviors. The only difference amongst positions was found in the domain of 'Individualized Consideration.' It turned out that players in Defensive positions preferred their leader to be more attentive and considerate than players in other positions. Bass (2008) pointed out that individually considerate leaders pay special attention to each follower's needs for achievement and growth in a supportive environment through two-way communication. Leaders should tell the truth with compassion and try to look for the followers' positive intentions. When they need to disagree with the followers, they should not make them feel wrong (Bracey, et al., 1990).

Players regarded leadership behaviors of their coach quite differently in 'Passive Management-by-Exception' and 'Individualized Consideration' according to years of experience. Management-by-Exception is one of the transactional leadership behaviors

and Individualized Consideration is one of the transformational leadership behaviors. Players with less than 5 years of experience most perceived that their coach gave them corrective feedback only after they had made mistakes. Players with more than 10 years of experience least perceived that their leader managed passively in the exceptive condition. In terms of Individualized Consideration, players with more than 10 years of experience perceived the highest that their leader was individually considerate and players with less than 5 years of experience perceived individual consideration by the coach to be the lowest. However it is hard to say that as players have more years of experience, they perceive their coach to be more transformative than transactional because years of experience made significant differences only in the two factors, Passive Management-by-Exception and Individualized Consideration.

Interestingly, years of experience made significant differences in several preferred leadership behaviors. Players with 5 to 10 years of experience preferred Contingent Reward and Intellectual Stimulation the most and players with more than 10 years of experience preferred Charisma and Individualized Consideration the most. Players with less than 5 years of experience preferred Passive Management-by-Exception the most. The results may indicate that as players gain more experience, they tend to prefer transformative leadership behaviors more than transactional leadership behaviors. This finding may have been more pronounced if the number of participants had been more equal relative to experience, because the number of players with less than 5 years of experience was only 19 but those with 5 to 10 years was 203. Finding participants with less than 5 years of experience was not an easy matter because most Korean soccer

players who hope to be a professional in the future begin playing soccer when they are in the 5th or 6th grade.

Research Question 2: Team Performance and Leadership Behaviors

Question 2 sought to investigate team performance in relation to leadership behaviors. According to the discussion between Weese and Bass in 1994, Bass urged through research findings that followers of transformational leaders expend greater effort and accordingly their performance is higher than the same measures for followers of transactional leaders. In this study, it turned out that there were significant differences in the actual leadership behaviors between high performance and low performance teams. High performance team members perceived Contingent Reward, Inspirational Motivation, Intellectual Stimulation, and Individual Consideration as actual leadership behaviors of their coach more than low performance team members. This finding supports many previous studies suggesting that transformational leadership results in desired outcomes. Low performance team members perceived only Passive Management-by-Exception as their coach leadership behavior more than high performance team members.

High performance team members preferred all the transformative leadership behaviors except for Charisma more than low performance team members as well. In terms of preference of transactional leadership behaviors, high performance team and low performance didn't expose any meaningful differences.

Scott (2000) identified the areas of effectiveness in sport organizations such as goal attainment, use of system resources, internal process, satisfaction of strategic

constituents, and competing values, but in Korean society only goal attainment through winning tended to be valued. As Jeong (2003) mentioned, disciplinary purpose was one of the major reasons of hazing in the university soccer teams in Korea. Focusing on winning yielded many side effects like hazing or dropout (Lim, 2005), and accordingly strong transactional leadership was mainly preferred and used by many school sport leaders to put the team members under control rather communicating with the team members or pursuit of reciprocal development was not significantly valued. Jeong also noted that even though soccer coaches and administrators were well aware of the status of hazing, they didn't even try to solve the problem actively. In the past, many sport leaders in Korea had nicknames like tiger or jaguar to emphasize their strong and invincible personality.

However the findings of this study suggest a possible change of perspectives and perhaps a new leadership trend with transformational leaders becoming more popular and favored in the field. This study also confirmed that high performing teams are more likely to be led by transformational leaders. Korean university soccer players in this study expect their leaders to be sensitive and understanding, and satisfy their needs, which also turned out to be elements of leadership related to the outcome of winning games.

Research Question 3: Leadership Behaviors and Cultural Functions

Question 3 investigated how transactional and transformational coach leadership behaviors predicted the organizational cultural functions of the university soccer teams. Scott (2000) emphasized the significance of culture management to leadership mentioning that this may be the most challenging, yet critical component of sport

organizational leadership. He added that among a variety of leadership styles, transformational leadership makes a strong impact in the development of a positive organizational culture. In addition, Weese (1995) indicated that transformational leaders in recreational organizations influence a culture of “excellence and continual improvement.”

In the present study, it turned out that not only transformational leadership behaviors but also transactional leadership behaviors influenced cultural functions in the university soccer teams in Korea. All of the transactional leadership behaviors such as Contingent Reward, Passive Management-by-Exception, and Active Management-by-Exception influenced Managing Change and Achieving Goals. Passive and Active Management-by-Exception influenced Coordinated Teamwork. Among transformational leadership behaviors, Individual Consideration had significant influence on Managing Change and Achieving Goals, Inspirational Motivation on Achieving Goals, and Charisma on Coordinated Teamwork. The results indicated that there were more of transactional leadership behaviors effective on cultural functions than transformational leadership behaviors.

Overall, both transactional and transformational leadership had a positive effect on organizational team culture, but the effect of transactional leadership behavior appeared more extensive than transformational leadership behavior in the present study. However, it was not obvious from the present study why transactional leadership behaviors were more influential on cultural functions in university soccer teams in Korea. This finding could be related to the fact that transactional leadership among coaches in Korea has been deeply rooted in both the societal and athletic cultures over the years.

Consequently, because it can take a long time to change the culture in an organization and because leadership behaviors are not the only factors affecting cultural functions, it is premature to conclude that transactional leadership behaviors are better in building effective organizational culture in Korean university soccer. As was seen from the results of question 2, transformational leadership behaviors have become more popular and favored in university soccer teams in Korea, thus examining the relationship between leadership behavior and organizational culture in this context will require further quantitative and qualitative investigation.

In a Korean context, it is still undeniable that there exists strong transactional leadership behaviors and they exert significant influence on university soccer team culture. However it is impressive that the effect of transformation leadership behaviors were obvious on team culture as well as those of transactional leadership behaviors. In addition, as was seen in the results of questions 2, high performing team members showed distinct preference on transformative leadership behaviors. Leaders of university soccer teams need to consider how to manipulate their leadership behavior effectively and appropriately as was mentioned by Hersey and Blanchard (1998) asserting situational leadership which emphasizes interplay among task behavior, relationship behavior and followers' readiness. Finally it could be summarized that "the combination of transactional and transformational leadership is likely to be a key factor in the successful development of organizational effectiveness" (Bass & Avolio, 1990, p. 245).

Research Question 4: Team Performance and Cultural Functions

Scott (2000) contended “a strong positive culture is what separates the most effective organizations from those that are less effective and that leadership has a stout impact on the culture within an organization” (p. 56). For this end, research question 4 sought to figure out how cultural functions are different according to team performance in high performing and low performing university soccer teams in Korea. In the present study, ‘performance’ meant team rank in the league as this is the most obvious tangible and accessible outcome available in this study. Advancement into the Championship competition was used as a barometer to separate between high and low performance.

It turned out that there were significant differences in cultural functions between high performance teams and low performance teams as Kotter and Heskett (1992) pointed out that there are significant relationship between organization culture and performance. Specifically, high performance teams were better in Managing Change, Achieving Goals, and Cultural Strength than low performance teams. High performance teams were good at adapting changes in their environment, were effective in achieving goals, had coherent and aligned goals and shared values, and agreed on those values. Together with research question 2, it can be concluded that leadership behaviors and culture are strong factors making differences on team performance. Especially, when cultural functions are promoted with transformative leadership behaviors such as inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration, the team performance can be improved even more.

Many sport teams in Korea tend to be hierarchical leader-centered. However, it is suggested from the findings of this study that a strong leader-centered hierarchy needs to

be ameliorated for team members to better create cultural functions of the team. This can trigger change in what has been a more rigid and inflexible university sport team culture in Korea. An organization with strong positive culture shares values widely and organization moves toward positive direction, so team identity tends to be high. But soccer teams in Korea generally move toward positive direction with less shared values. Therefore, soccer teams in Korea are criticized that they can't realize their full potential. In fact, many Korean soccer players are better in Europe league than they play in Korean national team. Why would this happen?

It is suggested that carefully merging aspects of transactional leadership together with transformational leadership can create a culture that is more creative, flexible, and considerate for individual differences, which will be more desirable for school sport than simply achieving high rank in leagues in the long run. As a researcher and as an administrator in soccer association in Korea, I suggest that a school sport team doesn't simply exist for discipline of sporting technique but also for helping athletes envision their potential for future life through their experience participating in sport. Therefore, achievement relative to winning should not serve as the only goal or outcome. It is also important to acknowledge that a more empowering and considerate environment can be created by transformational leadership.

As is mentioned in the introduction, Hiddink was one of the most famous soccer coaches in Korea because he was influential in helping Korea win its first World Cup. Many people attribute the unprecedented achievement in 2002 Korea-Japan World Cup to his leadership and the cultural change caused by his different leadership style. What's noticeable is, ever since he left Korea, Korea has never accomplished as successful

record as in 2002 even with better soccer infrastructure. There are more fans, soccer clubs, and soccer stadiums, but the internal processes do not work appropriately. Sport team culture in Korea still put too much emphasis on controls and conformity to hierarchical communications without shared values or beliefs to shape team identity. Nowadays, sport organizations do not operate in stable environment. Players and coaches come in and go out internationally, and the spectrum of fans becomes broad. Kotter and Heskett (1992) argued that leaders in adaptive organizational culture strongly value people and processes that create useful changes, but leaders in nonadaptive organizational culture care mainly about immediate work group or product. As Hiddink adapted to the culture of Korean national representative soccer team and created strong cultural functions with transformational leadership (Kim, 2010), coaches need to figure out their team environment, develop transformative leadership style, and create cultural functions that would promote team performances.

Implication

The present study suggested meaningful results related leadership behaviors, cultural functions, and team performance. In sum, both transactional and transformational leadership were significant in performance and team culture, and team culture was meaningful in making differences in team performance. Out of these results, several practical implications listed below can be drawn for the management of university soccer teams in Korea.

1. Bass, Avolio and Goddheim (1987) mentioned that transactional and transformational leadership paradigm is complementary rather than conflicting,

which is true to the present study. Transactional leadership behaviors can be useful as long as transformational leadership behaviors are accompanied. Transformational leadership behaviors help build mutual trust and respect, which makes it possible for transactional leadership behaviors to work appropriately and leads to high achievement. It was obvious in this study that leadership behaviors of a coach in high performance teams were more transformational and transactional than those of low performance teams. They used transactional leadership behaviors together with transformational leadership behaviors, which turned out to be effective for high performance. It is hard to ignore how immediate and evident results can be derived using transactional leadership behaviors, but leaders in university soccer teams need to view the players from a long-term perspective and grow them rather than consume them. Therefore, both transformational and transactional leadership behaviors can be used to support each other.

2. Transactional leadership behaviors were stronger in building cultural functions in university soccer teams, but the effect of transformative leadership behaviors were also significant. Considering leadership is not the single factor influencing cultural functions, leaders or coaches of soccer teams need to perceive the importance of the organizational cultural functions and how to maneuver effective cultural functions of their teams. In relation to the result of question 2 that the leader of high performance team is both transactional and transformational, leaders should try to enhance their transformative leadership behaviors along with transactional leadership behaviors to establish more

effective organizational culture for their teams as leadership and culture are intertwined with each other (Schein, 2004). Wallace and Weese (1995) emphasized that transformational leaders develop a vision for the organization so it can be incorporated into the organization's culture.

3. Leaders in university soccer teams in Korea should be aware that there exist apparent differences in culture functions between high performance teams and low performance teams and try to strengthen cultural functions in the team in the long term. Even though many coaches may appreciate the importance of cultural functions in the team, it would be hard to deal with the matter with significance because culture doesn't cause immediate result and it takes a lot of time and effort to strengthen cultural functions. When a team suffers from low performance, there is often a coaching change, which also typically results in transactional leadership in order to yield high performance as soon as possible. However, when a team goes through any problem, its leader has to be sensitive not only to team performance itself but also to many of the elements of organizational culture within the team. Coyler (2000) mentioned that organizational culture is a defining factor in the success and failure of organizations it influences by affecting leadership behaviors. Leaders need to observe which factors strengthen or weaken cultural functions of the team and be prepared to cope with them. Even though leadership and culture are considered separated constructs, they have a reciprocal relationship. Successful leaders build strong cultural functions and strong cultural functions facilitate leaders to be successful.

Recommendations for Future Research

This study explored how leadership, culture, and team performance is related with each other in quantitative analysis. The results demonstrated the significance of leadership and culture in team performance. Based on the conclusion of the study, several recommendations should be made like following.

1. In the future research, it would be great to investigate university soccer players of Europe or South America. They take the lead of world soccer industry as well as soccer education. How they regard leadership of a coach, what kind of leadership style would be appreciated by the players, how leadership affects their performance, how a leader is brought up and how culture functions in the context.
2. In order to gain in-depth understanding, qualitative research of some specific cases can be studied or other leadership instrument can be used. Teams acquired championship in any league within three years can be chosen as a participant and be investigated in detail using both quantitative and qualitative method. In addition, several university soccer players can be chosen to study longitudinally and evaluate how their perception of leadership evolves as they gain experience in the field. This would give an insight about the significance of leadership and cultural functions and their role in university soccer teams.
3. It would provide useful information to university sport teams to study cultural functions of successful teams and how their cultural functions help shape long-lasting and sturdy team culture. In fact, as Schein (2004) indicated, it is not a simple matter to measure cultural functions as numbers. Number cannot easily describe a detailed story of the people who live in the culture. Therefore, it would

be great to interview or observe a group of players to draw themes or ideas out of them. This will complement what cannot be explained in this study.

4. Soccer is one of the team sports, so leadership, culture, and performance might be developed in different pattern from other kinds of sports of which mainly involve individual competition (e.g. tennis, track and field, wrestling, etc.). Investigating how member of a team and individual player are different can give insights on ideas how leadership, culture, and performance work in various sport teams.
5. This study can set a foundation in developing leadership training program in the area of soccer in Korea. Currently KFA manages coach education program which is required for every soccer coach to work in any registered team. The curriculum is composed of various subjects including soccer specific knowledge as well as those applicable to every sport coach in general, and leadership is taught as part of general sport team management without in-depth cultural or contextual understanding of soccer team in specific. This study provides resource about how soccer players in the university level perceive and prefer leadership behaviors of the coach under which cultural context, therefore can improve or develop coach education program in KFA.

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Appendix A
Participant Cover Letter

Informed Consent

Dear University Soccer Players,

My name is Kangwon, You, a doctoral student at the University of New Mexico in the Sport Administration program. I'm conducting research about the relationship between coach leadership style, organizational culture, and team performance in university soccer teams in Korea. Through this study I would like to understand how coach leadership style and organizational culture is related to each other and how these factors affect team performance in university soccer teams in Korea.

It is going to take about 30 minutes to complete the questionnaire. Your response will be polled with responses from other team players for analysis. There is no potential risk to participants. You don't have to write your name in the questionnaires. Anonymity and confidentiality will be guaranteed. The result is going to be used for academic purposes only.

Participation is voluntary. You can choose whether to participate in this study or not. Refusal to participate will involve no penalty or loss of benefit to which you are entitled. You can withdraw any time with no penalty or loss of benefit to which you are entitled. You are also not waiving any of your legal rights by completing and redefining the questionnaire. If you have any question about this survey, feel free to contact me (Kangwon You) at 010-8984-8197, ykwunm@yahoo.co.kr, or Dr. David Scott at 001-1-505-277-2925. If you have other concerns or complaints about your rights as a participant, contact the Institutional Review Board at the University of New Mexico, MSC08-4560, 1 University of New Mexico, Albuquerque, NM 87131-0001 (001-1-505-272-1129). Your participation will provide valuable information to the study of leadership and organization culture. I believe it will improve Korean university soccer in the future. Thank you for your interest in this survey.

Sincerely yours,

Kangwon You

Doctoral Candidate

Sport Administration

HRPO #: 13-220

Page 1 of 2

Version: 02-04-13

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UNM

Human Research Protections Office

The University of New Mexico Institutional Review Board (HRRC/MCIRB)

The University of New Mexico

참가동의서

저는 미국 뉴멕시코 주립대학에서 스포츠 경영학을 전공하고 있는 유강원이라고 합니다. 저는 박사학위 논문으로 사용할, 지도자의 리더십, 조직 문화, 팀 성적의 상호관계에 관한 연구를 진행하고 있습니다.

본 설문지를 작성하는데는 30분 가량 소요되며, 다른 팀들의 설문지와 함께 분석 할 것입니다. 참여해주시는 분들의 성함을 포함한 개인정보는 모두 비밀로 처리되며, 연구결과는 학술적인 목적으로만 사용될 것입니다.

본 연구 참여는 자발적이므로, 원치 않으시면 참여하지 않아도 괜찮습니다. 참여를 하는 도중 중단하시더라도 아무런 해가 없음을 알려드립니다. 본 설문지에 대한 궁금한 점이 있으시면 본인이나 (유강원, 010-8984-8197) 미국의 스캇 박사님 (001-1-505-277-3547)에게 질문하셔도 좋습니다. 본 연구참여에 대한 다른 궁금증이 있으시면 미국 뉴멕시코 주립대학 IRB 사무실의 호세 리베라 교수님(001-1-505-277-2257)과 상담하셔도 좋습니다.

여러분의 참여는 리더십과 조직문화에 관한 가치있는 정보를 제공할 수 있습니다. 본 연구가 한국 대학축구 발전에 기여하리라 믿습니다. 본 설문에 관한 관심 감사합니다.

유 강 원

미국 뉴멕시코 주립대학교 스포츠 경영 전공

박사후보자

HRPO #: 13-220	Page 1 of 1	Version: 02-04-13
APPROVED: 06-09-2013	OFFICIAL USE ONLY	EXPIRES: 06-08-2014
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Appendix B
Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

Team: _____ Name of Coach: _____ Date: _____

Thirty two descriptive statements are listed on the following pages. Judge how frequently each statement fits the person you are describing. Use the following rating scale:

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
0	1	2	3	4

B. Preferred leadership style

not at all				Frequently If not always				not at all				B very important			
A								B							
0	1	2	3	4	1. Provides me with assistance in exchange for my efforts	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
0	1	2	3	4	2. Re-examines critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
0	1	2	3	4	3. Fails to interfere until problems become serious	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
0	1	2	3	4	4. Focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
0	1	2	3	4	5. Talks about their most important values and benefits	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
0	1	2	3	4	6. Seeks differing perspectives when solving problems	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
0	1	2	3	4	7. Talks optimistically about the future	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
0	1	2	3	4	8. Instills pride in me for being associated with him/her	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
0	1	2	3	4	9. Discusses in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
0	1	2	3	4	10. Waits for things to go wrong before taking action	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
0	1	2	3	4	11. Talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
0	1	2	3	4	12. Specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
0	1	2	3	4	13. Spends time teaching and coaching	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
0	1	2	3	4	14. Makes clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
0	1	2	3	4	15. Shows that he/she is a firm believer in "if it ain't broke, don't fix it."	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
0	1	2	3	4	16. Goes beyond self-interest for the good of the group	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
0	1	2	3	4	17. Treats me as an individual rather than just as a member of a group	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4
0	1	2	3	4	18. Demonstrates that problems must become chronic before taking action	0	1	2	3	4	0	1	2	3	4

0	1	2	3	4	19. Acts in ways that builds my respect	0	1	2	3	4
0	1	2	3	4	20. Concentrates his/her full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints, and failures	0	1	2	3	4
0	1	2	3	4	21. Considers the moral and ethical consequences of decisions	0	1	2	3	4
0	1	2	3	4	22. Keeps track of all mistakes	0	1	2	3	4
0	1	2	3	4	23. Displays a sense of power and confidence	0	1	2	3	4
0	1	2	3	4	24. Articulates a compelling vision of the future	0	1	2	3	4
0	1	2	3	4	25. Directs my attention toward failures to meet standards	0	1	2	3	4
0	1	2	3	4	26. Considers me as having different needs, abilities and aspirations from others	0	1	2	3	4
0	1	2	3	4	27. Gets me to look at problems from many different angles	0	1	2	3	4
0	1	2	3	4	28. Helps me to develop my strengths	0	1	2	3	4
0	1	2	3	4	29. Suggests new ways of looking at how to complete assignments	0	1	2	3	4
0	1	2	3	4	30. Emphasizes the importance of having a collective sense of mission	0	1	2	3	4
0	1	2	3	4	31. Expresses satisfaction when I meet expectations	0	1	2	3	4
0	1	2	3	4	32. Expresses confidence that goals will be achieved	0	1	2	3	4

리더십설문지

팀명: _____ 코치성함: _____ 날짜: _____

본설문지는팀코치의설제리더십스타일과희망하는리더십스타일을상세히알아보기위한입니다. 본설문지의모든문항에답해주시기바랍니다. 만약질문의내용이적절치않거나답변이불가능할경우, 답을표기하지말고그대로두시기바랍니다. A 파트는실제현재의리더십을, B 파트는중요하다고여겨지는희망하는리더십에대한평가를해주시요. 반드시 A와 B 모두답을표기해주시기바랍니다. 설문지에의명으로답해주시기바랍니다.

32개의설문문항이아래에나열되어있습니다. 각문항에대해서본인의팀코치에적합한점수에 O표해주시기바랍니다.

전혀 그렇지 않다 0	어쩌다그렇다 1	가끔그렇다 2	꽤자주그렇다 3	언제나그렇다 4
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A. 현재리더십스타일

전혀 그렇지 않다
A
그렇다

B. 희망하는리더십스타일

전혀 중요하지 않다
B
매우 중요하다

0	1	2	3	4	1. 감독은내가노력한만큼나에게도움을준다.	0	1	2	3	4
0	1	2	3	4	2. 감독은확실하지않은현안에대해서늘검토하고그타당성을체크한다.	0	1	2	3	4
0	1	2	3	4	3. 감독은발생한문제가심각해져도그문제를해결하지못한다.	0	1	2	3	4
0	1	2	3	4	4. 감독은선수들의실수그리고기준에서벗어나는것을늘지적한다.	0	1	2	3	4
0	1	2	3	4	5. 감독은중요한가치와믿음을선수와함께논의한다.	0	1	2	3	4
0	1	2	3	4	6. 감독은문제를해결하는데있어다각적인시각과관점에서접근한다.	0	1	2	3	4
0	1	2	3	4	7. 감독은미래에대해낙관적으로이야기한다.	0	1	2	3	4
0	1	2	3	4	8. 감독과같은팀에있는것에대해자극심을갖게해준다.	0	1	2	3	4
0	1	2	3	4	9. 감독은선수들의목표달성과관계하여책임여부를구체적으로이야기한다.	0	1	2	3	4
0	1	2	3	4	10. 감독은사태가악화될때까지수습을미룬다.	0	1	2	3	4
0	1	2	3	4	11. 감독은성취해야할목표에대해서열의를가지고이야기한다.	0	1	2	3	4
0	1	2	3	4	12. 감독은목표에대한확실한이해가중요하다고이야기한다.	0	1	2	3	4

0	1	2	3	4	13. 감독은 선수가 모르는 것을 가르치고 요청하는데 시간을 투자한다.	0	1	2	3	4
0	1	2	3	4	14. 감독은 목표가 달성되면 어떤 보상이 뒤따를지 확실하게 이야기한다.	0	1	2	3	4
0	1	2	3	4	15. 감독은 문제가 표면화될 때만 문제를 해결하려한다.	0	1	2	3	4
0	1	2	3	4	16. 감독은 개인 이익보다 팀 전체의 이익을 중요시한다.	0	1	2	3	4
0	1	2	3	4	17. 감독은 나를 팀의 일원으로 서서가 아닌 한 개인으로서 대우해준다.	0	1	2	3	4
0	1	2	3	4	18. 감독은 문제가 장기적으로 지속되어야 그 문제를 수습하려한다.	0	1	2	3	4
0	1	2	3	4	19. 감독은 내가 존경하게끔 행동한다.	0	1	2	3	4
0	1	2	3	4	20. 감독은 나의 실수와 실패를 자주 이야기한다.	0	1	2	3	4
0	1	2	3	4	21. 감독은 의사결정에 대한 윤리적도덕적결과를 중요시한다.	0	1	2	3	4
0	1	2	3	4	22. 감독은 나의 실수를 찾아내려한다.	0	1	2	3	4
0	1	2	3	4	23. 감독은 권위의식을 표출한다.	0	1	2	3	4
0	1	2	3	4	24. 감독은 미래에 대한 밝은 전망을 한다.	0	1	2	3	4
0	1	2	3	4	25. 감독은 내가 목표나 기준에 미치지 못한 것에 대해 자주 이야기한다.	0	1	2	3	4
0	1	2	3	4	26. 감독은 선수들이 각기 다른 욕구, 능력, 그리고 열정을 갖고 있음을 인정해준다.	0	1	2	3	4
0	1	2	3	4	27. 감독은 내기 문제를 해결하는데 있어 다각적인 관점에서 바라볼 수 있게 해준다.	0	1	2	3	4
0	1	2	3	4	28. 감독은 나의 장점들을 개발하는데 도움을 준다.	0	1	2	3	4
0	1	2	3	4	29. 감독은 내가 목표를 달성하는데 있어 새로운 접근방법을 가르쳐준다.	0	1	2	3	4
0	1	2	3	4	30. 감독은 선수들이 사명감이 있어야 한다고 강조한다.	0	1	2	3	4
0	1	2	3	4	31. 감독은 내기 목표치를 달성하면 만족해한다.	0	1	2	3	4
0	1	2	3	4	32. 감독은 목표가 달성될 것이라는 자신감을 표출한다.	0	1	2	3	4

Appendix C

Organizational Culture Assessment Questionnaire

Organizational Culture Assessment Questionnaire

	not true			completely true
1. This organization clearly demonstrates that it can adapt to changing conditions as needed	1	2	3	4 5
2. People have clearly defined goals	1	2	3	4 5
3. The complexity of people's roles and task is so great that most managers have given up trying to coordinate with one another	1	2	3	4 5
4. People believe in accepting one another as they are rather than trying to change one another	1	2	3	4 5
5. People agree that there is no point in trying to cope with conditions imposed on us from outside	1	2	3	4 5
6. People try to do their best, with little pressure to strive for specific goals	1	2	3	4 5
7. People believe in letting everyone do his or her own thing	1	2	3	4 5
8. This organization has developed a stable pattern of shared values, beliefs, and norms of behavior	1	2	3	4 5
9. When changes are necessary, everyone has a clear idea of what sorts of activities are and are not acceptable	1	2	3	4 5
10. Individual action is channeled into achieving the goals of the total organization rather than goals of individual managers	1	2	3	4 5
11. Management believes in making sure that everything happens according to the plans made at higher levels	1	2	3	4 5
12. People rely on another to understand what is really happening and why	1	2	3	4 5
13. The pressure to maintain the status quo is so great that if major changes were required for the organization to survive, it might not	1	2	3	4 5
14. People deal effectively with problems that involve defining and attaining goals	1	2	3	4 5
15. People clearly understand their job assignments and how these relate to the job assignment of others	1	2	3	4 5
16. People are expected to support their views and beliefs what concrete facts	1	2	3	4 5
17. People believe they can influence control of work positively with important factors and forces in our environment	1	2	3	4 5
18. Most people have their own goals that may or may not lie compatible on with another	1	2	3	4 5
19. People believe in working together collaboratively, preferring cooperation over competition	1	2	3	4 5
20. It is accepted that people usually have their own ways of seeing and making sense of situations	1	2	3	4 5
21. We believe in making our outside stakeholders into valued allies	1	2	3	4 5
22. Taking action to attain new goals is valued in this organization more than maintaining the status quo	1	2	3	4 5
23. Making sure that managers at all levels coordinate effectively is seen as the responsibility of all the managers involved, not just as the responsibility of top executives	1	2	3	4 5
24. Everyone strongly believes in a set of shared values about how people should work together to solve common problems and reach shared objectives	1	2	3	4 5

팀문화설문지

다음은귀하가일반적으로생각하는팀의분위기를알아보기위한질문문항들입니다. 각문항의내용이귀하의전반적팀문화와언제나일치하면 5번에, 전혀일치하지않으면 1번에표기하여주십시오.

전혀
그렇지
않다 언제나
그렇다

1. 우리팀은필요하다면변화하는환경에적응할수있다.	1 2 3 4 5
2. 팀원들은확실한목표가있다.	1 2 3 4 5
3. 팀원들의역할과임무가너무복잡하여각자의역할을확실히모르고있다.	1 2 3 4 5
4. 팀원들은서로에게변화를요구하기보다는각자의현재상태를이해하려노력한다.	1 2 3 4 5
5. 팀원들은변화하는환경에대해어떻게대처해야할지잘알고있다.	1 2 3 4 5
6. 팀원들은자발적으로팀목표달성을위해최선을다하려고노력한다.	1 2 3 4 5
7. 팀원대부분은함께훈련하기보다는개인훈련하는것을선호한다.	1 2 3 4 5
8. 팀은가치, 믿음, 그리고행위기준의확고한패턴을가지고있다.	1 2 3 4 5
9. 팀원들은변화에대한확고한행동요령을가지고있다.	1 2 3 4 5
10. 팀에서발생하는모든활동들은감독의개인적목표보다는팀전체의목표달성을위한수단이다.	1 2 3 4 5
11. 팀운영자들은위에서계획/지시한대로일관되게팀이운영되는것을중요시한다.	1 2 3 4 5
12. 팀원들은팀에서어떤일이왜일어나고있는지파악하기위해서로대화를나눈다.	1 2 3 4 5
13. 팀의생존을위해변화가필수적이라면현재상태에집착하지않고그변화를수용한다.	1 2 3 4 5
14. 팀원들은목표를성정하고달성하는데효과적으로대처한다.	1 2 3 4 5
15. 팀원들은각자에게할당된역할과그러한역할이동료들과어떤관계가있는지명확히이해한다.	1 2 3 4 5
16. 팀원들은그들의생각을구체적인행동으로옮긴다.	1 2 3 4 5
17. 팀원들은스스로가전반적인팀환경에영향을미치는중요한요소라고생각한다.	1 2 3 4 5
18. 팀원들모두가확고한자신의목표를가지고있다.	1 2 3 4 5
19. 팀원들은협동적으로임무를수행하고경쟁보다는협동하는것이중요하다고생각한다.	1 2 3 4 5
20. 팀은팀원들각개인의다른상황을이해해준다.	1 2 3 4 5
21. 팀원들은관중들과의관계가중요하다고생각한다.	1 2 3 4 5
22. 팀은현재상태의유지보다는새로운목표를달성하는것이중요하다고생각한다.	1 2 3 4 5
23. 긍정적팀환경을만드는데있어팀경영자뿐만아니라각선수들의역할도중요하다고생각한다.	1 2 3 4 5
24. 팀원들은문제를해결하고목표를달성하기위해협동이중요하다고생각한다.	1 2 3 4 5

Appendix D
Demographic Information Questionnaire

Demographic Information

1. Name of your team
2. Grade
 - ☐ Freshman
 - ☐ Sophomore
 - ☐ Junior
 - ☐ Senior
3. Length of experience
 - ☐ less than 5 years
 - ☐ 5 to 10 years
 - ☐ More than 10 years
4. Position
 - ☐ Defense
 - ☐ Mid-field
 - ☐ Offense

신상정보

1. 소속팀명

2. 학년

☐ 1학년

☐ 2학년

☐ 3학년

☐ 4학년

3. 선수경험

☐ 5년미만

☐ 5 - 10년

☐ 10년초과

4. 포지션

☐ 수비수

☐ 미드필더

☐ 공격수

Appendix E
Institutional Review Board Approval



*Institutional Review Board
Human Research Protections Office*

June 9, 2013

David Scott/Kang-Won You

dscott@unm.edu

Dear David Scott:

On 6/9/2013, the IRB reviewed the following submission:

Type of Review: Initial Study
Title of Study: The relationship between coach's leadership style and organizational culture in university soccer teams in Korea
Investigator: David Scott
Study ID: 13-220
Funding: None
Grant ID: None
IND, IDE, or HDE: None
Documents Reviewed:

- Consent Form-Eng 02.04.13.
- Consent Form-Kor 02.04.13.
- Protocol v02.04.13.
- demographic-Eng 02.04.13.
- MLQ-Eng 02.04.13.
- MLQ-Korean 02.04.13.
- OCAQ-Eng 02.04.13.
- OCAQ-Korean 02.04.13.

The IRB approved the study from 6/9/2013 to 6/8/2014 inclusive. Before 6/8/2014 or within 30 days of study closure, whichever is earlier, you are to submit a continuing review with required explanations. You can submit a continuing review by navigating to the active study and clicking Create Modification / CR.

If continuing review approval is not granted before the expiration date of 6/8/2014, approval of this study expires on that date.

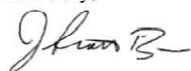
Category: EXPEDITED: CATEGORIES (7)(b) Social science methods
Determinations/Waivers: None

To request continuing review approval or closure, you are to submit a completed 'FORM: Continuing Review Progress Report (HRP-212) and required attachments 45 days prior to 6/8/2014.

Approval of this protocol will expire if the IRB does not grant continuing review approval before 6/8/2014.

In conducting this study, you are required to follow the requirements listed in the Investigator Manual (HRP-103), which can be found by navigating to the IRB Library within the IRB system.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'J. Scott Tonigan'.

J. Scott Tonigan, PhD
IRB Chair

