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A Comparison of Leadership Styles Between College and University Administrators of Physical Education in the United States and Korea

BY

Kwang Min Cho

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A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science Major in Health, Physical Education, and Recreation South Dakota State University 1985
A Comparison
of Leadership Styles
Between College and University Administrators
of Physical Education in the
United States and Korea

This thesis is approved as a creditable and independent investigation by a candidate for the degree, Master of Science, and is acceptable for meeting the thesis requirements for this degree. Acceptance of this thesis does not imply that the conclusions reached by the candidate are necessarily the conclusions of the major department.

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A warm thanks is expressed to my parents who are in Seoul, Korea for their motivation for my educational progress. Finally, to my wife, In Hae, for her patience and support in accomplishing this study, I extend sincere thanks.
Cho, K. M. A comparison of leadership styles between college and university administrators of physical education in the United States and Korea. Master of Science, 1985, 64 p. (J.E. Lidstone)

Thirty-two Korean physical education administrators and 98 United States administrators of physical education programs completed the T-P Leadership Questionnaire to compare their leadership styles in terms of task orientation and people orientation. A total of 130 of 170 administrators or 76.4% responded to the survey.

A Student's t-test for independent sample was calculated. Separate analyses were conducted for each of the two dimensions, task orientation and people orientation. Results of the t-test indicated that there was no significant difference at the .05 level of significance and 128 degrees of freedom between Korean and American administrators on the task orientation variable. However, in terms of people orientation, at the .05 level of significance and 128 degrees of freedom, there was a significant difference noted. American administrators had a higher people orientation score than Korean administrators. Even though there was a significant difference in people orientation scores between the two countries, the mean leadership styles of Korean and American administrators appear in the high task and high relationship quadrant on the Ohio State Leadership Grid.
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Chapter I

INTRODUCTION

It is accepted that any group must have a leader in order to achieve group goals effectively. Social scientists have offered various definitions of leadership. Hersey and Blanchard (1982) defined leadership as, "the process of influencing the activities of an individual or a group in efforts toward goal achievement in a given situation" (p. 83). Jensen (1982) defined leadership as, "a tool for achieving objectives, and its success must be judged in terms of what is accomplished" (p. 21).

Any certain leadership style cannot be the best for all situations and circumstances. Marshall and Frost (1982) indicate that "a person might be an effective leader in one set of circumstances, at a given moment in history, with a specific group of people, yet fail miserably at another time with a different task to perform" (p. 12). Schein (1965) also pointed out that the effective leader "must have the personal flexibility and range of skill necessary to vary his own behavior. If the needs and motives of his subordinates are different, they must be treated differently" (p. 61). Thus leaders may not be effective
unless they can adapt their leadership style to their environment.

Leaders differ in terms of their personal characteristics however there are some identifiable attributes or qualities which all effective leaders must possess. According to Marshall and Frost (1982), the effective leader must have vision as well as determination and perseverance. Additionally, the effective leader will be supportive of his or her followers. Finally, the effective leader must understand human nature.

Korea is a peninsula thrusting in a southerly direction from the northeast Asian mainland for about 1,000 kilometers. It is separated from Manchuria by the Yalu and Tuman Rivers. The Tuman River also separates Korea from Siberia in its downstream area. Korea is divided into two parts, communist North Korea and the free Republic of Korea. The latter's effective administrative area is 98,955 square km or about 45% of the peninsula. The peninsula is mountainous and only 20% of the land is flat (Kim, 1979).

The population of the Republic of Korea is approximately 38 million. The population density of Korea is 374 persons per square km (Kim, 1979). Korea is one of the most densely populated countries in the world.

The general system of education in Korea is very similar to that of the United States. It is comprised of
four stages: (a) primary, (b) low secondary, (c) upper secondary, and (d) higher education. These four stages correspond to the first to sixth grades (primary school), seventh to ninth grades (middle school), tenth to twelfth grades (high school), and thirteenth to sixteenth grades (college or university), respectively (Kim, 1979).

In terms of geography and population, Korea is a very small country when compared to the United States. Korea has more than 5,000 years of history and basically only one ethnic group while the United States is more than 200 years old and boasts many different ethnic groups. As a result, the cultural and historical backgrounds of the two countries are very disimilar. One of the most striking contrasts lies in the area of interpersonal relationships. Given these facts, it might be postulated that the leadership styles of administrators in departments of physical education in the two countries may be different.

Statement of the Problem

The purpose of this study is to examine leadership styles of physical education administrators in the United States and Korea. More specifically, the research seeks to answer the following question. Are there statistically significant differences between the leadership styles of
Hypotheses

The specific research hypotheses that will be tested in this investigation are as follows:

1. There will be no difference in task orientation (T score) as measured by the T-P Leadership Questionnaire between administrators of physical education programs in the United States and Korea.

2. There will be no difference in people orientation (P score) as measured by the T-P Leadership Questionnaire between administrators of physical education programs in the United States and Korea.

3. There will be no difference in leadership style as measured by the T-P Leadership Questionnaire between administrators of physical education programs in the United States and Korea.

Scope of the Study

The boundaries of the research are established by the following factors:
1. Data are limited to information obtained from the T-P leadership Questionnaire which was adapted from Sergiovanni, Metzcu's and Burden's revision of the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire.

2. Data reflect perceptions of selected respondents from 100 colleges and universities in the United States and 43 colleges and universities in Korea.

3. Data will be obtained during the spring 1985 academic semester.

**Significance of the Study**

Administration of physical education and athletics is a relatively new area of study in Korea when compared to the more established sub-disciplines in physical education such as physiology, history, measurement and evaluation and so on. It is hoped that this investigation will enrich the study of administration of physical education in Korea and the United States as well as provide some cross-cultural comparisons between the two nations.

The study has been deemed significant for a number of reasons. First, a search of related literature has been unable to reveal any comparative studies pertaining to leadership styles of administrators of physical education programs in the United States and Korea. It is hoped that
this study may provide information and impetus for further investigations of a cross-cultural nature. Second, the study may facilitate further study relative to leadership in physical education in Korea. Finally, the study will illuminate how administrators of physical education programs in two diverse cultures differ in terms of task orientation and people orientation.
Chapter II
REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

The review of related literature for this comparative study of the leadership styles between college and university administrators of physical education in the United States and Korea focused on three areas: (a) leadership theories, (b) types of leadership, and (c) studies of leadership relative to physical education and athletics.

Leadership Theories

The theories of leadership that appear most frequently in the literature can be divided into two basic categories. These are the trait theory and the situational theory.

The Trait Theory

The earliest researchers who studied leadership believed that an individual possessed certain traits or characteristics of leadership such as physical energy, friendliness, intelligence and so on (Hersey & Blanchard,
Hersey and Blanchard (1982) pointed out that "these inherent personal qualities, like intelligence, were felt to be transferable from one situation to another. Since all individuals did not have these qualities, only those who had them would be considered potential leaders" (p. 83). Ross and Hendry (1957) also indicated that "for centuries leadership was in the nature of an inheritance. Leaders were born, not made. Leadership was thought of as being a monopoly of the aristocracy" (p. 18).

Stogdill (1948) conducted a study of leadership traits. Stogdill found that the most common leadership traits were, (a) physical and constitutional factors including height, weight, physique, energy, health, appearance, (b) intelligence, (c) self-confidence, (d) sociability, (e) initiative, (f) dominance, and (g) surgency encompassing talkativeness, cheerfulness, enthusiasm, expressiveness and originality.

Moore (1932) also conducted a leadership trait study. He found that the most outstanding traits of female leaders were democratic attitudes, vitality, positiveness, friendliness, enthusiasm, sympathy, trustworthiness and perseverance.

In 1933 Brown studied students in a high school who held leadership positions for which they were chosen by their fellow students. Brown reported that the leaders
differed from the nonleaders in the qualities of intelligence, scholarship, economic status and social status.

In a summary of leadership research, Marriner (1982) stated that many researchers labeled the significant leadership traits as "energy, drive, enthusiasm, ambition, aggressiveness, decisiveness, self-confidence, friendliness, affection, honesty, fairness, loyalty, dependability and teaching skill" (p. 68). More specifically she stated:

1. Leaders need to be more intelligent than the group they lead.

2. Leaders must possess initiative, the ability to perceive and start actions not considered by others.

3. Creativity is an asset. Having originality, an ability to realize new solutions to problems, and ideas of new ways to be productive is helpful.

4. Emotional maturity-integrity, a sense of purpose and direction, persistence, dependability and objectivity is another important trait.

5. Communication skills are important. The leader needs to perceive the meaning of messages from others and to speak and write clearly.

6. Persuasion often is used by leaders to gain the consent of followers.

7. Leaders need to be perceptive to recognize their allies from their opponents and to place their subordinates in suitable positions.

8. Leaders frequently participate in social activities. They can socialize with all kinds of people and adapt to various groups (pp. 68-69).
According to Marriner (1982), the trait theory was the basis for most leadership study until the mid-1940s. She states, "early work in this area maintained that traits are inherited, but later theories suggested that traits could be obtained through learning and experience" (p 68). Marriner (1982) also stated that there are only a few traits identified in all trait theory research. They are not exclusive of one another and there is considerable overlap between categories or definitions of the characteristics. She concludes by saying that it is impossible to say which traits are most important or which traits are needed to acquire leadership.

The Situational Theory

The major support for the situational theory arose from the realization that any certain leadership style cannot be the best for all situations and circumstances. According to Marriner (1982) "situational theory became popular during the 1950s" (p. 69). She stated that the variables which determine the effectiveness of leadership style are, personality of the leader, performance requirements of the leader and followers, expectations of the leader and followers, organizational structure, and the nature of the organization.
Examples of the situational theory can be found frequently in the leadership literature. Stogdill (1948) stated, "a person does not become a leader by virtue of the possession of some combination of traits, but the pattern of personal characteristics of the leader must bear some relevant relationship to the characteristics, activities and goals of the followers" (p. 58). Bogardus (1931) pointed out that, "a person may use leadership technique in a situation for which it is not intended with the result that it does not work well, or it fails" (p. 64). Similarly, Frost and Marshall (1982) stated that "a person might be an effective leader in one set of circumstances, at a given moment in history, with a specific group of people, yet fail miserably at another time with a different task to perform" (p. 12).

Ross and Hendry (1957) cited Gibb's idea about the situational approach of leadership which involves four elements:

1. the structure of interpersonal relations within a group,
2. group or syntality characteristics such as those defined by the group dimensions already discussed
3. characteristics of the total culture in which the group exists and from which group members have been drawn,
4. the physical conditions and the task with which the group is confronted (p. 26).
Ross and Hendry (1957) conducted a study of camp leaders. They reported the case of a university student who was a reasonably good student, active in student affairs and very popular. He was also the president of an important student organization and played the leading role in the annual dramatic production. However, he failed completely as a member of the camp staff because the camp experience was an entirely different situation than that of the university. This is a crude illustration and grossly oversimplified, but it supports the contention that, "leadership is not something that can be imported from the outside" (Ross & Hendry, 1957, p. 28). Schein (1965) suggested that a leader "must have the personal flexibility and range of skills necessary to vary his own behavior. If the needs and motives of his subordinates are different, they must be treated differently" (p. 61).

**Types of Leadership**

According to Browne (1955) there are three types of leadership: (a) autocratic leadership, (b) democratic leadership, and (c) laissez-faire leadership. Browne stated that an autocratic leader determines policy and dictates work tasks and there is no room for group discussion in decision making. On the other hand, under the democratic
leader all policy making is a function of group interaction and input with the guidance of the leader. In observing a laissez-faire leader, Browne (1955) described "complete freedom of group or individual decision making without leader participation" (p. 305). The leader supplied materials but participated only when asked. The leader made infrequent comments on member activities and made no attempt to interfere with or participate in the course of events.

Frost and Marshall (1982) also acknowledged the autocratic, democratic and laissez-faire leadership styles. They indicated that, "when absolute power and final authority are vested in a ruler, that person is considered an autocrat" (p. 3). This is contrasted with a laissez-faire leader who gives complete freedom to staff members to set their goals, make decisions, and do as they please. They stated that democratic leaders utilize the expertise and knowledge of each staff member and treat the members of the organization in a way that enhances the dignity and stature of each member.

It is now believed that the effectiveness of a leader is related to the type of leadership he or she employs. We live in a democratic society and we support the democratic type of leadership, however, democratic leadership may not be the best style of leading.
Shaw (1955) conducted an experimental study which was concerned with the effects of autocratic and democratic leadership upon the performance and morale of groups in various communication channels among members. Shaw concluded:

1. Authoritarian and nonauthoritarian leadership affects group performance and morale via their effects upon group independence and saturation.

2. Authoritarian leadership produces better performance and lower morale than does nonauthoritarian leadership (pp. 348-349).

**Studies of Leadership Relative to Physical Education and Athletics**

Few studies relating to leadership behavior have been conducted in the area of physical education and athletics. Kemp (1977) conducted a study to investigate selected physical educators' perceptions of leadership behavior of female physical education administrators. The sample consisted of 129 respondents from eight selected colleges and universities. A Q-sort was used to evaluate the respondents. Statement content represented Stogdill's concept of leader behavior dimensions: (a) initiating structure with its subcategories of initiation and production emphasis, and (b) consideration structure with its subcategories of consideration and tolerance of uncertainty. The structured Q-sort was composed of
statements representing positive and negative orientation. Based on the data analysis, female administrators in this study were perceived as relating more to the subcategory of initiation of structure than to production emphasis and more to the subcategory of tolerance of uncertainty than to consideration. Data analysis indicated statistically significant differences between the perceptions of physical educators in regard to subcategories and statement orientation in both leader behavior dimensions. No statistically significant differences were found between subcategories of leader behavior dimensions or between orientation with sex as a main effect.

Green (1980) investigated the relationship between perceived leadership styles of coaches and team performance and athlete's self-concept of athletic ability in a basketball setting. The Managerial Philosophies Scale (modified version) and the Self-concept of Athletic Ability Scale were administered to 146 male and female high school varsity basketball players. The major hypotheses which were supported by the findings were, (a) that leadership style was a significant factor in accounting for differences in self-concept of ability, and (b) that an athlete's status as starter or non-starter was a significant factor in accounting for differences in self-concept. Further, athletic perceptions of an autocratic leadership style were
associated with lower self-conceptualizations than the other two leadership styles, notably democratic and situation-specific. Athletic perceptions of a democratic leadership style were associated with self-concept of athletic ability which were higher than those associated with situation-specific leadership. Green concluded that coaches and administrators need to be sensitive to their potential influence on the personal-social development of those participating in athletics.

Allen (1971) investigated leadership and group interaction in departments of physical education for women in 27 selected colleges and universities. Allen utilized seven questionnaire scales which represented seven experimental variables. Four of these scales were part of the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire-Form XII including: (a) Initiating Structure, (b) Role Assumption, (c) Tolerance of Freedom, and (d) Consideration. The three remaining scales were: (a) the Least-preferred Co-worker Scale, (b) the Group Atmosphere Scale, and (c) an adaptation of the Position Authority Scale. The subjects for this study were 27 administrators of female college and university physical education departments and 176 full-time faculty members from these departments. Allen concluded that:

1. Administrators as a group do not clearly favor one style of leadership although they are slightly more relations-oriented than task-oriented.
2. Administrators as a group believe their leadership style is related to the amount of authority their position has been given.

3. Faculty members as a group believe that leader behavior is a significant and contributing factor to group atmosphere.

4. Administrators and faculty members differ significantly about their perceptions of the administrators' behavior (pp. 4-5).

Wisnieski (1980) investigated differences in athletes' perceptions of leadership behavior of coaches involved in individual and team sports. The Coach Behavior Description Questionnaire was used by 68 athletes from the sports of tennis and softball to rate their coaches on a scale from one to four. A t-test for independent samples was utilized to compare and contrast the athletes' interpretations of the behavior of the coaches in an individual and a team sport. Results showed that athletes from the team sport rated their coaches higher in the dimensions of teaching, initiation, pressure, and representation than did athletes from individual sports. Tennis coaches rated slightly higher in the area of consideration. Coaches of individual sports displayed significantly different leadership behaviors than did coaches of team sports, specifically, on dimensions of initiation and representation. However, coaches of individual sports and team sports displayed similar leadership behaviors on the dimensions of teaching, consideration, and pressure.
Finally, in 1977, Wardell conducted an investigation to determine the relationship between leadership style and team success of selected 3A and 4A high school head football, basketball, wrestling, and track and field coaches in the state of Utah. The sample (N=84) consisted of four male head coaches (football, basketball, wrestling, track and field) from each of 21 selected high schools in the state of Utah. Data collection was accomplished through personal administration of the selected instruments at each of the respective schools. Coaches leadership styles were assessed by the Least Preferred Co-worker Scale (LPC). Leader-member relations as perceived by the head coach were assessed by the Group Atmosphere Questionnaire (GA). Coaching experience was determined by the number of years in a head coaching position and was obtained via a Personal Data Questionnaire. Team success was determined by the winning percentage from the 1976 football, basketball, and wrestling season, and the 1977 track and field season.

Wardell concluded:

1. There was not a great degree of significance between the LPC variables as previous studies had suggested.

2. The relationship between LPC and team success in the sports of basketball and track and field was not significant (p>.05).
Summary

In this chapter, the related literature was reviewed which focused on three areas: (a) leadership theories, (b) types of leadership, and (c) studies of leadership relative to physical education and athletics. It would appear from the literature that the study of leadership is moving in a direction away from trait theory toward a situational model of leadership whereby leaders adjust their style according to the perceived competence and maturity of the follower. It is also apparent that efforts aimed at studying leadership behavior in the areas of physical education and athletics have been extremely diverse in nature making it impossible to draw substantive conclusions. It is hoped that the present investigation will provide some insight into the perceived leadership styles of administrators of physical education programs in the United States and Korea.
Chapter III

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

The purpose of this study was to examine the leadership styles of physical education administrators in the United States and Korea. More specifically, the research sought to answer the following question. Are there statistically significant leadership differences between administrators of physical education programs in the United States and Korea according to the T-P Leadership Questionnaire?

Data Collection Instrument

The survey method was determined to be the best manner of conducting this comparative research study. Because of the large number of subjects anticipated (170), a questionnaire was the most feasible data-collecting device to employ.

Due to the importance of questionnaire, much consideration went into its selection. The opinions of various experts at South Dakota State University were instrumental in the decision-making process. After several
questionnaires of a similar nature were reviewed, the T-P Leadership Questionnaire (see Appendix A) which was adapted from Sergiovanni, Metzcus and Burden's revision of the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire was selected. The Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire has been developed at the Ohio State University. The instrument originally measured two dimensions of leadership behavior; initiating structure and consideration. The fourth revision of the LBDQ (LBDQ XII) consisted of 100 items and assessed 12 dimensions of leadership behavior. For several decades, numerous studies have been conducted using the LBDQ.

The T-P Leadership Questionnaire categorizes leader behavior in terms of task orientation and people orientation. The instrument was translated into Korean by the investigator for the Korean physical education administrators (see Appendix B). After translation, the instrument was reviewed for accuracy by several Korean students at South Dakota State University.

**Determination of the Sample**

The investigator desired to provide sufficient data to make meaningful comparisons between administrators from the two countries. Due to the large number of colleges and universities in the United States, the investigator used
random sampling so that the results could be generalized to all administrators of physical education in the United States. One hundred American colleges and universities were selected by random sampling procedure from among 252 colleges and universities which have graduate physical education programs in the United States. The sample represented 40% of the 252 colleges and universities listed in the Physical Education Gold Book, a directory of physical educators in higher education (Howell, 1982). Thirty-five different states were represented. Only institutions which had a physical education faculty of five or more were included in the sample. It was determined that opportunities for leadership would be greatly diminished in departments with small numbers of faculty.

Because there are a relatively small number of colleges and universities in Korea, the investigator was able to include all 43 Korean colleges and universities which have physical education programs.

**Data Collection**

Although data for a survey type investigation may be collected via several methods, the mail survey was used in this investigation. Three separate mailings (initial introductory letter, cover letter with instrument, and reminder letter) were used for data collection.
First, the initial introductory letter (see Appendices D & E) which briefly described the study and its importance was sent to administrators in the United States and Korea. Endorsement of the study by Dr. Jim Lidstone, HPER Research Coordinator at SDSU, was included with this mailing (see Appendix F). One week following the mailing of the initial introductory letter, the T-P Leadership Questionnaire was sent accompanied by a cover letter (Appendices G & H) and a stamped, addressed return envelope. Also included in this mailing was an address card that subjects were to return if they desired a summary of findings. A follow-up reminder letter (see Appendix I) was sent to those who had not returned their survey instrument within six weeks. Another questionnaire and a stamped, addressed return envelope were included with the reminder letter in case the subject had misplaced or disposed of the original questionnaire.

**Data Analysis**

The returned questionnaires were hand scored as per the T-P Leadership Questionnaire scoring instructions (see Appendix C). Task orientation scores and people orientation scores which ranged from 0 to 20 and 0 to 15, respectively were determined for Korean administrators and American
administrators. The higher score represented higher concern for that dimension. A mean value for the administrators in both countries was determined by averaging their scores for each of the two dimensions, task orientation and people orientation.

Two Student's t-tests for independent samples were conducted using the Korean and American administrators' mean scores on the task orientation and people orientation variables. Data analysis was accomplished using the tenth release of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSSx) available on the IBM 370 computer system at South Dakota State University.
Chapter IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to examine leadership styles of physical education administrators in the United States and Korea. More specifically, the research sought to answer the following question. Are there statistically significant leadership differences between administrators of physical education programs in the United States and Korea according to T-P Leadership Questionnaire? In this chapter, results from the questionnaire survey are presented and discussed relative to the purposes of the study.

Analysis of Results

Data obtained through the mail survey of the questionnaire are presented in tabular form. As indicated in Table 1, the rate of response was very good with 132 or 77.6% of the total of 170 administrators in Korea and the United States returning the questionnaire. The percentage of returns for Korean and American administrators were 55.1% and 87.5%, respectively. Institutions which responded to the survey are presented in Appendices J and K.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Korea ( (n = 58) )</th>
<th>U.S.A. ( (n = 112) )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Response</td>
<td>32 ( 55.1 % )</td>
<td>98 ( 87.5 % )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Response</td>
<td>26 ( 44.8 % )</td>
<td>14 ( 12.5 % )</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It was expected that a lower percentage might have been received from the Korean administrators because colleges and universities in Korea take winter vacation December through February. This, perhaps, explains the lower rate of return. However, it should be emphasized that 55.1% response from Korean administrators represents 55.1% of the entire population. A decision was made to survey the entire population since there are a manageable number of colleges and universities in Korea as compared to the United States. The investigator has no reason to believe that the 44.8% of non-responses are systematic in any sense with respect to leadership behavior. Given that, the Korean returns will be treated as a 55.1% "sampling" of the population.
The data presented in Tables 2 and 3 show the task orientation scores of the Korean administrators and American administrators, respectively.

### TABLE 2

**Task Orientation Scores for Korean Administrators**

\[(n = 32)\]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Range</th>
<th>f</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>cf</th>
<th>c%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>17 - 20</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13 - 16</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>15.6</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>96.9</td>
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<tr>
<td>9 - 12</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>81.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 - 8</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>28.1</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>31.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 - 4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
TABLE 3

Task Orientation Scores for American Administrators

\( (n = 98) \)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Range</th>
<th>f</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>cf</th>
<th>c%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>17 - 20</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13 - 16</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>29.6</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>96.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 - 12</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>44.9</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>67.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 - 8</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>17.3</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>22.4</td>
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<td>1 - 4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As is apparent, the scores are relatively normally distributed. The highest task orientation score recorded for Korean administrators was 18 out of a possible 20 while the highest score for American administrators was 17. The lowest task orientation scores were 3 and 1 for Korean and American administrators, respectively. The highest percentage of observations for Korean administrators' task orientation scores fell in the 9 - 12 range with 16 administrators or 50.0%. For American administrators, the
highest percentage of observations also fell in the 9 - 12 range with 44 administrators or 44.8%. The lowest percentage of observations for Korean administrators fell in the 1 - 4 and 17 - 20 ranges (3.1%). The lowest percentage of observations for American administrators' task orientation scores occurred in 17 - 20 range with 3 administrators or 3.1%.

The data reported in Tables 4 and 5 are the people orientation scores for administrators from both countries.

**TABLE 4**

People Orientation Scores for Korean Administrators

\((n = 32)\)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Range</th>
<th>f</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>cf</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>13 - 15</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
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<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>12</td>
<td>37.5</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>100.0</td>
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<td>20</td>
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<tr>
<td>4 - 6</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>31.3</td>
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<tr>
<td>1 - 3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6.3</td>
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TABLE 5
People Orientation Scores for American Administrators
(n = 98)

<table>
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<th>Range</th>
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<th>%</th>
<th>cf</th>
<th>C%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>13 - 15</td>
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<td>13.2</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>100.0</td>
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<td>10 - 12</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>73.4</td>
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<td>86.7</td>
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<td>7 - 9</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10.2</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>13.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 - 6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.0</td>
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<td>3.1</td>
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<tr>
<td>1 - 3</td>
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<td>0.0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The lowest people orientation score for Korean administrators was 1 and the highest score was 12 out of a possible 15. For American administrators, the lowest people orientation score was 5 and the highest score was 14. The highest percentage of observations for Korean administrators on the people orientation variable fell in the 10 - 12 range with 12 administrators or 37.5%. The highest percentage of observations for American administrators also fell in the
10 - 12 range with 72 administrators (73.4%). A glance at the table reveals that the people orientation scores for both groups are much less normally distributed than were the task orientation scores.

In Table 6 the descriptive statistics for the variables under investigation are reported for all subjects. The overall mean task orientation score was 10.562, with a standard deviation of (S.D.) 3.415. The mean people orientation score for all subjects was 10.246, and a S.D. of 2.286. Obviously there is very little difference between these two means.

**TABLE 6**

Descriptive Statistics of Task Orientation and People Orientation Scores for Combined Sample

(N = 130)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>M</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>S.E.M.</th>
<th>Min.</th>
<th>Max.</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Task Orientation Score</td>
<td>10.562</td>
<td>3.415</td>
<td>0.299</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>17.000</td>
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<tr>
<td>People Orientation Score</td>
<td>10.246</td>
<td>2.286</td>
<td>0.200</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>14.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 7 and Table 8 present descriptive statistics for the task orientation and people orientation variables for administrators in both countries. The mean task orientation score for Korean administrators was 10.219 with a S.D. of 3.180. The mean people orientation score for Korean administrators was 8.094, S.D.=2.775. This represents a difference of 2.125 between people and task scores for the Koreans.

**TABLE 7**

Descriptive Statistics of Task Orientation and People Orientation Scores for Korean Administrators

\( (n = 32) \)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>M</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>S.E.M.</th>
<th>Min.</th>
<th>Max.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Task Orientation</td>
<td>10.219</td>
<td>3.180</td>
<td>0.562</td>
<td>3.000</td>
<td>18.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>People Orientation</td>
<td>8.094</td>
<td>2.775</td>
<td>0.491</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>12.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
TABLE 8
Descriptive Statistics of Task Orientation and People Orientation Scores for American Administrators
(n = 98)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>M</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>S.E.M.</th>
<th>Min.</th>
<th>Max.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Task Orientation Score</td>
<td>10.673</td>
<td>3.496</td>
<td>0.353</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>17.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>People Orientation Score</td>
<td>10.940</td>
<td>1.569</td>
<td>0.158</td>
<td>5.000</td>
<td>14.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Task orientation scores for American administrators ranged from 1 to 17 with a mean of 10.673, S.D.=3.496. People orientation scores ranged from 5 to 14 with a mean score of 10.949, and a standard deviation of 1.569. The mean people orientation score for American administrators was 0.276 higher than the mean task orientation score. American administrators had a higher people orientation score than task orientation while Korean administrators had a higher mean task orientation score than people orientation score.
The mean task orientation score for American administrators was 0.454 higher than the mean task score for Korean administrators. The mean people orientation score for American administrators was 2.855 higher than that for Korean administrators.

A $t$-test for independent samples was used to compare the task orientation and people orientation scores of Korean and American administrators. The results are reported in Table 9.

### TABLE 9

Results of $t$-test for Independent Samples

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>S.E.M.</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>$t$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<td><strong>Task Orientation Score</strong></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korea</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>10.218</td>
<td>3.180</td>
<td>0.562</td>
<td>128</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.S.A.</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>10.673</td>
<td>3.496</td>
<td>0.353</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>People Orientation Score</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korea</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>8.093</td>
<td>2.775</td>
<td>0.491</td>
<td>128</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.S.A.</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>10.949</td>
<td>1.569</td>
<td>0.158</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* $p < .001$
On the dimension of task orientation at the .05 level of significance and 128 degrees of freedom, there was no significant difference between Korean and American administrators ($p = 0.515$). However, on the dimension of people orientation, there was a significant difference observed at the .05 level of significance with 128 degrees of freedom ($p < 0.001$).

Figure 1 plots the mean leadership styles of Korean physical education administrators and American physical education administrators on the Ohio State Leadership Quadrant. Even though there was a significant difference noted in people orientation scores, Korean and American administrators of physical education programs appear in the same quadrant, High Task and High Relationship, when mean scores are considered. However, it should be noted that when statistical bounds are placed on the estimates at the 95% confidence interval, Korean administrators, being so close to the center of the grid, could conceivably be in any of the four quadrants. American administrators, on the other hand, will always be high relationship but, given the bounds on the estimate, could vacillate between high and low task behavior.
FIGURE 1
The Mean Leadership Styles for Korean and American Administrators on the Ohio State Leadership Quadrant

A: American administrators
K: Korean administrators
Figure 2 and Figure 3 plot the leadership styles for all Korean and American administrators, respectively, on an individual basis.

FIGURE 2
Distribution of Leadership Styles for Korean Administrators
(n = 32)
FIGURE 3
Distribution of Leadership Styles
for American Administrators
\( n = 98 \)
It is significant to note the diversity of styles. The highest distributed quadrant on the Ohio State Leadership Quadrant for Korean administrators was the High Task and High Relationship quadrant with 11 administrators or 34.3%. The remaining three quadrants (High Relationship and Low Task, Low Relationship and Low Task, and Low Task and High Relationship) each had 6 administrators or 18.7%. Two Korean administrators were on the boundary between the Low Task, Low Relationship quadrant and the High Task, Low Relationship quadrant and one administrator was on the boundary between High Relationship and Low Task and High Task and High Relationship.

For American Administrators, the highest distributed quadrant was also the High Task and High Relationship quadrant with 48 administrators or 48.9%. The second highest quadrant was High Relationship and Low Task with 36 administrators or 36.7%. The smallest frequency of observations fell in the Low Task and Low Relationship quadrant with one administrator or 1.0%. Three administrators (3.1%) appeared in the High Task and Low Relationship quadrant. Ten American administrators were on the boundary between the High Relationship and Low Task and High Task and High Relationship quadrants. It is significant to note that Korean administrators were fairly equally distributed among the four quadrants while most American
administrators (95.9%) were distributed between either the High Relationship and Low Task or High Task and High Relationship quadrants.

Discussion of Results

The hypotheses stated previously in Chapter 1 postulated that there would be no significant differences in task orientation scores, people orientation scores and leadership styles between Korean and American physical education administrators. The data presented here indicated that there was no significant difference in task orientation scores between Korean and American administrators but there was a significant difference observed on the people orientation variable.

Korea is about one-half the size of South Dakota and more than 70% of its terrain is mountainous. The population of Korea is approximately 35 million making this small country one of the most densely populated countries in the world. Under these conditions, people's life styles, way of thinking and other social systems are very different from that of Americans. It is speculated that the main reason why there was a significant difference observed between Korean and American administrators on the people orientation variable are the cultural and sociological differences
between Korea and the United States which affect interpersonal relationships. In Korea, there exists a very strict relationship between the superiors and the followers and between older people and younger people. Korean young people, who are usually the followers or subordinates, learn to respect and revere older people who are, generally, the superiors. Authority is not questioned or challenged.

In groups or organizations in Korea, the leaders typically, strictly organize and define the roles of their subordinates. Korean administrators or leaders are more likely to explain what activities must be done and when, where, and how the tasks are to be accomplished than American leaders. This predominant task orientation carries over to education as well. Given this, it is not surprising that in departments of physical education, Korean leaders are less concerned with relationship behavior than American leaders as indicated by the difference in people orientation scores.
Chapter V
SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of this study was to examine leadership styles of physical education administrators in the United States and Korea. More specifically, the research sought to answer the following question. Are there statistically significant leadership differences between administrators of physical education programs in the United States and Korea according to the T-P Leadership Questionnaire? Contained in this chapter are the summary and conclusions of the study, along with recommendations for further study in this area.

Summary

Thirty-two Korean physical education administrators and 98 United States administrators of physical education programs completed the T-P Leadership Questionnaire to compare their leadership styles in terms of task orientation and people orientation. A mail questionnaire survey was employed for data collection. A total of 132 of 170 administrators or 76.4% responded to the survey.
After scoring all T-P Leadership Questionnaires, a Student's t-test for independent samples was calculated using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSSx) available on the computer facilities at South Dakota State University. Separate analyses were conducted for each of the two dimensions, task orientation and people orientation.

Results of the t-test indicated that there was no significant difference at the .05 level of significance and 128 degrees of freedom between Korean and American administrators on the task orientation variable. However, in terms of people orientation, at the .05 level of significance and 128 degrees of freedom, there was a significant difference noted. American administrators had a higher people orientation score than Korean administrators. Even though there was a significant difference in people orientation scores between the two countries, the mean leadership styles of Korean and American administrators appear in the high task and high relationship quadrant on the Ohio State Leadership Grid.

At this point, perhaps, a word of caution is in order. The T-P Leadership Questionnaire asks leaders to respond according to how they usually behave in certain situations under certain conditions. It would be a quantum leap of faith to assume that the way that they report they
behave corresponds with how they actually behave. Thus, the reader is cautioned against assuming that these self-perceptions of leadership styles are actually, in fact, representative of leadership behavior.

Conclusions

From the evidence that has been presented, the following conclusions are offered:

1. There is no significant difference in task orientation scores between Korean and American physical education administrators as indicated by the T-P Leadership Questionnaire.

2. There is a significant difference in people orientation scores between Korean and American physical education administrators as indicated by the T-P Leadership Questionnaire. Specifically, American administrators scored higher than Korean administrators on this variable.

3. The mean leadership styles of Korean and American physical education administrators appear in the same category (High Task and High Relationship) on the Ohio State Leadership Grid.
Recommendations for Further Study

As was mentioned in the introduction, physical education is a relatively new discipline of study in Korea and administration of physical education and athletics is the newest of the physical education sub-disciplines. In recent years, Korean physical educators have become more active in the study of administration. Given this, the following recommendations are offered for further research in this and similar areas.

Different instruments could be used to compare the leadership styles of Korean and American physical education administrators. Comparative studies of leadership in the area of physical education and athletics could be extended to include coaches of sports teams. It might also be interesting to look at leadership styles as a function of number of years experience and department size. Perhaps it would be found that leaders behave differently according to these variables. Finally, it is hoped that the results of this investigation provide the impetus for further studies of a cross-cultural nature incorporating other countries. It is only by examining other models that we can adequately assess our own methods.
BIBLIOGRAPHY


Bogardus, E. S. (1931). Leadership and social situation. In C. G. Browne & T. S. Cohn (Eds.), The study of leadership (pp. 62-75). Denville, IL: Interstate.


APPENDIX A

T-P LEADERSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE

Reproduced with permission from
A Handbook of Structured Experiences for
Human Relations Training, Volume 1
J. William Pfeiffer and John E. Jones, Editors
San Diego: UNIVERSITY ASSOCIATES Publisher, Inc., 1974

The following items describe aspects of leadership behavior. Respond to each item according to the way you act in your job as dean or department head when you are the leader of the group. Circle whether you behave in the described way always (A), frequently (F), occasionally (O), seldom (S), or never (N).

As dean or department head when I am the leader of the group...

A  F  O  S  N  1. I act as the spokesperson of the group.
A  F  O  S  N  2. I encourage overtime work.
A  F  O  S  N  3. I allow members complete freedom in their work.
A  F  O  S  N  4. I encourage the use of uniform procedures.
A  F  O  S  N  5. I permit the members to use their own judgment in solving problems.
A  F  O  S  N  6. I stress keeping ahead of competing groups.
A  F  O  S  N  7. I speak as a representative of the group.
A  F  O  S  N  8. I needle members for greater effort.
A  F  O  S  N  9. I test my ideas by presenting them to the group.
A  F  O  S  N  10. I let the members do their work the way they think best.
A  F  O  S  N  11. I am working hard for a promotion.
A  F  O  S  N  12. I am able to tolerate postponement and uncertainty.
A  F  O  S  N  13. I speak for the group when visitors are present.
A  F  O  S  N  14. I keep the work moving at a rapid pace.
A  F  O  S  N  15. I turn the members loose on a job and let them go to it.
A  F  O  S  N  16. I settle conflicts when they occur in the group.
A  F  O  S  N  17. I get swamped by details.
A  F  O  S  N  18. I represent the group at outside meetings.
As dean or department head when I am the leader of the group ...

A  F  O  S  N  19. I am reluctant to allow the members freedom of action.
A  F  O  S  N  20. I decide what shall be done and how it shall be done.
A  F  O  S  N  22. I would let some members have authority.
A  F  O  S  N  23. Things usually turn out as I predict.
A  F  O  S  N  24. I allow the group a high degree of initiative.
A  F  O  S  N  25. I assign group members to particular tasks.
A  F  O  S  N  26. I am willing to make changes.
A  F  O  S  N  27. I trust the group members to exercise good judgment.
A  F  O  S  N  28. I ask the members to work harder when necessary.
A  F  O  S  N  29. I schedule the work to be done.
A  F  O  S  N  30. I refuse to explain my actions.
A  F  O  S  N  31. I persuade others that my ideas are to their advantage.
A  F  O  S  N  32. I permit the group to set its own pace.
A  F  O  S  N  33. I urge the group to do better than its previous performance on a similar task.
A  F  O  S  N  34. I act without consulting the group.
A  F  O  S  N  35. I ask that group members follow standard rules and regulations.

T ________ P ________
## T-P Leadership Questionnaire

### TRANSLATED INTO KOREAN

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*Reproduced with permission from A Handbook of Structured Experiences for Human Relations Training, Volume 1, J. William Pfeiffer and John E. Jones, Editors, San Diego: UNIVERSITY ASSOCIATES Publisher, Inc., 1974*
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<td>16.</td>
<td>나는 그물 네에 센터 반복이 생겼을 때 그것을 안정시킨다.</td>
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<td>17.</td>
<td>나는 너무 세부적인 것에 집착하여 일을 그만한다.</td>
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<td>18.</td>
<td>나는 외부적인 요인에서 그물을 탐색한다.</td>
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<td>19.</td>
<td>나는 그물의 손님에 영향을 주는 데 있어 이론적 자료가 필요하다고 생각한다.</td>
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<td>20.</td>
<td>나는 무언가를 하기로 결정하고 또 그것이 어떤 방식으로 허용이 되는가를 결정한다.</td>
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<td>나는 실험성과를 높이기 위하여 그물에 의존한다.</td>
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<td>22.</td>
<td>나는 실험의 성과를 높이기 위하여 그물에 의존하다.</td>
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<td>23.</td>
<td>실험의 결과는 내가 예상한 대로 나타난다.</td>
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<td>24.</td>
<td>나는 그물의 손님에 의존하여 일을 할 수 있는 것을 의뢰한다.</td>
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<td>나는 그물의 손님에 의존하여 일을 할 수 있는 것을 의뢰한다.</td>
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<td>26.</td>
<td>나는 필요함에 기꺼이 사로잡힌 병원에 시도한다.</td>
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<td>27.</td>
<td>나는 그물의 손님에 의존하여 일을 할 수 있는 것을 의뢰한다.</td>
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<td>나는 그물의 손님에 의존하여 일을 할 수 있는 것을 의뢰한다.</td>
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<td>나는 일이 끝난 시기를 예측한다.</td>
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<td>30.</td>
<td>나는 그물의 손님에 의존하여 일을 할 수 있는 것을 의뢰한다.</td>
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<td>31.</td>
<td>나는 그물의 손님에 의존하여 일을 할 수 있는 것을 의뢰한다.</td>
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<td>나는 그물의 손님에 의존하여 일을 할 수 있는 것을 의뢰한다.</td>
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<td>33.</td>
<td>나는 그물의 손님에 의존하여 일을 할 수 있는 것을 의뢰한다.</td>
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<td>나는 그물의 손님에 의존하여 일을 할 수 있는 것을 의뢰한다.</td>
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<td>35.</td>
<td>나는 그물의 손님에 의존하여 일을 할 수 있는 것을 의뢰한다.</td>
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세우약과의 치료차로이
T-P Leadership Questionnaire Scoring Instructions

1. Circle the item number for items 8, 12, 17, 18, 19, 30, 34, and 35.

2. Write the number 1 in front of a circled item number if you respond S (seldom) or N (never) to that item.

3. Also write a number 1 in front of item numbers not circled if you responded A (always) or F (frequently).

4. Circle the number 1's which you have written in front of the following items: 3, 5, 8, 10, 15, 18, 19, 22, 24, 26, 27, 30, 32, 34, and 35.

5. Count the circled number 1's. This is your score for concern for people. Record the score in the blank following the letter P at the end of the questionnaire.

6. Count the uncircled number 1's. This is your score for concern for task. Record this number in the blank following the letter T.
APPENDIX D

Initial Letter to American Administrators

January 28, 1985

Dear

To introduce myself, my name is Kwang Min Cho and I am a Graduate student at South Dakota State University. Originally from Seoul, Korea, I am in the United States studying the administration of physical education and athletics for my master's degree.

At the present time, I am conducting a research study for my thesis which will investigate the differences/similarities in leadership styles between college and university physical education administrators in the United States and Korea. You have been selected via random sampling as one of the United States administrators.

The purpose of this letter is to ask for your cooperation and participation in my research. I realize that this is an imposition and for that I apologize. In several days you will receive a copy of the T-P Leadership Questionnaire. This instrument has been selected, in part, because of its brevity. It will require only about 10 to 15 minutes to complete. If you could find the time from your busy schedule to help me with my research, I would be most appreciative. Your response means a great deal to the integrity of the thesis.

Thank you very much for your consideration.

Very sincerely yours,

Kwang Min Cho
Initial Letter to Korean Administrators

교수님께
안녕하세요?
우시가에러한교수님께의 서류발견을 위하여 수고하시느 교수님께 선포함을 전공하고 있는
서유학도의 한사람으로서 진심으로 감사를 드립니다. 저는 1979년 연세대학교 석우
학과를 졸업하고 전직은 South Dakota State University로 석우
(Administration of Physical Education and Athletics)을 전공하고 있는
우시가에러한 교수님입니다.

이렇게 본지를 드리는 것은 다름이 아니오라, 석사학위 논문을 준비중 자료수집을 위
하여 복잡한 독학생활과 장동간 시간을 희달하니, 우시가에러한 교수님의 도움을 드리기 바랍니다. 직접
참여하고 학문을 도래하여 학문적인 여러가지 사정상 이곳에서 지연으로 탈락하기 되었
음을 양해해 주시기 바랍니다.

지금까지 준비하고 있는 논문은 미국과 한국의 대학의 건설 체육지도자들의 leadership
styles에 관한 비교연구이며, 제목은 "A Comparison of Leadership Styles
Between College and University Administrators of Physical Education
in the United States and Korea"입니다.

여러가지로 박수를 치지만 겸손한 지역의 시간을 익혀내 아니시면, 저도 모르게 겸손한
경험이 되었습니다.

감사합니다. 안녕히 계십시오.

1985. 1. 15.
조금만 응답.
January 31, 1985

Dear Sir or Madam:

Mr. Kwang Min Cho, a candidate for the Master of Science degree at South Dakota State University, is soliciting your cooperation as part of his master's thesis. Mr. Cho is studying the administrative aspects of physical education and his thesis will make a significant contribution to this area and to the area of comparative sport and physical education. Your participation will enhance the significance of the work.

The purpose of this letter is to certify that Kwang Min Cho has the approval and full support of the Department of Health, Physical Education, and Recreation and South Dakota State University in his research. We thank you for your participation.

Sincerely,

James E. Lidstone, Ed. D.
Coordinator of HPER Research

JEL: ga
Cover Letter to American Administrators

February 5, 1985

Dear

Enclosed please find a copy of the T-P Leadership Questionnaire that I promised to send. I have also enclosed a stamped addressed return envelope for your use.

I am very interested in gaining a greater understanding of the way in which administrators of physical education programs function in their jobs and particularly in differences which may exist between administrators from two diverse cultures. Once I have the data compiled and analyzed I would be pleased to share the findings with you. If you would like a summary of the results please write your name and address on the enclosed card and return it with the T-P Leadership Questionnaire.

In your busy work schedule, I hope that you can find a few moments, at your convenience, to complete and return the questionnaire. Thank you once again for your consideration.

Very sincerely yours,

Kwang Min Cho

Kwang Min Cho
Cover Letter to Korean Administrators

교수님께

그간도 안녕한셨습니까?
지난 면접에서 매크로두로 설문지를 동봉하였습니다. 잡시의 시간을 열애해 주시어
감사하는 마음으로 말씀드립니다.

설문지는 Sergiovanni, Metczus, Burden의 "T-P Leadership Questionnaire"를 토대로
작성하였으며, 적응적 중요차원을 기반에 맡겨놓고 각각의
수정을 하였습니다.

교수님의 편의를 위해 재수송전후의 동봉하였으니 설문지를 웨내실때,
이용하여 주시기 바랍니다. 만약에 이 편으로 논문요약을 보낸드리겠습니다. 아닐 경우
에 성함과 주소를 설문지와 같이 변경주시면 준비되어 있는 대로 보냅니다.

여러가지로 바쁘신가운데 협조해주셔서 진심으로 감사드립니다.

안녕히 계시시요.

1985. 1. 21
조광진

---

- 아 -

성명:
직위:
주소:

Very sincerely yours,
March 15, 1985

Dear

Several weeks ago I contacted you concerning my research study on the comparison of leadership styles between physical education administrators in the United States and Korea. In that letter I asked you to consider serving as a subject for the study.

However, at present time, I have not received a reply from you. Thus I am sending a reminder letter to you to consider again filling out the T-P Leadership Questionnaire. In case you have misplaced the original questionnaire I have enclosed another questionnaire and a stamped addressed return envelope for your use. Since you have been selected as part of a random sample which we wish to use to generalize to all administrators of physical education in the United States, it is critical to the integrity of the study that we get as close to a 100 percent response as possible.

Once I have the data compiled and analyzed I would be pleased to share the findings with you. If you would like a summary of the results, please write your name and address on the enclosed card and return it with the questionnaire.

I hope that you can find a few moments in your busy schedule to complete and return the questionnaire as quickly as possible. Thank you once again for your consideration.

Very sincerely yours,

Kwang Min Cho

Kwang Min Cho
APPENDIX J

Participating Korean Institutions

Korean Physical Education College
Dong A University
Cho Sun University
Busan Women's College
Choong Ang University
Han Sung University
Chung Joo Teacher's College
Jun Nam University
Choong Book University
Korea University
Young Nam University
In Ha University
Kwan Dong University
Sung Sin Women's College

Kyung Hee University
Yon Sei University
Han Yang University
Myung Ji University
Chung Joo University
Hyo Sung Women's College
Kang Won University
Jun Book University
Kyung Sang University
Dan Kuk University
Won Kwang University
Kyung Nam University
Che Joo University
Ewha Women's University
APPENDIX K

Participating United States Institutions
Listed by State

Auburn University
University of Alabama
in Birmingham
Arizona State University
Northern Arizona University
University of Arizona
Arkansas Tech. University
Azusa Pacific University
California State University
in Fullerton
California State University
in Hayward
California State University
in Long Beach
California State University
in Los Angeles
California State University
in Sacramento
San Diego State University
Adams State College
University of Colorado,
Boulder
Southern Connecticut State
University
Florida State University
University of Central Florida
University of Florida
University of Miami
University of South Florida
University of West Florida
George College
Georgia Southern College
University of Georgia
Valdosta State College
Chicago State University
George Williams College
Northern Illinois University
Southern Illinois University,
Edwardsville
University of Illinois,
Chicago Circle
Ball State University
Indiana University,
Bloomington
Iowa State University
University of Iowa
University of Northern Iowa
Kansas State University
Eastern Kentucky University
Murray State University
University of Kentucky
University of Louisville
Western Kentucky University
McNeese State University
Southeastern Louisiana
University
Frostburg State College
Bridgewater State College
Andrews University
Eastern Michigan University
University of Michigan, Ann Arbor
Wayne State University
Mankato State University
University of Minnesota
Kearney State College
University of Nebraska, Lincoln
University of Nebraska, Omaha
Montclair State College
Eastern New Mexico University
University of New Mexico
Alfred University
Columbia University, Teacher's College
CUNY, Brooklyn College
CUNY, Queens College
Hofstra University
North Carolina Central University
University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill
University of North Carolina, Greensboro
Wake Forest University
Ashland College
Bowling Green State University
Kent State University
University of Oklahoma
Slippery Rock University
University of Pittsburgh
Rhode Island College
Winthrop College
University of South Dakota
South Dakota State University
Middle Tennessee State University
University of Tennessee, Chattanooga
East Texas State University
Midwestern State University
Texas A & M University
Texas Tech. University
Texas Women's University
University of Texas, Austin
George Mason University
James Madison University
Old Dominion University
Washington State University
Marshall University
University Wyoming
APPENDIX L

The Data

Korean Administrators
(n 32)

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