

**Leadership Styles of Principals
In Native Schools
In Saskatchewan**

A Thesis

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to describe perceptions held for the leadership styles of principals in native schools in Saskatchewan. In describing the leadership styles of principals in native schools, the writer sought principals' own perceptions, the perceptions of their subordinates and the perceptions of their superordinates using the "Situational Leadership Model" developed by Hersey and Blanchard (1982).

The study was further designed to describe the leadership styles of principals as they varied according to the principals' demographic variables of training, experience, age and size of school. The population for the study consisted of all the principals, teachers and superintendents in the Saskatchewan native school system.

Two questionnaires were utilized: (1) The demographic data sheet which collected information on respondents' training, experience, age, size of school and jurisdictional control, and (2) the Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description Questionnaire. The latter consisted of the Lead-Self and the Lead-Other. The Lead-Self gathered information on the principals' own perceptions, while the Lead-Other collected subordinates' and superordinates' perceptions.

The findings indicated that responding principals perceived themselves as having a predominant style of Selling (S2), while subordinates and superordinates perceived principals' predominant styles to be Selling (S2) and Participating (S3) respectively. That is, principals and subordinates perceived principals as employing a

structured approach to leadership, while principals were perceived by superordinates as utilizing a more democratic approach to leadership. Principals saw themselves as having a limited "style-range" while subordinates and superordinates were consistent in ascribing a wide "style-range" to principals.

With respect to demographic variables, principals' leadership styles did not vary markedly in respect to these variables. However, principals with less professional training were perceived to have a more structured style than those principals with more professional training. Regardless of administrative experience, principals saw themselves as having a limited "style-range." Subordinates perceived younger principals to be more democratic in their decision-making process, while older principals were seen as more structured. In respect to size of school, superordinates perceived principals in smaller schools as having a more participative style, while principals in larger schools were perceived as having a more structured style.

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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM

Introduction

The subject of administrative leadership styles has been an important consideration in the study of the role of the principal. In recent years great emphasis has been placed on the leadership aspects of the principal's role. However, amid this growing body of knowledge, very little has been written on principals in native schools. In view of the strong thrust for local control of native education and the centrality of the principal in native schools and native communities, a study of the leadership style of principals in the native school system could be an important undertaking.

The principal is the key administrator at the local level in the native school system. His/her leadership styles and managerial skills are important aspects in improving the quality of education of native children. It is with this in mind that this study was designed to investigate the leadership styles of principals from their own perceptions, the perceptions of their subordinates and the perceptions of their superordinates.

The principal as a key local administrator, is the connecting link between the school and community in interpreting the needs of its students. The success or failure of the school program is dependent on the quality of leadership of the principal. This idea was substantiated by Lipham and Hoeh (1974) when they suggested that:

The leadership of the principal is a critical factor in the success of any program in the school. Knowledge about leadership, therefore, is a prime prerequisite if an individual is to fulfill effectively the principalship role. (p. 176)

Fiedler (1967) further expounded on the importance of the quality of leadership when he stated:

There is a widespread and probably justified belief that the success or failure of an organization is determined in a large part by the quality of its leadership. (p. 235)

Citizens everywhere are demanding and exercising a stronger voice in administration and operation of their individual schools (Evans, 1970, p. 133-140). Nowhere has this challenge been more keenly felt than in the native schools in Saskatchewan where pressures have created a need for stronger local control, leadership and management. In view of these developments, the findings of leadership studies and the lack of studies on leadership styles of principals in native schools, this study was designed to describe the leadership styles of principals of native schools.

Purpose of the Study

The study was designed to describe perceptions held for the leadership styles of principals in native schools in Saskatchewan.

Research Questions

The study investigated the following research questions:

- (1) What are the perceptions of principals as to their own leadership styles?
- (2) What are the perceptions of subordinates as to the leadership styles of their principals?

- (3) What are the perceptions of superordinates as to the leadership styles of principals under their jurisdiction?
- (4) How do subordinates' perceptions compare with principals' self-perceptions of principals' leadership styles?
- (5) How do the superordinates' perceptions compare with principals' self-perceptions of principals' leadership styles?
- (6) How do the subordinates' perceptions compare with the superordinates' perceptions of principals' leadership styles?
- (7) How do principals' self-perceptions of their own leadership styles vary according to their training, experience, age and size of their school?
- (8) How do the subordinates' perceptions of principals' leadership styles vary according to their principals' training, experience, age and size of their school?
- (9) How do the superordinates' perceptions of their principals' leadership styles vary according to their principals' training, experience, age and size of school?

In describing the leadership styles of principals in native schools, the writer sought the perceptions of their subordinates and superordinates using the "Situational Leadership Model" developed by Hersey and Blanchard (1982).

The study was also designed to describe leadership styles as they varied according to different categories of training, experience, age, and size of school.

Background to the Problem

The principalship continues to be one of the most durable and critical positions in the administration of American schools. Although there are variations in the size and location of schools and school systems, differences in the personalities and experiential backgrounds of principals, and variation in the socio-economic circumstances of children, youth and parents served, the building principal remains the administrator most closely associated with the daily operations of the school, with the implementation of curriculum, and with its association with the community. (Erickson and Reller, 1979, p. 22)

In view of what has been said by Erickson and Reller about the role of the principal in educational administration, it would seem that a better understanding of the principal's role as a leader is crucial to educational control at the local level.

As stated earlier, a significant trend in Canada and particularly in Saskatchewan is a movement towards local control of native education. This may also have an impact on the leadership styles of the principal since he/she is the chief administrator at the local level. Unfortunately, the management framework, and Indian education seems to lack the leadership it must have in order to achieve its goals. This concern was voiced in a 1982 paper on Indian education.

The basic problem with local control of Indian education is that the concept has been implemented without the federal/Indian relationship involved having been defined and without the necessary structures having been developed.

Consequently, there is an uncertain management framework, and Indian education lacks the leadership it must have if it is to achieve its objectives. Much of the program definition work remains incomplete particularly in respect of management processes, evaluation criteria, standards and the Indian-federal government roles and responsibilities.

The principals as school leaders must be able to utilize all resources at their command to keep the public informed as to school progress. They must also be able to integrate community needs with school needs. In essence they should utilize community groups, staff groups, and other interested parties in developing an improved educational program. Principals must be able to adapt their leadership styles to meet future demands.

Significance of the Study

The study is considered a worthy area of research for the following reasons:

- (1) A study of the leadership styles of principals in native schools is not only important in contributing to improved teacher and staff performance, but because of this it also might be useful in contributing to the overall efficiency of the native school system.
- (2) It may provide a basis for the assessment, by principals, of their own leadership capabilities, in other words, the instrument used may serve as a useful diagnostic tool.
- (3) It may point to foci for professional development of school principals.
- (4) It may provide a vehicle by which principals could receive feedback from other reference groups.
- (5) It may provide a basis for the accountability of principals, viz a viz both to staff and to district superintendents.

- (6) It may provide an opportunity for superintendents to understand the administrative behavior of principals on the job.
- (7) It has implications for continuing education, in that it may provide data that could be used in improving the pre-service and in-service training programs provided for school principals in colleges and universities.
- (8) It may provide data to assist superintendents in the selection of principals.

Limitations of the Study

The description of the leadership styles of principals and their demographic data were limited to the perceptions of principals and their superordinates and subordinates in native schools in Saskatchewan.

- (1) Individuals may respond to the questionnaires differently.
- (2) Individuals may not have the information necessary to answer given questions adequately.
- (3) Since the writer could not match principals to their own subordinates and superordinates, due to low response rates, the writer typified to the population. Tables therefore constituted generalized statements concerning leadership styles.
- (4) No measure of internal consistency of the instrument, appropriate to the method of present the data was available.
- (5) Certain areas of cell sizes in data analysis were small. This placed limitations on the generalizability of the data.

Delimitations

- (1) The population was delimited to 42 principals, seven superintendents, and 139 teachers in native schools in Saskatchewan.
- (2) Respondents in the study were delimited to (a) full time superintendents who were employed in the same school system for at least one year and (b) principals and teachers who were employed in the same school for at least one year.
- (3) The study was delimited to a description only of the leadership styles of principals in native schools, therefore generalization to other populations was limited.
- (4) The data collection took place during September 1984.

Assumptions

- (1) For the purpose of this research, it was assumed that the seven districts which comprised the study are homogeneous in nature.
- (2) It was assumed that one year of experience in the same school was adequate background for respondents in describing leadership styles.

Definition of Terms

District Superintendent: The chief educational administrator in charge of two or more schools in a district.

Leadership: There are as many definitions as there are views on the subject of leadership. Some writers describe leadership as activities designed to influence individuals or groups to achieve goals or objectives. Others describe it as an interpersonal process designed to influence the achievement of goals and activities. Most, however, agree that it is a process of influencing individuals or groups to achieve goals. For the purpose of this study, leadership is referred to as the activities of the principal, which are designed to influencing staff, such as teachers or vice-principals, in the achievement of goals of native schools. More precisely, leadership can be defined as the behaviors of the principals in their attempt to influence vice-principals and/or teachers in the achievement of goals and objectives.

Leader Behavior: The behavior of the designated leader (the principal) of a specified group (teachers and vice-principals).

Management: The process of getting things done with and through other people.

Maturity: The capacity to set high but attainable goals (achievement-motivation), willingness and ability to take responsibility, and education and/or experience of an individual or group (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982, p. 151).

Native Schools: Those schools which are run by and controlled by The Department of Indian Affairs or the Indian bands in Saskatchewan.

Principal: The head teacher of a school; where more than one teacher is employed.

Style: The consistent behavior patterns that they use when they are working with and through other people as perceived by those people (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982, p. 126).

Predominant Style: The behavior pattern used most often when attempting to influence the activities of others. In other words, most leaders tend to have a favourite leadership style (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982, p. 233).

Secondary Style: The leadership style that person tends to use on occasions (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982, p. 233).

Style Adaptability: The degree to which leaders are able to vary their style appropriately to the demands of a given situation according to situational leadership (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982, p. 234).

Style Range: The extent to which leaders are able to vary their style (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982, p. 234).

Task Behavior: The extent to which a leader engages in one-way communication by explaining what each follower is to do as well as when, where, and how tasks are to be accomplished (Hersey and Blanchard, 1976, p. 1).

Relationship Behavior: The extent to which a leader engages in two-way communication by providing socio-emotional support, "psychological strokes," and facilitating behaviors (Hersey and Blanchard, 1976, p. 1).

Teacher: A person holding a legal teaching certificate or qualifications under contract with the Department of Indian and Northern Affairs.

Summary

Nothing has been done to enhance understanding of the leadership role of the principal in native schools, despite the trend to take over control of native education, and the fact that the principal is a key administrator in this context.

This study was designed to describe the leadership styles of principals from their own perceptions and from the perceptions of their subordinates and superordinates. The leadership styles of principals as they varied according to demographic variables of training, experience, age, size of school and jurisdictional control, were also studied.

The limitations, delimitations and definition of terms were presented. It should be pointed out that the study was descriptive in nature. Consequently generalization beyond the population being studied was limited. Neither did the data pertaining to demographic variables make any claim to causality.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The leadership of the principal is an important factor in the management of any school program. Leadership is one of the most frequently discussed aspects of principalship. However, much of what is known about leadership is the result of studies done in non-educational settings, and more recently in educational settings.

In this chapter the review of the literature was limited to an overview of leadership and its relation to the principal as a leader. The examination of the literature involved the following areas: (1) definitions of leadership, (2) a chronological overview of leadership study, and (3) the principal as a leader.

Definitions of Leadership

The term "leader" has been included in the English language since about 1300 A.D., while the term leadership was introduced about 1800 A.D. (Stogdill, 1974, p. 7). Historically speaking, the leadership position in past years was occupied by the person exhibiting most prowess, strength or power. Today, the leadership position seems to be dependent on the group that person leads and exerts some authority over. The leader maintains his position as long as group needs and/or goals are met. Yura (1976) indicated that regardless of their purpose, needs or goals, all groups have a basic commonality: they rely on leadership (p. 1).

A review of the literature revealed that earlier studies were

directed at defining the ingredients of leadership. Despite those efforts, it appears that much remains unknown. At this point in time, it has been recognized that there is no clear cut agreement on the definitions of leadership styles or behavior. This lack of consensus has led to much confusion on the topic. Amid all this, most authorities agree leadership styles can be learned and there is no one best style of leadership.

Stogdill and Coons concentrated on two aspects of leader behavior:

- (1) What does an individual do while he operates as a leader, and
- (2) How does he go about what he does? As a working definition they stated, "Leadership, as tentatively defined, is the behavior of an individual when he is directing the activities of a group toward a shared goal" (Stogdill and Coons, 1957, pp. 6-7).

In 1977, Hersey and Blanchard defined leadership as "the process of influencing the activities of an individual or group in efforts toward goal achievement in a given situation" (Hersey and Blanchard, 1977, p. 84).

From these definitions it follows that the leadership process is a function of the leader, followers and other situational variables. Barnard (1969) agreed that leadership is an involvement of the three variables listed above. In his discussion on "The Nature of Leadership," he stated that, "Whatever leadership is, I shall now make the much over simplified statement that it depends on three things: (1) the individual, (2) the followers, and (3) the conditions" (p. 84).

Behavioral leadership theory focuses on what the leader does. It is different from personal trait theory because behavior can be observed. The observable behavior is not dependent upon either individual characteristics or the situation (Moloney, 1979, p. 23). Barnard (1969) defined leadership as "the quality of the behavior of individuals whereby they guide people or their activities in organized effort" (p. 83).

Researchers and writers have amassed a large body of literature in defining leadership. The results of the leadership definitional process has been plagued with uncertainties. This phenomenon Halpin (1958) cited in his attempt to define leadership. In his review of the literature, he stated:

Leadership has been defined in numerous ways. The definition proposed here derives its value primarily from the relation to the body of theory being developed. In some respects it is more comprehensive than other more usual definitions; in others it is more restricted. To lead is to engage in an act that initiates a structure-in-interaction or part of the process of solving problems. (p. 58)

Stogdill (1974) devoted a chapter in his book to the definition of leadership. He, like Halpin, recognized the complexities of defining leadership. He was explicit in stating that:

There are almost as many different definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept. Nevertheless, there is sufficient similarity between definitions to permit a rough scheme of classification. (p. 7)

As a result of the research and theory about leadership behavior that was developed after 1945, Gerth and Mills (1953) stated:

To understand leadership attention must be paid to:

- (1) the traits and motives of the leader as a man,
- (2) images that selected publics hold of him and their motives for following him,
- (3) the features of the role that he plays as a leader, and
- (4) the institutional context in which he and his followers may be involved. (p. 405)

There are as many definitions of leadership as there are theorists. Theorists no longer explain leadership in terms of the individual or the group. They believe that the characteristics of the individual and the demands of the situation interact in such a manner as to permit one, or perhaps a few, persons to rise to leadership status.

Leadership Study: A Chronological Overview

Early leadership themes were based on three approaches, authoritative leadership, democratic leadership and laissez-faire type of leadership. The authoritarian leader was seen as very directive, while the democratic leader encouraged group discussions and decision making. On the other hand, the laissez faire type of leadership was designed to give complete freedom to the group. The research for these approaches was conducted by Lippert and White (1939), based on early work of Kurt Lewin. The studies in question were done on teenage adolescent boys. The results were primarily designed to examine patterns of aggressive behavior. Even though these studies were not well accepted for their research methodology, they nevertheless formed the basis for later approaches to the subject matter.

The Trait Theory

Prior to the 1930's it was believed that leadership was an inherited characteristic. Many believed that the individual was endowed with or possessed certain qualities which made him or her a good leader. Studies of leadership at this time were based on the "Great man theory."

According to Hersey and Blanchard (1982), for many years the most common approach to leadership was the trait theory. This approach, they say, was based on the fact that certain characteristics such as physical energy, or friendliness were essential for effective leadership. As a matter of fact, most of the research on leadership at this time was to find the effective or good leader. Furthermore, Hersey and Blanchard stated that the inherent personal qualities like intelligence, were felt to be transferable from one situation to another. It was implied that leaders inherited certain traits. It suggested that people endowed with certain characteristics were born to lead. That is, leadership was an inherent characteristic (p. 83).

Researchers have tried to identify the traits and characteristics of leaders. If that could be done they believed tests and interview schedules could be developed for use in scientific selection of future leaders. According to Glueck (1980) traits and characteristics such as the following were identified or correlated with leadership:

- Physical Size (relatively tall),
 - Intelligence (more rather than less, but not too much more than the work group),
 - Self Esteem/Self Confidence (extroversion),
 - Ambition (a high need for achievement and power).
- (p. 462)

Because of such beliefs, research studies in the leadership field

were directed toward the identification of the universal characteristics of leadership so that potential leaders might more readily be identified.

The results of the great volume of research on the trait theory was rather disappointing. Only intelligence seemed to hold up with any degree of consistency. As Jennings (1961) concluded, "Fifty years of study have failed to produce one personality trait or set of qualities that can be used to discriminate leaders from non-leaders" (p. 83).

Evidence seems to indicate that there are probably no personality traits or characteristic that consistently distinguish the leader from the follower. There is, however, some evidence to suggest that the leader probably cannot be markedly different from his subordinates; if he is to be followed. As a result, the trait theory gave way to the "situational approach" the proponents of which stressed that different situations often require different types of leadership.

Group Theories of Leadership

Group theory of leadership has been rooted in social psychology. This approach maintained that the most effective leaders were those most able to meet the needs of the followers. This view was supported by Hollander and Julian (1960). Their view is as follows:

. . . the person in the role of the leader who fulfills expectations and achieves group goals provides rewards for others which are reciprocated in the form of status, esteem, and heightened influence. Because leadership embodies a two-way influence in return The very sustenance of the relationship depends upon some yielding to influence on both sides. (p. 349)

This quote places emphasis on the concept that leadership is an exchange process between the leader and followers and also involves the sociological concept of role expectations. This approach is similar to

Homans' exchange theory, which forms the basis for group theory. Homans' theory was based on activities, interactions, and sentiments. These three elements are directly related to one another. The theory stated that the more activities persons share, the more numerous will be their interactions and the stronger will be their sentiments; the more interaction between persons, the more will be their shared activities and sentiments; and the more sentiments persons have for one another, the more will be their shared activities and interactions (Homans, 1950, pp. 43-44). The Homans theory lends a great deal to the understanding of group formation and process.

In 1958, Hemphill proposed a theory of leadership that focused upon group process, specifically that of problem solving. His definition of leadership implied that leadership acts pertain only to structure-in-interaction that leads to mutual problem solving (Hemphill, 1958, p. 92). Hemphill's concept of structure-in-interaction was concerned with predictability and consistency in behavior allowing one to assume that the behavior would occur in future interaction(s). He also made distinctions between: (1) attempted leadership acts, (2) successful acts, and (3) effective leadership acts. In keeping with his definition of leadership, these distinctive acts centered around the degree of structure-in-interaction and mutual problem solving.

Hemphill did have concern for both goal attainment and group maintenance. He determined that an individual would attempt a leadership act dependent upon: (1) whether or not the individual believes the act will lead to mutual problem solution, (2) how the individual thinks the act will affect group need, (3) how dissatisfied the individual feels about the mutual problem, and (4) the strength of that individual's social need (Hemphill, 1958, p. 113).

At first reading, Hemphill's theory appears adequate and workable,

but at second glance the theory seems lacking. He made no mention of situational changes. Hemphill did freely offer that his theory was limited.

Stogdill (1959) proposed a group behavior theory of leadership. This theory has been termed an expectancy-reinforcement theory of role attainment (Stogdill, 1974, p. 20). This theory was concerned only with the group in the way of performance, interaction and expectations of group members. He also pointed out that there was a difference between behavior and expectations by stating: "that role behavior may not measure up to role expectations is recognized by distinctions made in the literature between the expectations and the behavioral aspects of the concept" (Stogdill, 1959, p. 2).

Stogdill stated that his theory was "concerned with individuals who make up the group membership, their relationships to each other, and their joint action as an entity" (Stogdill, 1959, p. 12). Stogdill's theory differed from others in that organizational goals were not perceived to be of great concern. Rather, they occurred as a result of a group member understanding his position, his function, and the contribution he was expected to make toward group achievement. In this writer's opinion, Stogdill's theory does not place enough emphasis on the organization and its goals. He did, however, conclude his research by stating "leadership is the process of influencing the activities of an organized group in its efforts toward goal setting and goal achievement" (Stogdill, 1959, p. 201).

Situational Approach to Leadership

The "follower" or "group" approach proved inadequate because it implied that the emergence and maintenance of leadership was dependent on followers, not on the leader's own skills. Researchers, having found the trait approach and group approach to leadership inadequate, turned

their attention to the situational aspect.

Carlisle (1983) in his discussion on "Leadership Styles and Behavior," suggested that,

The situational theory of leadership evolved primarily as a reaction to the failure of the traitist approach. Early management writers and researchers attempted to uncover a set of traits that typified successful leaders. The assumption was that, once traits that constituted the one best style were established, management selection could be reduced to finding people with the proper physical, intellectual, and personality traits. Also, leadership training would then consist of an attempt to develop these traits in potential leaders." (p. 124)

The situational approach assumed that certain situations call for certain types of leadership and leaders will be those who best fit the requirements of the situation. Fiedler (1967) proposed a situational based model of leadership effectiveness. According to Hersey and Blanchard (1982):

The concept of adaptive leader behavior questions the existence of a 'best' style of leadership. It is not a matter of best style but the most effective style for a particular situation. The suggestion is that a number of leader behavior styles may be effective depending on the important elements of the situation.

According to a Leadership Contingency Model developed by Fred E. Fiedler, three major situational variables seem to determine whether a given situation is favorable to leaders: (1) their personal relations with the members of their group (leader-member relations), (2) the degree of structure in the task that their group has been assigned to perform (task structure), and (3) the power and authority that their position provides (position power). (p. 94)

Fiedler's model was interesting, and moved the theory of leadership forward. It seemed to be suggesting that there are only two basic leader behavior styles, task oriented and relationship oriented. It is

also inadequate in that it also ignores the leader's personal ability to control himself and the situation. Hersey and Blanchard (1982) supported the notion that Fiedler's model was somewhat inadequate when they stated that:

Although Fiedler's model is useful to a leader, he seems to be reverting to a single continuum of leader behavior, suggesting that there are only two basic leader behavior styles, task-oriented and relationship oriented. Most evidence indicates that leader behavior must be plotted on two separate axes rather than on a single continuum. Thus, a leader who is high on task behavior is not necessarily high or low on relationship behavior. Any combinations of the two dimensions may occur. (p. 95)

In recent literature, situational theory has been the guiding philosophy behind administrative research. Most writers are willing to admit that situational factors are not only influential, but may even be viewed as controlling factors. The one thing that researchers and writers have agreed upon is that situational concepts must be seriously considered in all forms of administrative investigation and especially in analyzing leadership effectiveness. As a result, three basic concepts have evolved in situational theory:

- (1) Individual traits are matched with the needs of the situation.
- (2) Situations are controlled or engineered to meet the needs of the leader.
- (3) The leader adapts his or her leadership style to meet the needs of a particular situation.

From the late fifties to the present time, situational concepts have received more attention than personality traits. Two situational

theories that emerged during this period were concerned with situational engineering to meet the characteristics of a particular leadership situation.

It is important to note that in the situational approach to leadership, observed behavior is emphasized. Hersey and Blanchard (1982) supported this point when they stated that:

. . . the focus in the situational approach to leadership is on observed behavior, not on hypothetical inborn or acquired ability or potential for leadership. The emphasis is on behavior of leaders and their group members, followers and various situations. (p. 84)

The Behavioral Approach

Having abandoned the trait theory because of its contradictory nature, most researchers began to concentrate on leader behavior. Many tried to relate the effectiveness of leader behavior to goal outcome. Stogdill and Shartle (1948) were early pioneers and proponents of this approach. They found two clusters of behaviors, (1) consideration and (2) initiating structure. Those leaders, whose behavior exhibited consideration convey warmth, respect, friendship and mutual trust for their employees. On the other hand, leaders who initiated structure in dealing with employees, showed their leadership capabilities by good job definitions, clear relationships between leader and employees, clear channels of communication, and clear specific job instructions (pp. 286-291). These two dimensions can be diagrammatized as shown in Figure 2:

Consideration	High	High consideration Low initiation of structure 3	High consideration High initiation of structure 4
		Low initiation of structure Low consideration 1	High initiation of structure Low consideration 2
	Low	Low	High Initiation of Structure

**FIGURE 2 LEADER BEHAVIOR THEORY:
Consideration and Initiation of Structure Matrix
(From "Management," Glueck, 1980, p. 466).**

The approach of Stogdill and Shartle was further developed by the Bureau of Business Research at Ohio State University. The studies were called the Ohio State Leadership Studies. To gather data about the behavior of leaders, the Ohio State University staff developed the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ), an instrument designed to describe how leaders carried out their activities. The LBDQ contains fifteen items pertaining to consideration and an equal number of initiating structure items.

Respondents judged the frequency with which their leader engaged in each form of behavior by checking one of five descriptions - always, often, occasionally, seldom or never, as it related to each particular item of the LBDQ. Thus, consideration and initiating structure were seen as dimensions of observed behavior as perceived by others (Hersey

and Blanchard, 1982, p. 88). Hemphill and Coons (1950) constructed the original form for this questionnaire and Halpin and Winer (1952), in reporting the development of an Air Force adaptation of the instrument, identified initiating structure and consideration as two fundamental dimensions of leader behavior. In the Ohio State study, Halpin (1956) substantiated Stogdill's findings that the most effective leaders function well in both categories.

It is important to note that the Ohio State studies emphasized both consideration and structure or task direction and relationship behavior. Although Halpin's original research was done on aircraft commanders, Shartle (1957) maintained that the same two leader behavior dimensions existed in educational and industrial institutions.

In the behavioral approach there is an important distinction between leadership and leader behavior. This point was emphasized by Halpin (1959). According to him, leader behavior focused upon observed behavior, rather than on informed behavior (p. 12).

Reddin, Hersey and Blanchard, Blake and Associates, have all tried to synthesize the Michigan and Ohio state studies. They have all attempted to package the findings in such a manner so they could appeal to the busy executive. According to Cribbin (1982), "At times the nomenclature is eye-catching; at other times it is bathetic" (p. 42).

The Managerial Grid depicted by Blake and Mouton in 1964 is one of the most widely-known descriptions of leadership. This approach has been used extensively in organizational development programs. This

attitudinal approach was based upon a concern for production (tasks) and concern for people (relationship) (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982, p. 89). Blake and Mouton's horizontal and vertically illustrated grid is utilized to plot leader style. Possible scores are one to nine. Low scores indicate a low concern while higher scores indicate higher concerns.

The Grid postulated five different styles, and located them in four quadrants. These five leadership styles were described as follows: Impoverished, Country Club, Task, Middle-of-the-Road, and Team. (See Figure 2-1).

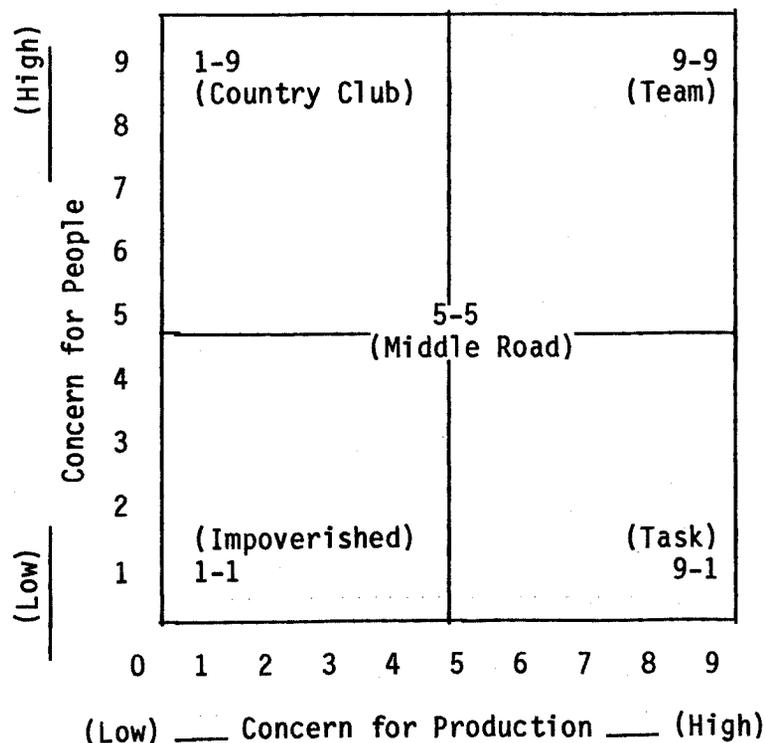


FIGURE 2-1 THE MANAGERIAL GRID LEADERSHIP STYLES
 (From "Management of Organizational Behavior: Utilizing Human Resources," (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982, p. 90)

The Managerial Grid "implies that the most desirable leader behavior is 'team management' (maximum concern for production and people)" Hersey and Blanchard (1977, p. 99). According to Hersey and Blanchard (1982), the major drawback is that the Grid seems to be more attitudinal than behavioral. Blake and Mouton's Grid identified the style of a manager but did not directly relate it to effectiveness (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982, p. 90).

The Tri-dimensional Leader Effectiveness Model

Reddin (1976) added a third dimension of effectiveness to the Grid and the Ohio State studies. Reddin's approach called the 3-D Management style, was the first to add an **effectiveness** dimension to the task concern and relationship concern dimensions of the early leadership studies.

Reddin described the four basic styles as follows: separated, related, dedicated, and integrated. Considering the aforementioned, he further described four more-effective and four less-effective leader combinations of the basic styles. In clarifying how the theory works, he pointed out that, "The manager may move along the third dimension of effectiveness by matching his basic style to the needs of the situation" (Reddin, 1970, p. 43). He also concluded that any amount of either task-oriented or relationship-oriented behavior will not guarantee effectiveness, rather, "effectiveness results from a style's appropriateness to the situation in which it is used" (Reddin, 1970, p. 40). Reddin presented an argument for his theory, but the complexity of four basic styles and eight possible substyles with definitions and variables became rather formidable and reduced its utility.

Hersey and Blanchard's model of leader effectiveness was an offshoot of the Reddin 3-D Management Model. According to Hersey and Blanchard (1982), "by adding an effectiveness dimension of the task behavior and relationship dimensions to the earlier Ohio State Leadership model, we attempted in the Tri-dimensional Leader Effectiveness model to integrate the concepts of leader style with situational demands of a specific environment" (p. 97).

Figure 2-2 shows the tri-dimensional model.

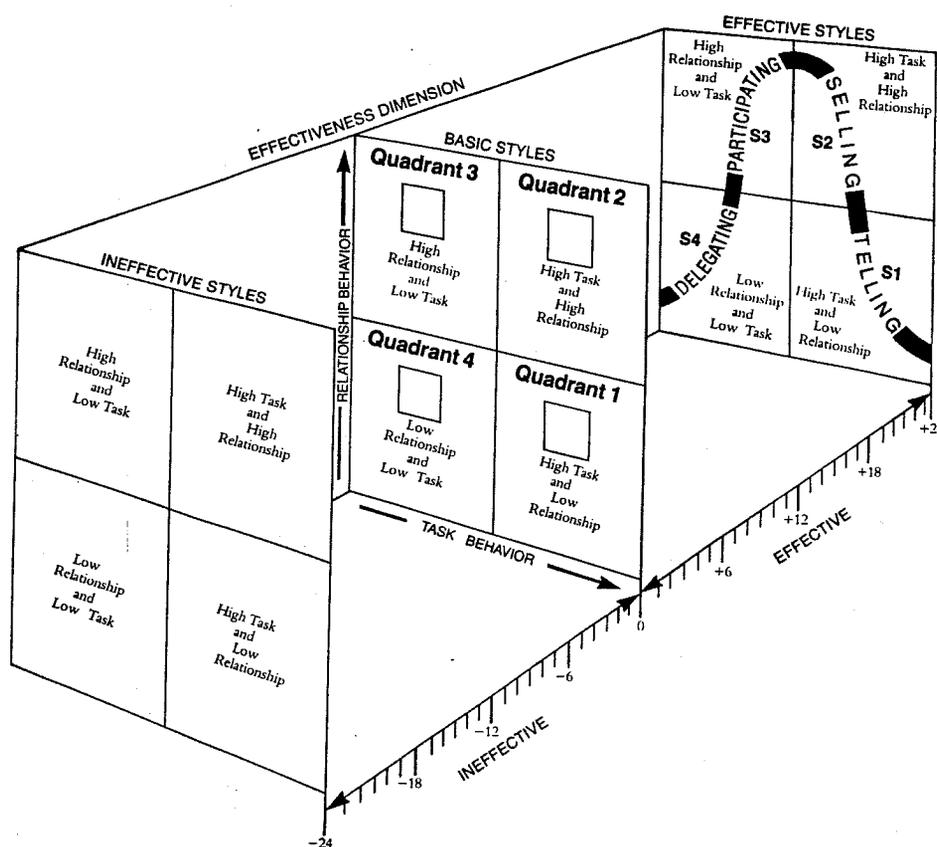


FIGURE 2-2 TRI-DIMENSIONAL LEADER EFFECTIVENESS MODEL
(From "Management of Organizational Behavior Utilizing Human Resources," Hersey & Blanchard, 1977, p. 48.)

Situational Leadership Model

The Tri-dimensional Leader Effectiveness Model was developed by Hersey and Blanchard and presented in 1972. This model was a situational leadership theory that utilized concepts similar to Ohio State Studies (Hersey and Blanchard, 1977, p. 103). As might be surmised, the theory was based upon both task and relationship behavior within a given situation. A factor that Hersey and Blanchard did add to situational theory is that of the level of maturity of the follower(s).

Basically, Hersey and Blanchard devised an operational model with four quadrants depicting basic leadership styles. They have concluded (and are supported by past research) that there is no one best leadership style; instead, various combinations appeared (Hersey and Blanchard, 1976, p. 1). They further stated that when leadership style is situationally appropriate it is effective; and, conversely, when leadership style is inappropriate to the situation it is ineffective (Hersey and Blanchard, 1977, p. 105). Therefore, one may determine that "if the effectiveness of a leader behavior style depends upon the situation, any of the basic styles may be effective or ineffective depending upon the situation" (Hersey and Blanchard, 1977, p. 105).

The major tenets of the theory are illustrated in Figure 2-3.

Hersey and Blanchard (1977) postulated that:

. . . as the level of maturity of their followers continues to increase in terms of accomplishing a specific task, leaders should begin to reduce their task behavior and increase relationship behavior until the individual or group reaches a moderate level of maturity. As the individual or group begins to move into an above average level of maturity it becomes appropriate for leaders to decrease not only task behavior but also relationship behavior. (p. 163)

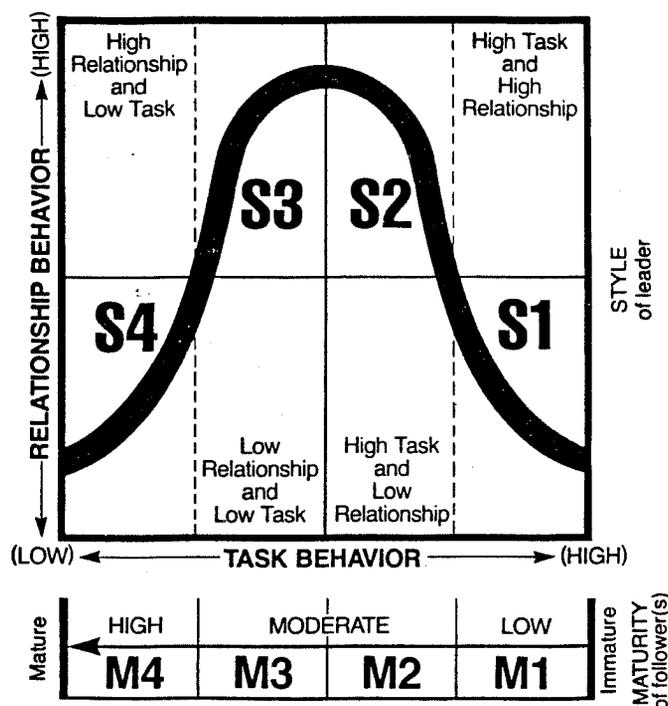


FIGURE 2-3 SITUATIONAL LEADERSHIP THEORY
 (From "Management of Organizational Behavior Utilizing Human Resources," Hersey & Blanchard, 1977, p. 167.)

The term task behavior and relationship behavior correspond to the two traditional dimensions of leader behavior which have repeatedly arisen in the discussion of other theories; namely, initiating structure and consideration. It is important to note that the theory focuses on the appropriateness or effectiveness of leadership styles according to task relevant maturity of follower(s).

The level of maturity factor as proposed was defined as "the capacity to set high but attainable goals, willingness and ability to take responsibility, and education and/or experience of an individual or group" (Hersey and Blanchard, 1976, pp. 1-2). Specifically, "these variables of maturity should be considered only in relation to a specific task to be performed" (Hersey and Blanchard, 1976, p. 2).

Leadership Styles

The "Tri-dimensional Leader Effectiveness model of Hersey and Blanchard (1982, p. 95), comprised of a Relationship Behavior axis, a Task Behavior Axis, and the Effectiveness Dimension Axis. Along these axes are four quadrants of leadership behavior: S1 **Telling** - high task and low relationship; S2 **Selling** - high task and high relationship; S3 **Participating** - low task and high relationship; and S4 **Delegating** - low task and low relationship. The selection of an appropriate leadership style is determined by the maturity of the followers, which ranges from immature to mature. Figure 2-4 shows the basic design of situational leadership.

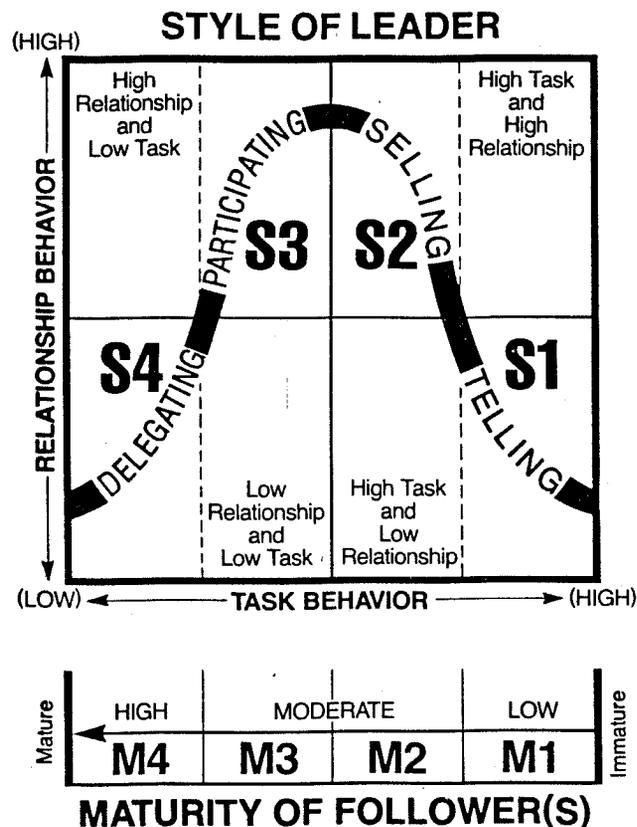


FIGURE 2-4 SITUATIONAL LEADERSHIP
 (From "Management of Organizational Behavior Utilizing Human Resources," Hersey & Blanchard, 1982, p. 52.)

The above is a summary of situational leadership as described by Hersey and Blanchard. Situational leadership can become a language - a way of communication. According to Hersey and Blanchard (1982, p. 167), "One of the major contributions of Situational Leadership is that it provides a way of understanding much of the research findings that prior to a situational approach seemed to be incompatible with each other."

Sergiovanni and Starratt (1983, p. 93) endorsed the Hersey and Blanchard model as a good supervisory leadership construct. According to them, "Hersey and Blanchard's model of contingency leadership is a useful and well known construct for understanding and guiding supervisory leadership The Hersey and Blanchard theory has great appeal because it is easy to learn and makes intuitive sense."

In summary, then, it appears that several factors have an impact on the success of the style of the leader, (1) the style of the leader himself, (2) the behavior of his peers, his boss, and his associates, and (3) the situation or environment in which the leader finds himself. The research seems to conclude that leadership process is a function of the leader, the follower, and other situational variables. Furthermore, there is no single leadership style, but a combination of styles which are dependent on other situational factors.

Principal as Leader

The study of the leadership of principals follows closely the path taken by general leadership theory. Much of the studies have been done on school administrators. The approach generally includes the elementary school principal, the secondary school principal and the superintendent of schools.

In most of the literature, the role of the principalship is often the topic of discussion. It is generally concerned with what a principal does, and what he should do. In other words, the literature centers around the functions of the principalship. Lipham and Hoeh (1974, p. 118) stated that, "Many books on the principalship not only describe what the principal should and should not do, but also prescribe how or when he should or should not do it." Furthermore, they stated that, "Typically, such references examine the presumed unique features of the elementary or the secondary school principalship rather than synthesizing the elements of the role that are common to all levels or types of schools."

As stated earlier, the study of the leadership of principals followed closely the general approach to leadership. These paths were character traits, group factors, role expectation and the organizational models. Gibb (1954) and Stogdill (1948) listed physical and constitutional factors (height, weight, physique; energy, health, and appearance; intelligence; self-confidence; sociability; will [initiative], persistence, ambition) and urgency (geniality, expressiveness, originality) as needed leadership characteristics.

The above findings by Gibb and Stogdill is further emphasized by Lipham and Hoeh (1974, p. 177). When they stated:

A second theme in the psychological approach to the study of leadership focus less on the lives of great men than on the isolation and measurement of leadership traits - even among lesser men. Regarding the necessary traits for effective leadership in educational organization, some investigation and much speculation was reported in the literature Over a period of time, these lengthy lists became not unlike descriptions of the model Boy Scout. Furthermore, in the absence of suitable psychological taxonomies, such lists frequently included contradictory traits - steady; yet flexible, forceful; yet cooperative.

In the discussion on general leadership, the trait theory was contradictory and was eventually proven unsatisfactory. Gibb (1954) has reported that numerous studies of leaders have failed to find any consistent patterns of traits which are characteristic of leaders.

Gross and Herriott (1965, pp. 2-5), in their review of the historical role of the principal, traced the role of the elementary school principal from about 1850 to the 1900's. According to their reviews, "The duties of these 'head teachers', 'principal teachers', or headmasters' in 1850 were largely limited . . . to discipline, routine administrative acts, and grading of pupils in the various rooms." However, as the years progressed the principal was expected to take on more of a leadership role. Leadership was stressed as an important function of the principal. The future role of the elementary school principal as seen by Gross and Herriott, was not merely a live officer of the entire program and all individuals in the school, but primarily that of co-ordinator, consultant and staff education leader who was to help identify problems to co-ordinate various phases of the program in his/her school, to consult with individual teachers and groups of teachers regarding their problems."

Leadership is seen as a relationship exchange between the leaders and followers. This involves both the group concept and the role concept. The Ohio group supported the notion that leadership is an interactive process. The investigation of leadership effectiveness focused more on relations between group members and less on the personal characteristics of the leader alone. Stogdill (1948) in his work in this area built on the two dimensions of consideration and structure rating for group effectiveness. The studies seemed to indicate that it was more important for the leader to interact with and satisfy the needs of the group than depend on his/her personal characteristics. This is

consistent with the fact that leadership is a relationship between followers and leaders.

In the area of principalship, leadership is therefore a relationship or exchange between the behaviors of the principals and the behaviors of their subordinates. Raubinger, Sumption and Kamm (1974, p. 59) in discussing the principal as a leader seemed to support the interactive process. According to them:

A third belief implicit in the role of the principalship, as interpreted by this book, is the importance of the leadership of the principal. It should be made clear that although the emphasis here is on the principal, what is written also implies all who work in the school, because effective leadership is in some degree shared leadership. No principal can move toward better goals for a school unless all staff members identify problems, come to share goals and purposes, and are willing to gain the insights, understandings, and skills necessary to move toward them.

The remarks of the above authors and many more have all stressed the importance of group functions. Barnard's (1938) studies have made distinction between "efficiency" and "effectiveness." Sharp (1962, pp. 42, 61-63) clarified these as (1) efficiency in goal achievement and (2) effectiveness in satisfying the social and emotional needs of the group. Group members are no longer simply a means of achieving a leader's goals, but must be personally satisfied if the leader is ever to reach his/her goals. In essence, employee satisfaction or needs satisfaction is important to goal accomplishment. If principals are to be effective in reaching their goals, they must satisfy the personal or interpersonal needs of their subordinates. To be effective with his group, both initiation of structure and consideration or task and relationship behavior are important ingredients of the principal's style in dealing with his/her group.

The views of the writers on the roles and leadership styles of principals' behavior have been as diverse as their writings on leadership. Hemphill (1958) viewed administration as a problem-solving function, on the other hand, Griffiths (1959) viewed decision making as a central function of the administrator.

The principals' role as a leader has been accepted and documented throughout the literature. Spain, Drummond and Goodlad (1956, pp. 69-70) have supported this view. For them:

The elementary school principal holds a key position in the improvement of the professional staff. He is the acknowledged and appointed status leader. Whether he wants to or not, he will discover that among his most important functions are those related to 'teaching teachers'. Whether the school becomes a challenging educational enterprise or a dull and dreary place for children depends not so much upon what is there at the outset of his effort as upon the quality of leadership he provides for the staff.

Raubinger, Sumption and Kamm (1974) suggested that the leadership role of the principal must be extended beyond "the housekeeping chores of running the school."

To be effective over a period of time, Leadership must be based on knowledge. Those who lead must have a clear vision of where they want to go, and, more importantly, why they want to go there. They must know that to persuade others to go with them, they must have facts and knowledge at their command. The knowledge of the leader-principal must go far beyond the housekeeping chores of "running the school." It must extend to understanding the community served by the school, and the students in it. He must be aware of the larger society within which the school exists, not only as it is but also as it may become as a result of the movements and ideas that influence it. (p. 60)

To sum up the leader behavior of the principal, role concept has played a dominant factor in the literature. The concern has been not only what do principals do, but what should they be doing. The two major variables of structure and consideration have been important aspects of discussion in relation to style. Principals should be able to utilize structure and consideration in achieving goals through their subordinates. That is to say, to be effective a principal must be able to satisfy the personal needs of his/her subordinates.

Summary

In this chapter leadership was discussed from psychological, sociological and behavioral standpoints. The analysis seemed to indicate that there was no strong evidence to support the personality traits or characteristics which distinguish a leader from his or her followers. However, there was some evidence which suggested that the "situational" approach which stressed that different situations often require different types of leadership, was well supported by many theorists.

Leadership was defined in the literature as an interactive process involving the leader, the follower and other situational factors. The main thrust of leadership was the achievement of organizational goals and effectiveness.

Research regarding leadership behavior was classified in terms of initiating structure and consideration' the former was concerned with task accomplishment or getting things done, while the latter was concerned with human or employee satisfaction. It was clear from the

research that a leader had to possess leadership skills involving these two dimensions of leader behavior, in order to be an effective leader.

In respect to the principal as a leader, the role concept played a dominant factor in the literature. The major concern was not what do principals do, but what should they be doing? Principals, to be effective as leaders, must be able to satisfy the personal needs of their subordinates in order to achieve organizational or group goals.

The major theme which seemed to have emerged from the study of leadership was that there was no one best style of leadership, but that the leader behavior was a function of the leader, the follower and other situational variables. Also in order to be successful or effective the leader had to adapt his/her style to meet the demands of the situation. In other words to be a success a leader had to have good diagnostic skills.

Situational leadership theory has been emphasized because it is the major theory of this study. The theory is based on the amount of direction (task behavior) and the amount of socio-emotional support (relationship behavior) a leader must provide given the situation and level of "maturity" of his or her follower or group.

Maturity is defined in situational leadership theory as the capacity to set high but attainable goals. According to Situational Leadership theory, as the level of maturity of the follower continues to increase in terms of accomplishing a specific task, the leader should reduce task behavior and increase relationship behavior. The theory focuses on the appropriateness or effectiveness of the leadership styles of the task relevant maturity of follower(s).

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

The purpose of the study was to describe perceptions held for the leadership styles of principals in native schools in Saskatchewan. This was an exploratory descriptive study of principals' leadership based on their own perceptions, the perceptions of their superiors and the perceptions of their subordinates. In addition the study described the leadership styles of these principals in relation to five demographic variables.

In this chapter, instruments used will be discussed, and the population, the procedures and analysis of the data will be described. The instruments utilized in the study are to be found in Appendix A.

It should be reemphasized that the study was purely descriptive in nature, consequently generalization beyond the population being studied was limited. Neither did the data pertaining to leadership styles and demographic variables make any claim to causality.

Instrumentation

The selection of the instrument used in this study was based on the following criteria:

- (1) the ability of the instrument to measure leadership behavior;
- (2) its validity and reliability; and,
- (3) its appropriateness to the population being studied.

The instrument consisted of:

- (a) A Demographic Data Questionnaire;
- (b) The Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description Questionnaire (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982).

These are contained in Appendix A and E.

Demographic Data Questionnaire

The demographic data questionnaire was completed by principals and teachers to determine job training, experience, age, jurisdictional control, and size of school. The demographic data questionnaire was completed by superintendents to determine job training, age, and jurisdictional control.

Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description Questionnaire (LEAD)

The LEAD questionnaires were completed by the principals, superintendents, and teachers in describing the leadership behavior of principals in this study. This instrument was based on Situational Leadership theory developed by Hersey and Blanchard.

According to Hersey and Blanchard (1982), "The Lead-Self was designed to measure self-perception of three aspects of Leader behavior: (1) style; (2) style-range; and, (3) style adaptability. The LEAD-Self was originally designed to serve as a training tool and the length of the scale (twelve items) and time requirement (ten minutes) clearly reflected the intended function" (pp. 99-100).

Hersey and Blanchard also developed another instrument called the LEAD-Other. The LEAD-Other was developed to gather information for on-going interventions in organizations. The LEAD-Self is completed by

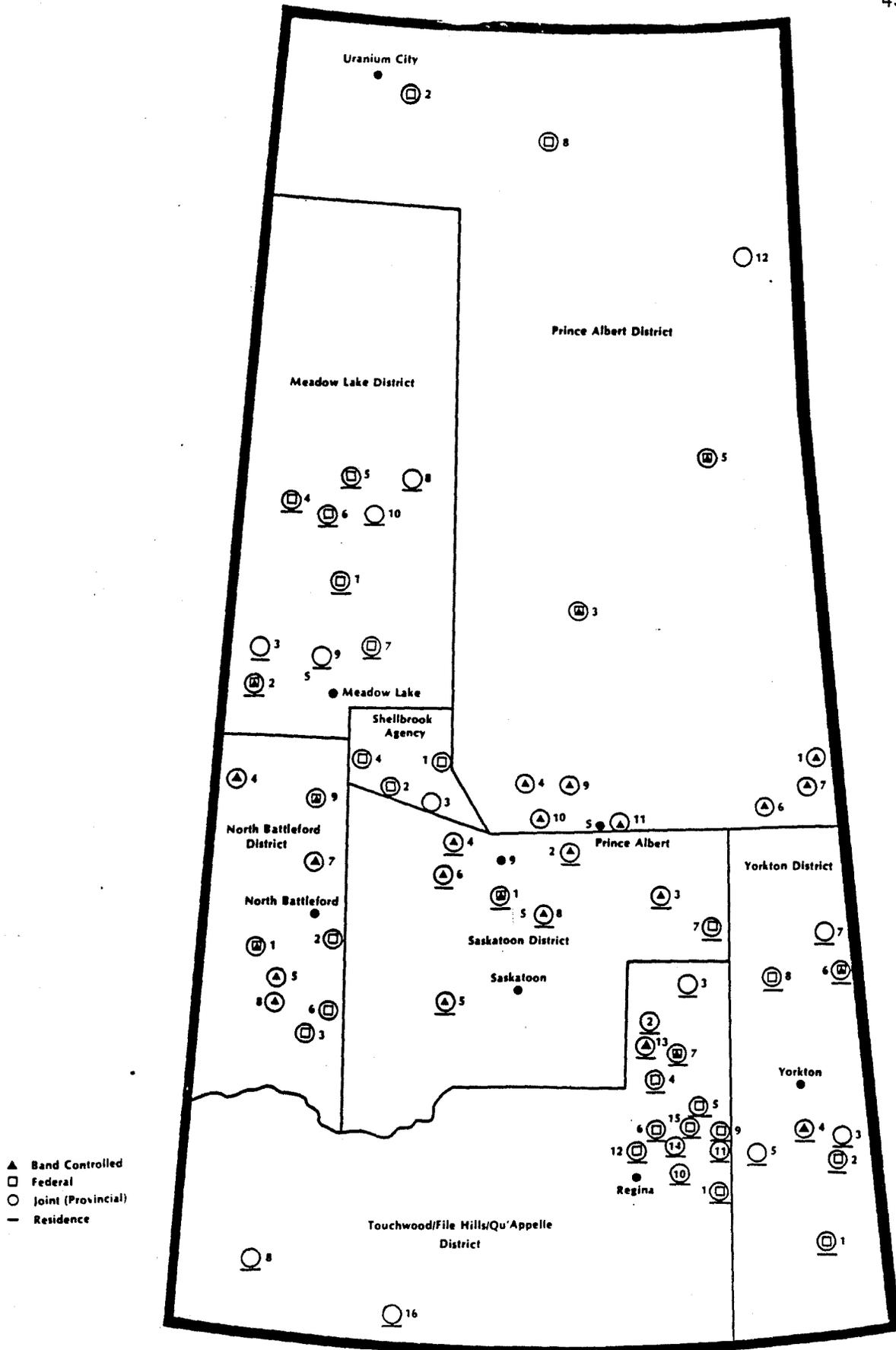


FIGURE 3-2 NATIVE SCHOOL DISTRICTS IN SASKATCHEWAN

that the individuals had to be employed in the same school or (in the case of superintendents) district for at least one year or more. School size varied from fewer than 50 pupils to over 400 pupils. Schools also varied in regard to jurisdictional control, i.e. band schools as well as government- controlled schools were included in the population. Figure 3-1 shows the distribution of native school districts in Saskatchewan.

At the time of the study there were approximately 42 native schools in Saskatchewan with seven district superintendents and approximately 139 full time teachers. Because of the small number of native schools, the writer decided to include the entire population.

Data Collection

The data collection period was during September 1984. There were two factors which influenced this decision: (a) the Department of Indian Affairs' annual orientation for educational staff brought all staff together, and this was felt to be a good time to have staff fill out the questionnaires; (b) this period of the school term was not as demanding as later on in the term.

A letter requesting permission to conduct the study was sent to the Acting Director of Education, Department of Indian and Northern Affairs, Regina. (See Appendix C) This was accompanied by a brief outline of the study. A discussion was later held with the Acting Director of Education, after which permission was obtained to conduct the study.

After several meetings with the Department of Indian Affairs staff, arrangements were made to distribute the questionnaires at the orientation session in Saskatoon. It should be noted that a brief introduction to the study was made at a plenary session. The questionnaire was accompanied by a letter stating the reasons for the study and an explanation that permission had been granted to conduct the study.

Following this initial distribution, another set of questionnaires were sent to the principals for distribution to those teachers who had not been at the orientation session. In addition, questionnaires were sent to the seven district superintendents. The questionnaires were anonymous. However, the schools had to be identified in order to match teachers' and superintendents' responses with principals' responses. To ensure confidentiality each questionnaire was accompanied by a self-addressed stamped envelope for returning the questionnaire. An additional reminder was sent to principals and superintendents in late October.

Scoring of the Instrument

The analysis of the data was hand-coded and tabulated according to the instrument instructions. The scoring for the LEAD-Self and LEAD-Other was the same. Each instrument consisted of twelve (12) situations, and participants circled choice A, B, C, or D, according to their perception of how the leader (principal) would react within the

constraints of the given situations and choices. Scoring for style-range and style profile was accomplished by simply adding up the total answers in each of the four (4) columns. The column numbers correspond to the basic style quadrant of (1) Telling S1, (2) Selling S2, (3) Participating S3 and (4) Delegating S4. The number of answers in each column was totalled.

The raw scores from each respondent were transferred to the "Leader Effectiveness & Adaptability Description Data Profile" and then computed into percentages on the tri-dimensional Leader effectiveness model. (See LEAD Profile, Appendix F.) Percentages were calculated on the basis of the number of responses in each style quadrant divided by the total frequencies of responses for the four style quadrants times 100. The quadrant or quadrants where the most responses fell indicated the predominant leadership style(s). The secondary leadership style(s) was the quadrant or quadrants with at least 16.7% of the total responses.

Data Analysis

Limitations placed on the group by the parameters of the study (for example, the requirement that respondents have at least one year experience with their principals) dictated a method of data analysis which was descriptive rather than parametric. The primary mode of data analysis constituted, for the most part, frequency counts presented diagrammatically as dictated by the Hersey and Blanchard Leadership profile.

It should be pointed out that data concerning leadership styles were (a) based on generalized statements, (b) described in absolute, as opposed to relative, terms.

Summary

The population for the study comprised principals, superintendents and teachers under the jurisdiction of the seven native school districts in Saskatchewan. The instrument was administered to principals, superordinates and subordinates who had been employed in the same school or district for at least one year.

The instrument for the study was the LEAD (Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description) developed by Hersey and Blanchard. The "LEAD" instrument consisted of the LEAD-Self and LEAD-Other. The LEAD-Self was used to collect data from principals, while the LEAD-Other was used to collect data from subordinates and superordinates. The reliability and validity of the instrument were discussed. The demographic data sheet elicited information concerning education, training, experience, age, the size of school and jurisdiction in which respondents were employed.

The data were hand-coded and tabulated according to the instructions of the instrument. The raw data were then transferred to the "Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description Data Profile" and then computed into percentages. Because of the small sample size, the analysis of the data was purely of a descriptive nature.

It should be emphasized that the quadrant or quadrants where the greatest percentage of responses fell indicated the predominant style(s). The other quadrant or quadrants where the percentage of total responses was at least 16.7% indicated the secondary style(s).

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION OF DATA

Introduction

The purpose of this study, as delineated in Chapter 1, was to describe the leadership styles employed by school principals in the context of native schools in Saskatchewan, utilizing the Hersey and Blanchard (1982) model for describing leadership styles. The specific research questions were:

- (1) What are the perceptions of principals as to their own leadership styles?
- (2) What are the perceptions of subordinates as to the leadership styles of their principals?
- (3) What are the perceptions of superordinates as to the leadership styles of principals under their jurisdiction?
- (4) How do subordinates' perceptions compare with principals' self-perceptions of the principals' leadership styles?
- (5) How do the superordinates' perceptions compare with principals' self-perceptions of principals' leadership styles?
- (6) How do the subordinates' perceptions compare with the superordinates' perceptions of principals' leadership styles?
- (7) How do principals' self-perceptions of their own leadership styles vary according to their training, experience, age and size of their school?
- (8) How do the subordinates' perceptions of principals' leadership

styles vary according to their principals' training, experience, age and size of school?

- (9) How do superordinates' perceptions of their principals' leadership styles vary according to their principals' training, experience, age and size of school?

This chapter will present the findings of the study as they pertain to each of the above questions in turn. First, however, the characteristics of the respondent group will be described.

Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

The total number of superordinates, principals and teachers in the native school system was 216, of which 136 (63%) responded. Twenty (14.7%) of the respondents' questionnaires were not useful or had to be discarded for several reasons, the most common being that respondents did not meet the minimum one-year requirement of the study that they had at least one year in their present position. Also some questionnaires were incomplete.

The questionnaires drew responses from superordinates, principals, and teachers. The "LEAD" questionnaire drew responses from 57.1% of the superordinates, 57.1% of the principals and 63.8% of the subordinate group. In the entire system there were 42 principals and seven superintendents. It should be noted that a large proportion of the principals were teaching principals. There were 139 teachers in the system.

The following sections describe the demographic characteristics of the respondents. The demographic data covers training, experience, age, size of school and jurisdictional characteristics. Characteristics of principals were also determined as they related to administrative experience and post-graduate training in administration.

It should be noted that cell sizes in several categories were small. This is particularly significant for the analysis conducted later in this chapter. In view of the small cell sizes, generalization or prediction beyond mere presentation and description was not feasible in many instances.

Distribution of Respondents According to Professional Training

This section deals with the professional training of teachers and principals. Table 1 indicates that the majority of principals and teachers in this study had four or more years of professional training. Thirty percent or more of both the subordinate and the responding principal group had six or more years of professional training at the time of the study.

TABLE 1

DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS ACCORDING TO YEARS OF PROFESSIONAL TRAINING

Completed Years of Post- Secondary Training	Distribution of Teachers		Distribution of Principals	
	(N=79)	Percent	(N=20)	Percent
1	2	2.5	1	5.0
2	6	7.6	0	0.0
3	8	10.1	3	15.0
4	27	34.2	7	35.0
5	12	15.2	3	15.0
6 or more	24	30.4	6	30.0
X	4.4		4.5	
TOTAL	79	100	20	100

The average post-secondary training for teachers and principals in this study was about 4.4 and 4.5 years respectively. Teachers and principals in this study were slightly better qualified than the 1983/84 Saskatchewan teaching force. The Saskatchewan teaching force 1983 had an average post-secondary training of 4.1 years (Saskatchewan Teachers Federation, 1983, p. 7.) The distribution of respondents according to years of professional training indicates that only two (2.5%) of the teachers and only one (5%) of the principals had one year or less of post-secondary training.

Principals' Post-graduate Training in Administration

This section deals with the distribution of principals in relation to their post-graduate training in administration. Table 2 illustrates that the greater percentage of principals in this study had no post-graduate training and very few isolated courses in administration. Only two (9.5%) of the responding principals had a graduate degree in educational administration.

TABLE 2

DISTRIBUTION OF PRINCIPALS
ACCORDING TO POST-GRADUATE TRAINING IN ADMINISTRATION

Post-graduate Training	Distribution of Principals	
	(N=21)	Percent
No Post-graduate Training	13	61.9
Isolated Post-graduate Training	6	28.6
Post-graduate Diploma	0	0.0
Post-graduate Degree	2	9.5
TOTAL	21	100

Distribution of Respondents According to Years in Present School

Table 3 summarizes the years of teaching experience which principals and their subordinates had in their present school. According to Table 3 the majority of subordinates and principals had been in their present school for three years or more.

TABLE 3

DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS ACCORDING TO YEARS IN PRESENT SCHOOL

Years in Present School	Distribution of Teachers		Distribution of Principals	
	(N=80)	Percent	(N=20)	Percent
1	13	16.3	4	20.0
2-3	26	32.5	5	25.0
4-5	14	17.5	5	25.0
More than 5	27	33.7	6	30.0
\bar{X}		3.5		3.5
TOTAL	80	100	20	100

Table 3 shows that 3.5 years was the average time teachers and principals had been in their present schools. It is also important to note that 33.7% and 30.0% of teachers and principals respectively had been in their schools for more than five years. Table 3 also indicates that 16.3% of responding teachers and 20.0% of responding principals had spent only one full year in their present schools.

Distribution of Principals According to Administrative Experience

Principals in this study were asked to indicate the number of years they had been involved in educational administration at the school level. This information is contained in Table 4.

TABLE 4

DISTRIBUTION OF PRINCIPALS
ACCORDING TO SCHOOL-LEVEL ADMINISTRATIVE EXPERIENCE

Years of School-level Administrative Experience	Distribution of Prncipals	
	(N=15)	Percent
1-2	7	46.6
3-4	4	26.7
5-6	0	0.0
Over 6	4	26.7

Data from Table 4 indicates that the majority of principals had fewer than four years of administrative experience at the school level. Table 4 indicates that the majority of responding principals (46.6%) had only one to two years of administrative experience. Figures from Table 4 also indicated that 26.7% of responding principals had over six years of administrative experience.

Distribution of Respondents According to Age

Table 5 deals with the distribution of respondents according to age. This table indicates that there were no respondents under 24 years of age, and a very small number over 55 years of age. The mean age for the three groups seems to indicate that there was predictably an increase in the mean age from subordinate through superordinate groups. From Table 5 it can be seen that the largest percentage (52.5%) of the subordinate group were under 35 years of age, while the largest percentage of principals (42.9%) and superordinates (54.5%) were in the 45-55 age category.

TABLE 5

DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS ACCORDING TO AGE

Age in Years	<u>Distribution of Subordinates</u>		<u>Distribution of Principals</u>		<u>Distribution of Superordinates</u>	
	(N=80)	Percent	(N=21)	Percent	(N=11)	Percent
Under 24	2	2.5	0	0.0	0	0.0
25-34	42	52.5	4	19.0	0	0.0
35-44	27	33.7	7	33.3	5	45.5
45-55	9	11.3	9	42.9	6	54.5
Over 55	0	0.0	1	4.8	0	0.0
\bar{X}		35.0		41.5		44.8
TOTAL	80	100	21	100	11	100

Table 5 shows that the mean age for principals in this study was more than six years greater than that of subordinates, while superordinates were on the average older than principals by 3.3 years. It should also be pointed out that the mean age for principals in this study (41.5) years was close to the mean age for principals in Saskatchewan, which in 1983/84 was found to be 43.7 years (Renihan and Whiteside, 1985.)

Distribution of Respondents According to Size of School

This section deals with the size of schools in the study. Table 6 shows the distribution of respondents according to size of school. The majority of schools had a student population of 100-199.

TABLE 6

DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS
ACCORDING TO SCHOOL SIZE

Size of School By Number of Pupils	Distribution of Teachers		Distribution of Principals	
	(N=83)	Percent	(N=20)	Percent
Less than 50	5	6.0	6	30.0
50-99	0	0.0	0	0.0
100-199	56	67.5	10	50.0
200-499	22	26.5	4	20.0

The data shows that 67.5% and 50.0% of teachers and principals respectively, reported that their schools have a student population ranging from 100-199 pupils. Six percent and 30.0% of teachers and principals respectively, worked in schools with fewer than 50 pupils.

Distribution of Respondents According to Jurisdictional Control

This section deals with jurisdictional control of the schools which the respondents of this study represented. Native schools were predominantly controlled by either (a) the Department of Indian Affairs, or (b) local Indian bands. This study included schools from both jurisdictions. The concept of jurisdiction is important here, because more and more native schools are coming under the jurisdiction of the bands. The process of self-determination, which is being experienced by most bands, may have some impact on the leadership behavior of principals in native schools. The process, however, is still in its early developmental stage and the effects may not be realized for many years. Table 7 shows the distribution of respondents according to jurisdictional control.

TABLE 7
DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS
ACCORDING TO JURISDICTIONAL CONTROL

Control Jurisdiction	Distribution of Subordinates		Distribution of Principals		Distribution of Superordinates	
	(N=80)	Percent	(N=20)	Percent	(N=13)	Percent
Band	16	20.0	7	35.0	9	69.2
DINA*	64	80.0	13	65.0	4	30.8
TOTAL	80	100	20	100	13	100

*Department of Indian and Northern Affairs

Table 7 indicates that 80.0% of the responding subordinates and 65.0% of responding principals were under the jurisdiction of the Department of Indian and Northern Affairs. Slightly more than 30% of

the responding superordinates in this study were under the jurisdiction of the Department of Indian Affairs.

Summary

This section described the demographic characteristics of respondents according to training, experience, age, size of school and jurisdictional control. It would seem that teachers and principals in this study were comparatively well qualified. The data indicated that principals and teachers in this study were slightly better qualified than the 1983/84 Saskatchewan teaching force, but the majority of responding principals did not have post-graduate training in administration.

The results of this section also indicated that only 30.0% or more of the principals and teachers had been in their present school for more than five years. In addition, there was an increase in the mean age from the subordinate through the superordinate group. Principals were found to be, on average six years or more older than their subordinates, while superordinates were older than principals by at least three years. The data also indicated that the mean age for principals in this study (43.6) years was close to the mean age for principals in Saskatchewan which in 1983/84 was found to be 41.5 years.

Finally, the majority of responding principals and subordinates were under the control of the Department of Indian Affairs, while the majority of responding superordinates had responsibilities in band controlled schools.

Discussion

This section showed that teachers in the study seemed to be professionally well qualified. It showed that the majority of principals had only one to two years of administrative experience in education; and only a few had isolated courses or degrees in post-graduate training in

educational administration. If one were to assume (a) that training and experience have a direct influence on the principalship, and (b) that these principals are consequently lacking in administrative abilities, then these demographic characteristics may reflect on their effectiveness as administrators. This notion is not strongly supported in the Literature. Blumberg and Greenfield (1980, p. 256), in their study of "The Effective Principal," found little to suggest that university graduate training had much direct or observable influence on the principals they studied. Gross and Herriott (1965, p. 69) also found that previous administrative experience in public education had no apparent relationship to professional leadership. Although these studies were not identical to each other, the conclusions bear some relevance to the concern of the influence of training and experience on principals.

As stated above, a significant number of principals in the study had very little experience in educational administration. It is possible that this may be the result of a recent emphasis on internal promotion in which the major prerequisites for becoming a principal would seem to be age and experience. This does have some implications for the school system in regard to the selection of principals.

This study found that 30% or more of the teachers and principals in this study had been in their school for more than five years. These factors may have some impact on career ladders and it is possible that teachers who are now principals aspire to higher administrative positions, through the process of promotion from within.

Thus one may assume that upward mobility in the native school system is difficult, and those teachers who aspire to become administrators earlier in their careers may have to leave the system in order to be promoted. Therefore, for the system to take advantage of the administrative potential of teachers, it might have to use some other criteria other than experience and age, in selecting principals. Gross and Herriott (1965) suggested that "characteristics that should be preferred in appointing elementary school principals are: a high level of academic performance in college, a high order of inter-personal skills, the motive of service, the willingness to commit off-duty time to their work, and relatively little seniority as teachers" (p. 156-157). The findings of Herriott and Gross may be applicable to the principals in this study.

Review of the Conceptual Framework

The classification of styles of leadership which was adopted as a starting point for this study was based on one proposed by Hersey and Blanchard (1982). This classification is termed Situational Leadership.

Basic Concept of Situational Leadership

The concept of Situational Leadership is based on the idea that there is no one best style of leadership. The appropriateness of the leadership style a person uses with an individual or group depends on the maturity level of the individual or group the leader is attempting to influence. The essentials of the theory are shown in Figure 4-1.

This figure shows the relationship between the maturity level of the follower and appropriate leadership styles to be used as the follower moves to different levels of maturity.

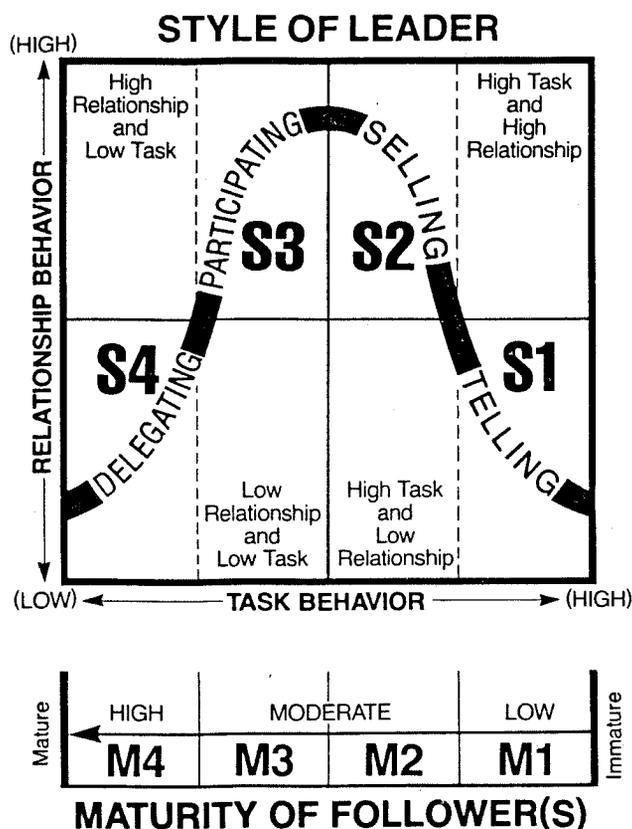


FIGURE 4-1 SITUATIONAL LEADERSHIP
 (From "Management of Organizational Behavior: Utilizing Human Resources" Hersey & Blanchard, 1982, p. 152).

Maturity of the Followers or Group

Maturity is defined in Situational Leadership as the ability and willingness of people to take responsibility for directing their own behavior. These variables of maturity should be considered only in relation to a specific task to be performed (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982, p. 151).

When the maturity level of the follower is low, the model prescribes that the leader use a direct and structured style characterized by high task-orientation and low relationship-orientation. As the maturity level increases in a particular individual or group, the leader should use a more integrated style incorporating both task and relationship in his/her styles. A more participatory approach characterized by high relationship orientation is recommended.

According to Hersey and Blanchard, this classification of Situational Leadership is based on the amount of direction (task behavior) and the amount of socio-emotional support (relationship behavior) a leader must provide given the situation and the "level of maturity" of the follower or group. The terms "task behavior" and "relationship behavior" are used to describe concepts similar to "consideration" and "initiating structure" of the Ohio State Studies (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982, p. 95).

The concepts of task behavior and relationship behavior are central to the classification of leadership styles. According to Hersey and Blanchard (1982):

A person's leadership style involves some combination of either task behavior or relationship behavior. The two types of behavior, task and relationship, which are central to the concept of leadership style, are defined as follows:

Task behavior - The extent to which leaders are likely to organize and define the roles of the members of their group (followers); to explain what activities each is to do and when, where and how tasks are to be accomplished; characterized by endeavoring to establish well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and ways of getting jobs accomplished.

Relationship behavior - The extent to which leaders are likely to maintain personal relationships between themselves and members of their group (followers) by opening up channels of communication, providing socio-emotional support, 'psychological strokes', and facilitating behaviors. (p. 96)

Figure 4-2 shows the four maturity designations.

MATURITY LEVEL	APPROPRIATE STYLE
<p>M1 Low Maturity Unable and unwilling or insecure</p>	<p>S1 Telling High task and low relationship behavior</p>
<p>M2 Low to Moderate Maturity Unable but willing or confident</p>	<p>S2 Selling High task and high relationship behavior</p>
<p>M3 Moderate to High Maturity Able but unwilling or insecure</p>	<p>S3 Participating High relationship and low task behavior</p>
<p>M4 High Maturity Able/competent and willing/confident</p>	<p>S4 Delegating Low relationship and low task behavior</p>

FIGURE 4-2 LEADERSHIP STYLES APPROPRIATE FOR VARIOUS MATURITY LEVELS
 (From "Management of Organizational Behavior: Utilizing Human Resources" Hersey & Blanchard, 1982, p. 154.)

Leadership Styles

In the language of Hersey and Blanchard, the four basic styles are "Telling," "Selling," "Participating," and "Delegating." According to Hersey and Blanchard, the emphasis in leadership shifts from **telling** to **selling**, **participating** and **delegating** as the maturity in followers increases.

The characteristics of the four basic styles are as follows:

- (1) The **"Telling Style"** (S1) is characterized by high task and low relationship behavior and is best suited for followers of low maturity (M1). The leader who employs this style habitually makes his/her own decisions and announces them to his/her subordinates, expecting them to carry them out without question.
- (2) The **"Selling Style"** (S2) is characterized by high task and high relationship behavior, best suited for followers of low to moderate maturity (M2). The leader using this approach also makes his/her own decisions, but, rather than simply announcing them to his subordinates, he/she tries to persuade his/her subordinates to accept them. The leader accepts the possibility that the follower may resist the decision, therefore, the leader persuades the followers to accept his/her decision.
- (3) The **"Participative Style"** (S3) is characterized by high relationship and low task behavior, best suited for followers of moderate to high maturity (M3). The leader using this style does not make the decision until the problem is

presented to members of his group, and their advice and suggestions are received. The decision is still the leader's but it is not taken until the staff are consulted.

- (4) The "Delegating Style" (S4) is characterized by low relationship and low task behavior, best suited for followers of high maturity (M4). This approach to leadership involves delegating to the subordinates the right to make decisions. The leader's function is to define the problem and indicate limits within which the decision must be made.

Predominant and Secondary Leadership Styles

According to Hersey and Blanchard:

A leader's primary style is defined as the behavior pattern used most often when attempting to influence the activities of others. In other words, most leaders tend to have a favorite style.

A leader's supporting style(s) is a leadership style that person tends to use on occasions. It is important to note that all leaders have a primary leadership style, that is, they tend to use one of the four basic leadership styles described in Situational Leadership more often than not in leadership situations. However, they may not have any secondary leadership style. Therefore, a leader could have no secondary style or up to three secondary styles, but would always have at least one primary style. (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982, p. 233)

As stated earlier, this study used four leadership style descriptions. However, in describing the data, particular emphasis was placed on **predominant** and **secondary** styles, which is a "two-style profile." Hersey and Blanchard (1982) states: "A two-style profile includes either (1) a basic style that encompasses two of the four possible style configurations or (2) a basic style and a supporting style" (p. 247).

Description of Principals' Leadership Styles

This section specifically addresses the purpose of the study, which was to describe the leadership styles of school principals in the context of native schools in Saskatchewan. It deals with the leadership styles of principals from their own perceptions, the perceptions of their subordinates, and the perceptions of their superordinates.

In addressing the purpose, the analysis that follows is related to the first six questions of the study. The data was expressed in percentages of responses of the responding groups. Percentages were calculated on the basis of the number of responses in each style quadrant divided by the total frequencies of responses for the four style quadrants times 100.

The criteria used by the researcher in the identification of the predominant and secondary styles were as follows:

- (1) The predominant style(s) was the quadrant or quadrants with the greatest percentage of responses.
- (2) The secondary style(s) was the other quadrant or quadrants with at least 16.7 % of total responses.

Research Question 1:

What are the perceptions of principals as to their own leadership styles?

Figure 4-3 presents the composite summary of the self-perceived leadership styles of principals in this study.

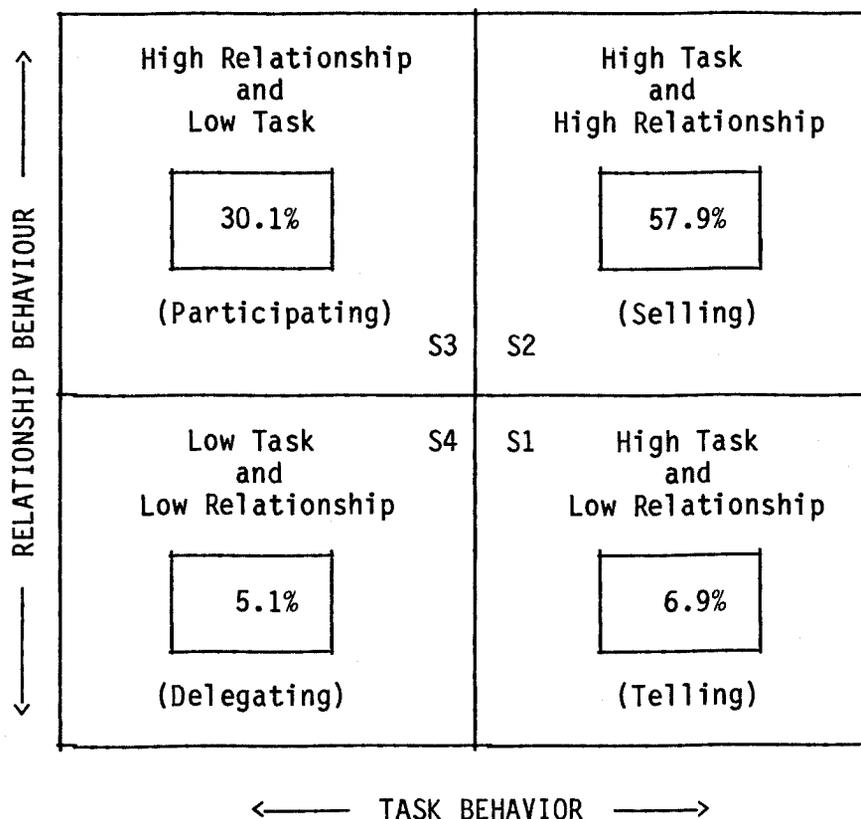


FIGURE 4-3 SELF-PERCEIVED PREDOMINANT AND SECONDARY LEADERSHIP STYLES

* Data expressed as percentages of responses. The predominant style(s) is the quadrant or quadrants with the greatest percentage of responses. The secondary style(s) refers to the other quadrant or quadrants with at least 16.7% of total responses. (Total number of responses = 216.)

The data from Figure 4-3 indicates that the self-perceived predominant and secondary styles of principals in this study were **selling** (57.9%) and **participating** (30.1%). The self-perceived predominant style (the one these principals saw themselves utilizing most often) was characterized by high task and low relationship. That is, responding principals saw themselves as employing a leadership style in which they generally explained their decisions and provided opportunity for clarification by their subordinates or staff. In other words, these principals not only announced their decisions to their

subordinates, but spent time persuading their subordinates to accept their decision.

Though the principals saw themselves as frequently using a predominant style of **selling** (S2), they perceived themselves occasionally using a supportive style of **participating** (S3). This style is characterized by low task and high relationship. That is, this group of principals saw themselves occasionally using a leadership style in which they shared their ideas and facilitated the decision-making process. In using this style, principals perceived themselves occasionally using a style in which they did not make decisions until the problem was presented to their staff members for their advice and suggestions.

The data from Figure 4-3 also indicates that responding principals perceived themselves as very rarely using a **delegating** (S4) or **telling** (S1) style. This group of principals also seemed to perceive themselves as having a limited "style-range." This was indicated by the low percentages of responses in Quadrants 4 and 1, respectively. According to Hersey and Blanchard (1982), "Style-range indicates the extent to which that person is able to vary his or her leadership style." (p. 233)

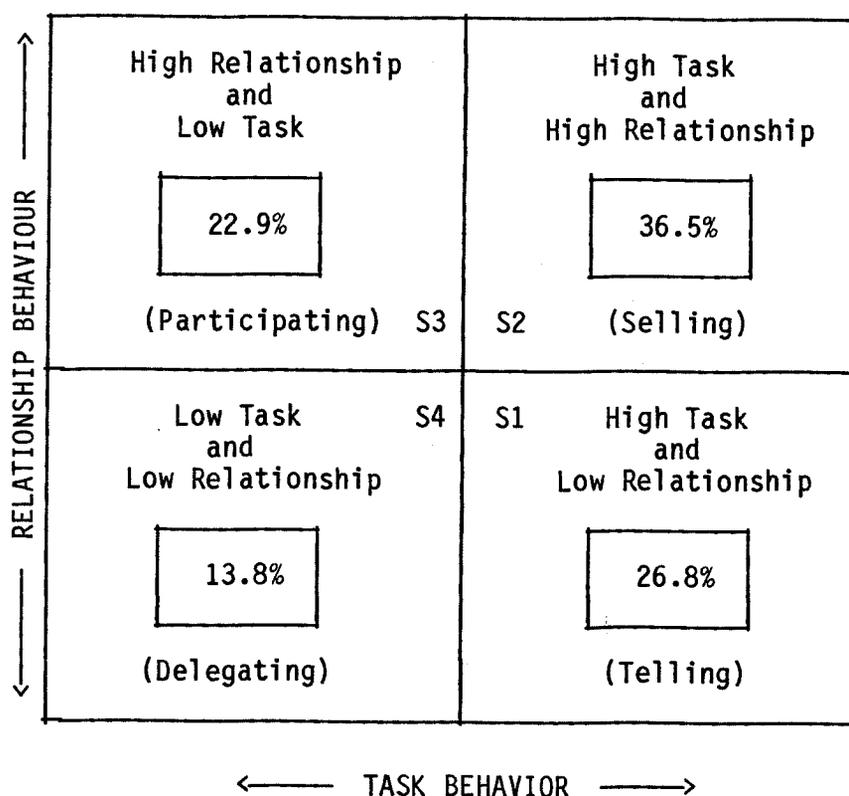
Research Question 2:

What are the perceptions of subordinates as to the leadership styles of their principals?

Figure 4-4 indicates that subordinates perceived the predominant and secondary styles of their principals to be **selling** (36.5%) and

telling (26.8%) respectively. However, Quadrant 3, which is participating (22.9%) is also another secondary style. According to subordinates' perceptions Principals in this study had at least two secondary styles. These secondary styles were telling (26.8%) and participating (22.9%).

According to subordinates' perceptions, it would appear that the principals in this study had a wide range of leadership styles.



**FIGURE 4-4 LEADERSHIP STYLES OF PRINCIPALS:
SUBORDINATES' PERCEPTIONS**

* Data expressed as percentages of responses. The predominant style(s) is the quadrant or quadrants with the greatest percentage of responses. The secondary style(s) refers to the other quadrant or quadrants with at least 16.7% of total responses. (Total number of responses = 828.)

As stated before, subordinates perceived the principals in this study as having a predominant style of **selling** (36.5%). This style is characterized by high task and high relationship. That is, principals were perceived as using a style in which they (the principals) explained their decisions and asked for clarification from the subordinates. This the subordinates saw as the regular decision-making process of their principals.

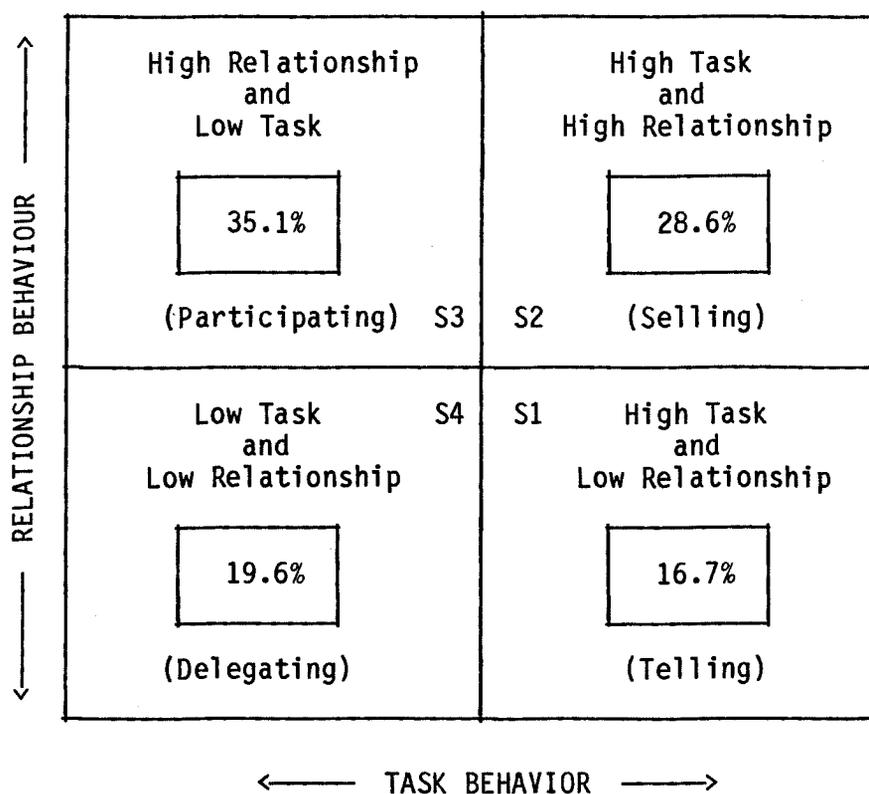
However, the principals were perceived as occasionally using secondary styles of **telling** (S1) and **participating** (S3). These styles are characterized by high task and low relationship, and high relationship and low task respectively. That is, subordinates perceived their principals as occasionally making their own decisions and then announcing them to their subordinates, expecting them to carry them out without question. This meant that the subordinates saw their principals occasionally providing specific instructions and closely supervising their performance. The other secondary style (**participating**) which the subordinates perceived their principals as occasionally using implies the sharing of ideas and facilitating the decision-making process. In other words, they saw the principals as occasionally allowing teachers to have input into the decision-making process.

Research Question 3:

What are the perceptions of superordinates as to the leadership styles of principals under their jurisdiction?

Figure 4-5 indicates that the predominant and secondary styles of principals, as perceived by superordinates, were **participating** (35.1%) and **selling** (28.6%) respectively. This configuration was the reverse of the principals' perceptions.

When superordinates perceived principals as using a predominant style of **participating** (S3), they saw the principals as using a style characterized by high relationship and low task. That is, superordinates saw the principals as not making decisions until the problem was presented to subordinates for suggestions and advice. In regard to secondary style, (**selling** S2), the principals were seen as using a style characterized by high task and high relationship. That is, these principals were seen as explaining their own decisions, but allowing for clarification by the subordinate or staff group.



**FIGURE 4-5 LEADERSHIP STYLES OF PRINCIPALS:
SUPERORDINATES' PERCEPTIONS**

* Data expressed as percentages of responses. The predominant style(s) is the quadrant or quadrants with the greatest percentage of responses. The secondary style(s) refers to the other quadrant or quadrants with at least 16.7% of total responses. (Total number of responses = 168.)

Information from Figure 4-5 also seems to indicate that superordinates perceived the principals under their jurisdiction as having two other secondary styles. The percentage responses in Quadrants 4 and 3 illustrated other secondary styles of **delegating** (S4) and **telling** (S1). The data from Figure 4-5 seems to show that the principals were perceived by their superordinates as having a very wide "style-range."

Research Question 4:

How do subordinates' perceptions compare with principals' self-perceptions of principals own leadership styles?

The data from Figures 4-3 and 4-4 indicates that principals and subordinates perceived the predominant styles of principals in this study to be **selling** (57.9% and 36.5% respectively). These styles are characterized by high task and high relationship. That is, both principal and subordinate group saw the principals as generally using a leadership style in which they explain their decisions and allowed for some clarification by the subordinate or staff group.

On the other hand, the principal and subordinate group differed in their perceptions as to the secondary style(s) used by the principals. The subordinate group saw their principals as using secondary styles of **telling** (S2) and **participating** (S3).

The principals saw their own secondary styles as **participating** (S3), that is, they saw themselves as occasionally getting input on problems from their staff before making any decisions. Principals also saw themselves as having a very limited "style-range," while subordinates saw principals as having a wide "style-range." In other words, principals saw themselves as having only one secondary style, while subordinates saw principals as having two secondary styles.

Research Question 5:

How do the superordinates' perceptions compare with principals' self-perceptions of principals' leadership styles?

The data from Figures 4-3 and 4-5 indicate that the perceived predominant styles of principals as perceived by themselves was **selling** (S2) while the predominant style as perceived by superordinates was that of **participating** (S3).

That is, principals saw themselves as frequently explaining their decisions to their subordinate group; but spending time persuading the subordinates to accept their ideas. However, superordinates saw principals as frequently getting input for their decision-making process from subordinate staff. In other words, superordinates saw principals as not making decisions until the problem was presented to the subordinate group for advice and suggestions.

Principals and superordinate groups also differed in their perceptions as to the secondary style(s) used by the principals. The superordinate group saw their principals as using secondary styles of **selling** (S2) **delegating** (S4) and **telling** (S1), while principals perceived their own secondary styles to be **participating** (S3). In other words, principals saw themselves as having only one secondary style, while superordinates saw them as having three secondary styles. The data would seem to indicate that superordinates saw principals as having a wider "style-range" than principals perceived themselves as having.

Research Question 6:

How do the subordinates' perceptions compare with superordinates' perceptions of principals' leadership styles?

The data from Figures 4-4 and 4-5, indicate that subordinates' perceptions of principals' predominant style was that of **selling**, while superordinates perceived principals' predominant styles as being one of **participating**.

Subordinates and superordinates were consistent in imparting a wide "style-range" to principals. Both groups perceived principals as having at least two secondary styles.

Summary: Research Questions 1-6

This section described the composite perceptions of principals, subordinates and superordinates as to the leadership styles of responding principals. In addition, comparisons were made among the respondent groups as to their perceptions of leadership styles of principals in this study. Figure 4-6 contains a summary of these perceptions in terms of the perceived predominant and secondary leadership styles of the principals.

Responding principals perceived their own predominant and secondary styles to be **selling** (S2) and **participating** (S3) respectively. They saw themselves as having a limited "style-range," and very seldom using **delegating** (S4) and **telling** (S1) styles.

Respondent Group	Perceived Predominant Style(s)	Perceived Secondary Style(s)
Principals	Selling (S2)	Participating (S3)
Subordinates	Selling (S2)	Telling (S1) Participating (S3)
Superordinates	Participating (S3)	Selling (S2) Delegating (S4) Telling (S1)

FIGURE 4-6 PREDOMINANT AND SECONDARY STYLES OF PRINCIPALS:
PERCEPTIONS OF RESPONDENT GROUPS

Subordinates perceived principals' predominant style to be **selling** (S2). This was the same as that perceived by the principals themselves. However, subordinates saw principals as having two secondary styles. These secondary styles were **telling** (S1) and **participating** (S3). This meant that the subordinates saw the principals as having a wide "style-range."

Superordinates perceived principals' predominant styles to be **participating** (S3). This was different from the self-perceptions of principals and the perceptions of subordinates. The superordinates also perceived principals as having three secondary styles, **selling** (S1),

delegating (S4) and **telling** (S1). This meant that superordinates and subordinates were consistent in imputing a wide "style-range" to principals.

As for secondary styles, the principals saw themselves as not making decisions until they had presented the problem to members of the group and listened to their advice and suggestions. The decisions were still theirs, but they were not made until staff had been consulted. On the other hand, subordinates and superordinates saw principals occasionally delegating their responsibilities and asking for input into the decision-making process. However, both the superordinates and subordinates saw the principals as giving clear and specific instructions to staff and closely supervising their performance.

Discussion

The styles of **selling** (S2) and **participating** (S3), the most popular style combination among respondent groups involve a process of collaboration and sharing of decision-making. This style profile is a democratic approach to leadership. These styles are considered by Hersey and Blanchard (1982) as "safe styles." According to Hersey and Blanchard, people whose scores place the majority of their responses in styles two and three tend to do well working with people of average levels of maturity, but find it difficult handling discipline problems. Hersey and Blanchard found that this combined style profile (**selling** S2 and **participating** S3) tends to be the most frequently identified style in the United States and other countries with a high level of education and extensive industrial experience (p. 251).

Referring back to Figure 4-2, the appropriate leadership styles can be identified for various maturity levels. This figure shows that the styles of **selling (S2)** and **participating (S3)** are appropriate for subordinates with moderate to high levels of maturity. Perceptions of each of the respondent groups in this study seemed to fit this category of moderate to high levels of maturity. On the part of teachers this assumption is reinforced by the fact that the majority of subordinates were comparatively well qualified and had several years of teaching experience.

However, in regard to style-range, and secondary styles, there was a noteworthy difference between subordinates' perceptions and the principals' self-perceptions. Principals and teachers should get together to discuss appropriate leadership styles. This process is called "contracting for leadership styles." According to Hersey and Blanchard (1982),

In terms of Situational Leadership, once a superior and subordinate have agreed upon and contracted certain goals and objectives for the subordinate, the next logical step would be a negotiation and agreement about the appropriate leadership style that the superior should use in helping the subordinate accomplish each of the objectives.
(p. 259)

Hersey and Blanchard found that some interesting results of the contracting for leadership style process occurred in an elementary school in Eastern Massachusetts (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982, p. 260).

In regard to variation in perceived style range across groups, it should be pointed out that a wide "style-range" does not necessarily guarantee effectiveness. One can learn to use the four basic styles. However, if one is to be effective, one must learn to use the appropriate leadership style. This lends more support for the need to

conduct research on the principals' effectiveness and the maturity levels of their subordinates. Hersey and Blanchard's comments are relevant to the above discussion. They stated that:

People who have a narrow style range can be effective over a long period of time if they remain in situations in which their style has a high probability of success. Conversely, people who have a wide range of styles may be ineffective if these behaviors are not consistent with the demands of the situation. (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982, p. 234)

As stated earlier, principals were perceived by their subordinates to be more directive than did superordinates and principals themselves. This has implications for the maturity levels of their teachers as reflected in the following description by Hersey and Blanchard (1982):

People who are perceived as using predominately styles S1 and S2 tend to be able to raise and lower their socio-emotional support or relationship behavior, but they often feel uncomfortable unless they are 'calling the shots,' that is, when they are providing the structure and direction. In our sample we found that this style profile tends to be characteristic of engineers who have become supervisors of other engineers but tend to be reluctant to give up their engineering, salespersons who have become sales managers and yet still love to sell themselves; and teachers who have become administrators but who still want to be directing the activities of children. These leaders often project in interviews that 'no one can do things as well as I can,' and this often becomes a self-fulfilling prophecy.

The style profile S1-S2 tends to be effective with low to moderate levels of maturity. It is often an extremely effective style for people engaged in manufacturing and production where managers have real pressures to produce, as well as with leaders in crisis situations where time is an extremely scarce resource. But leaders with this style, when the crisis is over or time pressure is over, often are not able to develop people to their fullest potential. And this remains true until they learn to use styles S3 and S4 appropriately. (pp.252-253)

The major implication of subordinates' perceptions, therefore, is that their own self-development would be better served if their principals learned to employ leadership styles of a more participative nature.

Leadership Styles of Principals And Demographic Variables

This section deals with the leadership styles of principals and how they vary according to the demographic variables of training, experience, age and size of school. In addressing this objective, the analysis that follows was related to Questions 7-9 of this study. For the purposes of these questions, training was divided into two parts (a) years of professional training and (b) post-graduate training of principals in administration. Experience was related to (a) years of employment of principals in their present school and (b) years of administrative experience as principals.

It is important to re-emphasize that:

- (1) The predominant style(s) was the quadrant or quadrants with the greatest percentage of responses.
- (2) The secondary style(s) was the other quadrant or quadrants with at least 16.7% of total responses.

The writer is also aware that many of the cell sizes were too small to allow prediction or generalization beyond mere presentation and description.

Research Question 7:

How do the principals' perceptions of their own leadership styles vary according to their training, experience, age and size of school?

Training and Self-perceived Leadership Styles

This section describes the self-perceived leadership styles of principals as they varied according to the principals' professional training. Through the categories **selling** and **participating** emerged consistently. However, departure from this pattern was noted for those of four years' training, for whom **participating** was the predominant style and **selling** was the secondary style. The data are illustrated in Table 8.

TABLE 8

PROFESSIONAL TRAINING AND SELF-PERCEIVED LEADERSHIP STYLES

Principals' Years in Professional Training	Number of Principals' Responses (180)	Percentage of Responses per Category			
		S1	S2	S3	S4
1	0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
2	0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
3	24	8.2	54.5	33.2	4.1
4	72	5.6	41.7	45.8	6.9
5	36	5.6	61.1	30.6	2.7
6	48	6.3	58.2	29.2	6.3

Predominant and Secondary Style(s): The predominant style(s) is the style quadrant or quadrants that has the greatest percentage of responses. The secondary style(s) is the other style quadrant or quadrants with at least 16.7% of total responses.

The most pronounced identification of **selling** as a self-perceived predominant style was made by those with five and six years professional training. All training categories were consistent in the low prominence given to **telling** (S1) and **delegating** (S4).

Post-graduate Training and Self-perceived Leadership Style

Table 9 describes the self-perceived leadership styles of principals as they varied according to their post-graduate training in administration. It is important to note that regardless of the type of post-graduate training in administration, principals perceived themselves as rarely using a **telling** (S1) or **delegating** style (S4).

TABLE 9

POST-GRADUATE TRAINING IN ADMINISTRATION AND SELF-PERCEIVED LEADERSHIP STYLES

Principals' Post-graduate Training in Administration	Number of Principals' Responses (168)	Percentage of Responses per Category			
		S1	S2	S3	S4
No Post-graduate Training	72	8.3	56.9	30.6	4.2
Isolated Post-graduate Courses	72	8.3	55.6	30.6	5.5
Post-graduate Degree	24	4.2	37.5	50.0	8.3

Predominant and Secondary Style(s): The predominant style(s) is the style quadrant or quadrants that has the greatest percentage of responses. The secondary style(s) is the other style quadrant or quadrants with at least 16.7% of total responses.

The figures from Table 9 would seem to indicate that principals with no post-graduate training or isolated courses in administration, had a self-perceived predominant style of **selling** (56.9%). That is, they preferred to explain their decisions to their subordinates. On the other hand, principals with degrees in administration had a self-perceived predominant style of **participating** (50.0%). That is, they preferred to involve their staff in the decision-making process. The data seems to suggest that principals with no training or isolated courses in administration, preferred a more structured type of leadership, while those principals with degrees in administration seemed to prefer a more participative type of leadership.

Experience and Self-perceived Leadership Styles

Table 10 shows the self-perceived leadership styles of principals as they varied in relation to their experience in their present school.

TABLE 10

EXPERIENCE IN PRESENT SCHOOL AND SELF-PERCEIVED LEADERSHIP STYLES

Principals' Years in Present School	Number of Principals' Responses (156)	Percentage of Responses per Category			
		S1	S2	S3	S4
1 year	48	4.1	50.0	41.7	4.2
2-3 years	36	11.1	58.3	25.0	5.6
4-5 years	36	8.3	58.3	27.8	5.6
Over 5 years	36	2.7	36.2	50.0	11.1

Predominant and Secondary Style(s): The predominant style(s) is the style quadrant or quadrants that has the greatest percentage of responses. The secondary style(s) is the other style quadrant or quadrants with at least 16.7 % of total responses.

Table 10 indicates that the self-perceived predominant style for principals with less than five years experience in their present school was selling (S2). That is, they preferred to explain their decisions to their staff. However, principals with five or more years experience in their present school had a self-perceived predominant style of participating (50.0%). That is, they preferred to get input for decision-making from their subordinates. Generally, principals' "style-range" appeared to be limited, regardless of the time spent in their present school.

Administrative Experience and Self-perceived Leadership Styles

Table 11 describes the self-perceived leadership styles of principals as they varied according to administrative experience.

TABLE 11

ADMINISTRATIVE EXPERIENCE AND SELF-PERCEIVED LEADERSHIP STYLES

Principals' Years of Administrative Experience	Number of Principals' Responses (180)	Percentage of Responses per Category			
		S1	S2	S3	S4
1-2 years	84	4.8	61.9	28.6	4.7
3-4 years	48	8.3	58.3	29.2	4.2
5-6 years	0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Over 6 years	48	10.4	47.9	37.5	4.2

Predominant and Secondary Style(s): The predominant style(s) is the style quadrant or quadrants that has the greatest percentage of responses. The secondary style(s) is the other style quadrant or quadrants with at least 16.7 % of total responses.

According to the self-perceptions of principals, the predominant style of principals in each experience category was **selling**. That is, regardless of the principals' administrative experience, they saw themselves as preferring to explain their decisions to staff, and sell their ideas to them, realizing that their ideas may not always be accepted. Principals across the categories of administrative experience were also consistent in perceiving themselves as having a limited "style-range."

Age and Self-perceived Leadership Styles

Table 12 indicates that the self-perceived predominant styles of principals in this study was **selling** for three of the four age categories. The principals in the 45-55 age category did vary from

TABLE 12

AGE AND SELF-PERCEIVED LEADERSHIP STYLES

Age of Principals	Number of Principals' Responses (204)	Percentage of Responses per Category			
		S1	S2	S3	S4
25-34	48	4.2	58.3	29.2	8.3
35-44	72	8.3	50.0	36.1	5.6
45-55	72	4.2	37.5	50.0	8.3
Over 55	12	0.0	58.4	33.3	8.3

Predominant and Secondary Style(s): The predominant style(s) is the style quadrant or quadrants that has the greatest percentage of responses. The secondary style(s) is the other style quadrant or quadrants with at least 16.7 % of total responses.

other age categories in that their predominant style was participating (50.0%). In other words, principals in the 45-55 age category, preferred a more facilitative approach, while those in other age categories preferred a more structured approach.

School Size and Self-perceived Leadership Styles

Table 13 presents the self-perceived leadership styles of principals as they varied according to school size.

TABLE 13

SCHOOL SIZE AND SELF-PERCEIVED LEADERSHIP STYLES

Size of School By Numbers of Pupils	Number of Principals' Responses (192)	Percentage of Responses per Category			
		S1	S2	S3	S4
Less than 50	72	1.4	61.1	30.5	7.0
50-99	0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
100-199	72	6.3	43.7	41.7	8.3
200-499	48	8.3	58.3	31.3	2.1

Predominant and Secondary Style(s): The predominant style(s) is the style quadrant or quadrants that has the greatest percentage of responses. The secondary style(s) is the other style quadrant or quadrants with at least 16.7% of total responses.

There seemed to be little variation in principals' self-perceived leadership styles according to size of school. Table 13 seems to suggest that principals, regardless of size of school, had a predominant leadership style of selling.

Research Question 8:

How do the subordinates' perceptions of their principals' leadership styles vary according to their principals' training, experience, age and size of school?

Principals' Training and Subordinate-perceived Leadership Styles

The data from Table 14 describes subordinate-perceived leadership styles of principals according to principals' professional training.

TABLE 14

PRINCIPALS' PROFESSIONAL TRAINING
AND SUBORDINATE-PERCEIVED LEADERSHIP STYLES

Principals' Years in Professional Training	Number of Subordinates' Responses (612)	Percentage of Responses per Category			
		S1	S2	S3	S4
3	36	25.0	25.0	13.9	36.1
4	144	25.0	28.5	25.0	21.5
5	72	29.2	37.5	11.1	22.2
6 or more	360	30.0	34.4	25.0	10.6

Predominant and Secondary Style(s): The predominant style(s) is the style quadrant or quadrants that has the greatest percentage of responses. The secondary style(s) is the other style quadrant or quadrants with at least 16.7 % of total responses.

Data from Table 14 indicates that the perceptions of teachers were consistent in imputing a wide "style-range" to their principals regardless of their principals' professional training. Specifically, for those principals with four or more years of professional training, the predominant style was selling, while those with three years

professional training were perceived by teachers to have a predominant style of delegating.

Principals' Post-graduate Training and Subordinate-perceived

Leadership Styles

Table 15 describes subordinate's perceptions of principals' leadership styles according to their principals' post-graduate training in administration.

TABLE 15

PRINCIPALS' POST-GRADUATE TRAINING IN ADMINISTRATION AND SUBORDINATE-PERCEIVED LEADERSHIP STYLES

Principals' Post-Graduate Training in Administration	Number of Subordinate Responses (564)	Percentage of Responses per Category			
		S1	S2	S3	S4
No Post-graduate Training	180	22.8	33.3	28.9	15.0
Isolated Post-graduate Courses	156	24.4	21.7	23.1	30.8
Post-graduate Degree	228	32.9	39.9	21.5	5.7

Predominant and Secondary Style(s): The predominant style(s) is the style quadrant or quadrants that has the greatest percentage of responses. The secondary style(s) is the other style quadrant or quadrants with at least 16.7 % of total responses.

Principals with isolated post-graduate courses in administration, and no post-graduate training in administration, were perceived by their subordinates as having predominant styles of **selling** (33.3%) and **delegating** (30.8%) respectively. On the other hand, principals with post-graduate degrees in administration were perceived by their subordinates as having a predominant style of **selling** (39.9%).

From the above, it would seem that the subordinate-perceived leadership styles of principals did vary somewhat according to principals' post-graduate training. Principals were perceived by their subordinates to have a wide "style-range," regardless of their post-graduate training in administration.

Principals' Experience and Subordinate-perceived Leadership Styles

Table 16 indicates that the leadership styles of principals varied according to the length of time principals were employed in their present school. For each of the four categories of experience, principals were seen to have a consistently wide "style-range." In each category, subordinates perceived their principals to have at least two secondary leadership styles.

TABLE 16

PRINCIPALS' EXPERIENCE IN PRESENT SCHOOL AND SUBORDINATE-PERCEIVED LEADERSHIP STYLES

Principals' Years In Present School	Number of Subordinates' Responses (612)	Percentage of Responses per Category			
		S1	S2	S3	S4
1 year	300	32.0	39.3	19.0	9.7
2-3 years	84	33.3	33.3	21.5	11.9
4-5 years	120	25.0	25.0	22.5	27.5
Over 5 years	108	19.4	24.1	34.3	22.2

Predominant and Secondary Style(s): The predominant style(s) is the style quadrant or quadrants that has the greatest percentage of responses. The secondary style(s) is the other style quadrant or quadrants with at least 16.7 % of total responses.

From the data in Table 16 it can be seen that the predominant styles for those with one year in present school was selling. For

those with two to three years the predominant styles were **telling** and **selling**, while those with four to five years had a **delegating** style. Those with five or more years had a **participating** style. Due to the wider "style-range," however, the differences were not pronounced. Subordinates' perceptions seemed to move from a very structured to participative styles as their principals' experience in their present school increased.

Principals' Administrative Experience and Subordinate-perceived Leadership Styles

Table 17 describes the subordinate-perceived leadership styles according to principals' administrative experience.

TABLE 17

PRINCIPALS' ADMINISTRATIVE EXPERIENCE AND SUBORDINATE-PERCEIVED LEADERSHIP STYLES

Principals' Years of Administrative Experience	Number of Subordinates' Responses (576)	Percentage of Responses per Category			
		S1	S2	S3	S4
1-2 years	144	32.6	25.0	18.1	24.3
3-4 years	144	24.3	32.6	24.3	18.8
5-6 years	0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Over 6 years	288	30.9	36.1	23.3	9.7

Predominant and Secondary Style(s): The predominant style(s) is the style quadrant or quadrants that has the greatest percentage of responses. The secondary style(s) is the other style quadrant or quadrants with at least 16.7% of total responses.

Figures from Table 17 seem to indicate that the leadership styles of principals as perceived by subordinates did vary somewhat according to administrative experience. The predominant style for principals with

one to two years was **telling**. The predominant leadership style for principals with three or more years administrative experience was perceived to be **selling** (S2). That is, principals with three or more years administrative experience preferred to explain their decisions to their subordinates.

Principals' Age and Subordinate-perceived Leadership Styles

Table 18 shows that the subordinate-perceived leadership styles of principals in this study, varied somewhat according to principals' age categories.

TABLE 18

PRINCIPALS' AGE AND SUBORDINATE-PERCEIVED LEADERSHIP STYLES

Age of Principals	Subordinates' Responses (660)	Percentage of Responses per Category			
		S1	S2	S3	S4
25-34	24	37.5	12.5	29.2	20.8
35-44	228	27.2	25.4	18.9	28.5
45-55	408	27.6	40.7	25.0	6.7
Over 55	0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0

Predominant and Secondary Style(s): The predominant style(s) is the style quadrant or quadrants that has the greatest percentage of responses. The secondary style(s) is the other style quadrant or quadrants with at least 16.7 % of total responses.

As principals' age increased, their predominant leadership styles as perceived by subordinates shifted from structured to democratic. Principals in the age category 25-34 were seen to have a predominant style of **telling** (37.5%), those in 35-44 age bracket had a perceived style of **delegating** (28.5%), while those of ages 45-55, were

perceived as having a predominant style of **selling** (40.7%). That is, subordinate-perceived predominant styles of principals shifted from closely supervising staff, to delegating responsibilities and then to selling staff on their ideas. Again the wide "style-range" that teachers attributed to their principals seemed to be consistently reflected across age categories.

Size of School and Subordinate-perceived Leadership Styles

Table 19 indicates slight variations in subordinate-perceived leadership styles of principals according to size of school.

TABLE 19

SIZE OF SCHOOL AND SUBORDINATE-PERCEIVED LEADERSHIP STYLES

Size of School by Number of Pupils	Number of Subordinates' Responses (828)	Percentage of Responses per Category			
		S1	S2	S3	S4
Less than 50	12	16.7	25.0	41.6	16.7
50-99	0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
100-199	576	22.6	38.0	24.1	15.3
200-499	240	33.7	36.3	20.0	10.0

Predominant and Secondary Style(s): The predominant style(s) is the style quadrant or quadrants that has the greatest percentage of responses. The secondary style(s) is the other style quadrant or quadrants with at least 16.7 % of total responses.

According to subordinates' perceptions, principals in smaller schools had a predominant **participative** style (41.6%), while those in larger schools (200-499) had a predominant style of **selling** (36.3%). Principals' predominant style shifted from participative to more structured as the size of the school increased.

Research Question 9:

How do superordinates' perceptions of their principals' leadership styles vary according to their principals' training, experience, age and size of school?

This section deals with superordinates' perceptions of their principals' leadership styles as they varied.

The writer is aware that some of the sample sizes in this section are relatively small, however, the material is presented for description purpose only, therefore possibilities of generalization are limited.

Principals' Professional Training and Superordinate-perceived Leadership Styles

Table 20 shows the composite superordinate-perceived leadership styles of principals as they varied according to the principals' professional training.

TABLE 20

**PRINCIPALS' PROFESSIONAL TRAINING
AND SUPERORDINATE-PERCEIVED LEADERSHIP STYLES**

Principals' Years in Training	Number of Superordinates' Responses (108)	Percentage of Respondents per Category			
		S1	S2	S3	S4
3	36	19.4	41.7	38.9	0.0
4	36	11.1	38.9	41.7	8.3
5	12	0.0	0.0	8.3	91.7
6	24	4.2	37.5	37.5	20.8

Predominant and Secondary Style(s): The predominant style(s) is the style quadrant or quadrants that has the greatest percentage of responses. The secondary style(s) is the other style quadrant or quadrants with at least 16.7% of total responses.

Data from Table 20 indicate that there was considerable variation in the superordinate-perceived leadership styles of principals when examined in terms of years of professional training. Principals with more years of professional training were perceived by their superordinates as having a more participative style. Superordinates also attributed a wide "style-range" to principals with professional training.

Principals' Post-graduate Training in Administration

Table 21 illustrates superordinates' perceived leadership styles as they varied according to post-graduate training of principals. Table 21 indicates that the perceived predominant leadership style of principals varied according to post-graduate training in administration. It should be noted, however, that the number of superordinates in these categories was small.

TABLE 21

PRINCIPALS' POST-GRADUATE TRAINING AND SUPERORDINATE-PERCEIVED LEADERSHIP STYLES

Principals' Post-Graduate Training	Number of Superordinates' Responses (96)	Percentage of Responses per Category			
		S1	S2	S3	S4
No Post-graduate Training	72	20.8	31.9	29.2	18.1
Isolated Post-graduate Courses	0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Post-graduate Diploma	0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Post-graduate Degree	24	8.3	20.8	41.7	29.2

Predominant and Secondary Style(s): The predominant style(s) is the style quadrant or quadrants that has the greatest percentage of responses. The secondary style(s) is the other style quadrant or quadrants with at least 16.7 % of total responses.

Principals with no post-graduate training in administration were perceived by their superordinates as having a predominant style of **selling** (31.9%); while principals with post-graduate degrees in administration were perceived by their superordinates as having a predominant style of **participating** (41.7%). Superordinates seemed to have attributed a wide "style-range" to their principals, regardless of the principals post-graduate training in administration.

Principals' Experience and Superordinate-perceived

Leadership Styles

Table 22 shows some variation in the superordinate-perceived leadership styles of principals according to the determinant of experience.

TABLE 22

PRINCIPALS' EXPERIENCE IN PRESENT SCHOOL AND SUPERORDINATE-PERCEIVED LEADERSHIP STYLES

Principals' Years in Present School	Number of Superordinates' Responses (108)	Percentage of Responses per Category			
		S1	S2	S3	S4
1 year	0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
2-3 years	36	11.1	38.9	44.4	5.6
4-5 years	36	11.1	19.5	25.0	44.4
Over 5 years	36	11.1	47.2	38.9	2.8

Predominant and Secondary Style(s): The predominant style(s) is the style quadrant or quadrants that has the greatest percentage of responses. The secondary style(s) is the other style quadrant or quadrants with at least 16.7% of total responses.

The superordinate-perceived predominant leadership styles of principals shifted from **participating** (S3) to **delegating** (S4) and then to **selling** (47.2%) in relation to the number of years principals spent in their present school.

Principals' Administrative Experience and Superordinate-perceived Leadership Styles

Table 23 illustrates superordinates' perceptions of principals' styles as they varied according to principals' administrative experience. Responses were received only for those principals in the 1-2 years category and the 3-4 years category. Table 23 indicates that the perceived predominant leadership style of principals (**delegating**) was the same for both categories of administrative experience.

TABLE 23

**PRINCIPALS' ADMINISTRATIVE EXPERIENCE
AND SUPERORDINATE-PERCEIVED LEADERSHIP STYLES**

Principals' Years of Administrative Experience	Number of Superordinates' Responses (60)	Percentage of Responses per Category			
		S1	S2	S3	S4
1-2 years	12	0.0	25.0	33.3	41.7
3-4 years	48	25.0	25.0	22.9	27.1
5-6 years	0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Over 6 years	0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0

Predominant and Secondary Style(s): The predominant style(s) is the style quadrant or quadrants that has the greatest percentage of responses. The secondary style(s) is the other style quadrant or quadrants with at least 16.7 % of total responses.

Both categories were attributed a wide "style-range."

Principals' Age and Superordinate-perceived Leadership Styles

The data shows that there was some variation in superordinate-perceived leadership styles of principals according to age. Older principals were perceived to use styles of selling (S2) and participating (S3), while younger principals were seen to use more participating (S3) and delegating (S4) styles. Table 24 illustrates this distribution.

TABLE 24

PRINCIPALS' AGE AND SUPERORDINATE-PERCEIVED LEADERSHIP STYLES

Age of Principals	Number of Superordinates' Responses (108)	Percentage of Responses per Category			
		S1	S2	S3	S4
25-34	24	8.3	8.3	29.2	54.2
35-44	36	13.9	36.1	36.1	13.9
45-55	48	22.9	39.6	33.3	4.2

Predominant and Secondary Style(s): The predominant style(s) is the style quadrant or quadrants that has the greatest percentage of responses. The secondary style(s) is the other style quadrant or quadrants with at least 16.7% of total responses.

Younger principals appeared to be more democratic and participative in their decision-making process, while older principals seemed to be more inclined to be structured in their approach. Younger principals were perceived to have a more limited "style-range" than that of their older counterparts.

Size of School and Superordinate-perceived Leadership Styles

Table 25 illustrates superordinate-perceived leadership styles as they varied according to size of school. Perceptions of superordinates indicated that principals' leadership styles did vary according to size of school. Principals in smaller schools were seen to use a participative style while principals in larger schools were perceived to use a more structured approach.

TABLE 25

SCHOOL SIZE AND SUPERORDINATE-PERCEIVED LEADERSHIP STYLES

Size of School by Number of Pupils	Number of Superordinates' Responses (156)	Percentage of Responses per Category			
		S1	S2	S3	S4
Less than 50	36	8.2	30.6	30.6	30.6
50-99	24	20.8	29.2	41.7	8.3
100-199	72	11.1	38.9	27.8	22.2
200-499	24	20.8	50.0	25.0	4.2

Predominant and Secondary Style(s): The predominant style(s) is the style quadrant or quadrants that has the greatest percentage of responses. The secondary style(s) is the other style quadrant or quadrants with at least 16.7% of total responses.

Principals in smaller schools were perceived to have three strong predominant styles of selling (S2), participating (S3) and delegating (S4). For the 50-99 group, the predominant style was participating (S3), while for those principals in the 100-199 group, the predominant style was selling (S2). Principals in schools of 200-499 had a perceived predominant style of selling (50.0%). However a wide "style-range" was attributed to principals regardless of school size category.

Perceptions of superordinates indicated that principals' leadership styles did vary according to size of school. Principals in smaller schools were seen to use a participative style while principals in larger schools were perceived to use a more structured approach.

Summary: Research Questions 7-9

This section dealt with the perceptions of principals, subordinates and superordinates, as to the leadership styles of responding principals, and how these perceived leadership styles varied according to the demographic variables of training, experience, age and size of school.

Demographic Variables and Self-perceived Leadership Styles

There were slight variations in the self-perceived predominant styles of principals in relation to their demographic variables of training (professional and administrative), experience in present school and age. There was little variation in predominant leadership styles according to size of school and administrative experience. They perceived themselves as having a limited "style-range" regardless of demographic variables.

Demographic Variables and Subordinate-perceived Leadership Styles

Teachers were consistent in imputing a wide "style-range" to their principals regardless of their principals' demographic variables. In general, subordinates' perceptions of the predominant styles of principals varied according to their principals' demographic variables of training, experience, age and size of school. Subordinate perceptions of their principals' predominant styles move from a very structured style to a more participative style as principals' experience in their present school increased. As principals' age increased their

predominant leadership styles as perceived by subordinates shifted from a structured approach to a more democratic approach. Principals in smaller schools were seen to use a participative style while principals in larger schools were perceived to use a more structured approach.

Demographic Variables and Superordinate-perceived Leadership Styles

Principals with more professional training and degrees in administration were perceived by their superordinates as having a more participative style. Superordinates also attributed a wide "style-range" to their principals regardless of their training in administration. The superordinate-perceived leadership styles of their principals did vary in relation to the number of years the principal spent in their present school. However, perceptions of principals' predominant styles remained fairly constant in relation to administrative experience of the principals.

Younger principals seemed to be more democratic and participative in their decision-making process, while older principals seemed to be more inclined to be structured in their approach.

Discussion

The significance of demographic data (age, experience, training, etc.) has for years baffled researchers. The philosophical rationale behind the use of demographic data can be summarized by the simple proverb, "with experience and age comes wisdom," that is, with age and experience an administrator or a principal should be more effective because he or she has learned to function effectively within the system.

In respect to training this study found that according to subordinate and superordinate perceptions of principals' leadership styles varied according to the professional training of principals. The predominant styles of principals with post-graduate degrees were seen to be more participative than those in other training categories.

Researchers have found little evidence to support the concept that professional training increases leadership effectiveness. Halpin (1956) discussed the effects of training programs for educational administrators: "A training program for administrators is worthless unless its rationale is in accord with the conditions that actually define the superintendent's leadership role" (p. 2). Here Halpin expresses the need for practical application in training programs. One would assume that post-graduate training would have some affect on leadership styles, however, this notion was not strongly supported by the findings of this study. Gross and Herriott (1965), in their study of professional relationship between education administration and principal's executive score found no significant relationship between these variables (p. 66-67).

Blumberg and Greenfield (1980), also supported the notion that post-graduate training in administration had little direct observable influence on principals. They stated in their conclusions on the effective principal that:

Relative to the implications of our findings for the preparation and training of principals, we found little to suggest that university graduate training had much direct or observable influence on any of these men and women. The possible exception to this is the elementary principal who has extensively studied Gestalt theory and practice before becoming a principal. It should be noted, however, that this

was a personal interest of his, and not part of either a graduate training program for administrators or requirement for administrator certification. All the others, on the other hand, were involved in a doctoral training program in the field of educational administration. (p. 256)

The results of this study indicated that the leadership styles of principals did not vary markedly according to administrative experience. However, principals' leadership styles did seem to vary according to post-graduate training in administration. Those with post-graduate degrees were seen by two groups of respondents to be more participative. However, there were few principals in the post-graduate degree categories. Nevertheless, there are implications for institutions of higher learning in the training of principals. What could be said from these findings is that these institutions should be looking at the relevance of post-graduate training in relation to the actual job of principalship. Institutions of higher learning could also be collaborating with school administrators in on-the-job training for principals.

The American Association of School Administration was concerned about the issue of relevance of courses in educational administration. Gross and Herriott (1965) in their discussion of "Staff Leadership in Public Schools," raised the same issue. They stated,

However, that courses in educational administration may be unrealistic and obsolete is pointed out in a recent yearbook of the American Association of School Administrations, where such courses were criticized as 'bookish to the ultimate,' mediocre, conveying an unrealistic view of the work of school administrators, preventing the students' exposure to other disciplines, and, finally, as failing to use the schools as clinical facilities for the introducing of more effective teaching methods. (p. 158)

The leadership styles of principals as perceived by principals, subordinates and superordinates varied according to experience or number of years which principals had in their present school. In relation to experience in present school, perceptions of two groups of respondents (principals and subordinates) showed that principals with more than five years experience tended to be more participative. Principals' predominant leadership styles did not vary greatly according to administrative experience. This perception was shared by principals and superordinates. Subordinates' perceptions differed slightly. They perceived principals' styles as varying according to administrative experience.

The notion that leadership styles of principals vary according to experience in present school or administrative experience was not supported by Gross and Herriott (1965), when they stated that, "It appears that previous administrative experience in public education has no apparent relationship to professional leadership" (p. 60).

According to subordinates' perceptions, principals' leadership styles varied according to age. Subordinates attributed a wide "style-range" to their principals regardless of age categories. Younger principals were perceived to use a more structured style, while older principals were seen to be more humanistic and have a wider "style-range."

It is important to note that as the size of the school(s) increased the principals' leadership styles were seen to be more structured. Figures from Table 18 indicated that principals in larger schools (200-499) had perceived predominant and secondary styles of **selling** (S2) and **telling** (S1). That is, these principals preferred to

explain their decisions to their staff, but occasionally closely supervised performance. This meant that in larger schools, principals' time was probably taken up in close supervision of teachers. This structured style is appropriate for people whose maturity levels are low. However, our knowledge of teachers' training and experience would lead us to believe that their maturity levels were moderate to high. Therefore, the perceived leadership styles in this instance may be inappropriate.

According to the perceptions of subordinates and superordinates, most principals regardless of demographic variables were seen as having a wide "style-range." In other words, subordinates and superordinates perceived principals, regardless of their demographic variables, as being able to utilize other styles if and when the situation arose. "Style-range" and flexibility are important, in that these give principals the potential to be effective in a number of situations. However, for principals to be effective they would have to be willing to use the appropriate leadership styles. This point is acknowledged by Hersey and Blanchard (1982). They stated that "willingness, not ability, is the main issue in terms of flexibility" (p. 236).

Principals in this study saw themselves as having a very limited "style-range." This differed from the perceptions of subordinates and superordinates. These differences in perceptions could have some influence on the effectiveness of principals. Subordinates and superordinates perceived their principals as having a wide "style-range." According to Hersey and Blanchard (1982):

Style-range indicates the extent to which leaders are able to vary their style appropriately to the demands of a given situation according to situational leadership. People who have a narrow style-range can be effective over a long period of time if they remain in situations in which their style has a high probability of success. Conversely, people who have a wide range of styles may be ineffective if these behaviors are not consistent with the demands of the situation. (p. 234)

"Style-range" and style adaptability are not necessarily relevant to effectiveness, but can be assets to potential effectiveness. One delimitation of this study was that it did not deal with principals' effectiveness. However, the findings consistently point to the importance of "style-range" and adaptability, as factors having some relevance for leadership effectiveness.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

This study was designed to describe perceptions held for the leadership styles of principals in native schools in Saskatchewan. Research questions facilitated self-perceptions, subordinates' perceptions and superordinates' perceptions of principals' leadership styles. The study was further designed to describe the principals' leadership styles as they varied according to principals' training, experience, age and size of school.

The population comprised the entire population of principals, teachers and superintendents in the native school system in Saskatchewan. There were 216 principals, teachers and superintendents in the native school system in Saskatchewan, of which 136 (63%) responded. Twenty (14.7%) of the respondents' questionnaires were not useful or had to be discarded for several reasons, the most common being that respondents did not meet the minimum requirement of the study that they have at least one year in their present position. Also some questionnaires were incomplete.

In order to investigate the leadership styles of principals, Hersey and Blanchard's Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description Questionnaire was used. The demographic data sheet, which collected information on respondents' training, experience, age, size of school

and jurisdictional control was completed by principals, teachers and superintendents. The Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description Questionnaire consisted of two parts: (1) The Lead-Self and the Lead-Other. The Lead-Self collected perceptions from principals as to their own leadership styles, while the Lead-Other collected perceptions from subordinates and superordinates as to their principals' styles. This Questionnaire was based on Situational Leadership theory developed by Hersey and Blanchard (1982).

Due to the nature of the study and the small sample size, data presentation was purely descriptive, rather than parametric. Data presentation and analysis was expedited by means of simple frequency counts tabularized according to the instrument instructions.

The first six research questions addressed the main purpose of the study, which was to describe perceptions of the leadership styles of principals in the context of native schools in Saskatchewan. The majority of responding principals perceived themselves as having a predominant style of **Selling (S2)**, while most subordinates and superordinates perceived principals' predominant styles to be **Selling (S2)** and **Participating (S3)** respectively. In other words, principals and subordinates perceived themselves as employing a more structured approach to leadership, while principals were perceived by superordinates as utilizing a more democratic approach to leadership. Principals on average saw themselves as having a limited "style-range" and very rarely saw themselves as using styles of **Telling (S1)** or **Delegating (S4)**. Subordinates and superordinates were consistent in ascribing a wide "style-range" to principals. The majority of both subordinates and superordinates saw principals as having the potential to adapt their leadership styles and be flexible in meeting the needs of

subordinates and the demands of the situation.

Research questions 7-9 dealt with the leadership styles of principals and how they varied in terms of various categories of training, experience, age and size of school. According to principals' own perceptions, they saw principals with less professional training as having a more structured style than those principals with more professional training. Regardless of administrative experience, most principals saw themselves as having a limited "style-range." Subordinates perceived younger principals to be more democratic in their decision making process, while older principals were seen as more structured. In respect to size of school, superordinates generally perceived principals in smaller schools as having a more participative style, while principals in larger size schools were perceived as having a more structured style.

Conclusions

In this section the specific questions which guided this study will be listed followed by a brief description of the conclusions reached. This will be done in two parts: (i) the conclusions to research questions 1-6 (description of principals' leadership styles) and (ii) the conclusions to research questions 7-9 (principal's leadership styles and demographic variables).

Description of Principals' Leadership Styles

(1) What are the perceptions of principals as to their own leadership styles?

Responding principals predominantly perceived themselves as using a participative approach to leadership and rarely delegating any

responsibilities to their subordinates or closely supervising their performance. This particular approach tends to be effective with people of average levels of maturity, but can be ineffective with less mature work groups (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982, p. 251). From the evidence provided in the leader profile, the subordinate group appeared to be mature. However, the maturity level was not formally verified in this study and there were differences in perceptions as to the leadership styles of principals (with consequent variations in assumptions concerning the maturity levels of followers).

The study found that the principals saw themselves as having a limited "style-range." This has implications as to their potential to be flexible in adapting their styles to meet subordinates' needs. Apparently they did not see themselves as having this flexibility. Principals' self-perceived style profile was found to be S2 - S3 (**Selling** and **Participating**). Hersey and Blanchard found that these styles are excellent for working with moderately mature individuals. However, they suggested that if leaders with this profile are going to maximize their potential as leaders, they need to learn to use styles 1 and 4 (**Telling** and **Delegating**) when necessary (Hersey and Blanchard, 1977, p. 250). Therefore, in order for principals to increase their potential, it would seem that they must learn to use additional styles.

(2) What are the perceptions of subordinates as to the leadership styles of their principals?

The results indicated that subordinates perceived their principals as having a structured style [**Selling** (S2) and **Telling** (S2)] in addition to a wide "style-range." From the findings, subordinates seemed to indicate that their principals had the potential to be

flexible in their use of leadership styles. A wide "style-range," however, does not guarantee effectiveness, the leader has to be able to use the appropriate style in relation to the demands of the situation. Hersey and Blanchard supported this contention when they stated that "even if a leader has a wide 'style-range' or flexibility, this does not guarantee effectiveness unless the leader also has good diagnostic skills - that is the ability to use the appropriate style for a given situation" (Hersey and Blanchard, 1977, p. 259). The findings of the study seem, therefore, to point to a confidence on the part of subordinates in the diagnostic abilities of their principals to adapt their leadership styles to their subordinates.

(3) What are the perceptions of superordinates as to the leadership styles of principals under their jurisdiction?

Superordinates perceived principals under their jurisdiction as having a participative style [Participation (S3) and Selling (S2)]. Principals were also perceived by superordinates as having a wide "style-range." The wide "style-range" perceived by superordinates seems to emphasize again the need for diagnostic abilities on the part of principals if they are to be effective managers. Shein expressed it well when he contended that "the successful manager must be a good diagnostician and must value a spirit of enquiry" (Shein, 1965, p. 61).

(4) How do subordinates' perceptions compare with principals' self perceptions of the principals' leadership styles?

The findings indicated that subordinates perceived principals as having a structured approach (style profile S1 - S2) to leadership,

while principals perceived themselves to have a participative style of leadership. Principals were seen by subordinates as having a wide "style-range," while principals saw themselves as having a limited "style-range." Perceptions of these two groups differed in terms of predominant style and "style-range." These findings point to the possibilities concerning the negotiation of appropriate leadership styles. An example of some interesting results of this process occurred in an elementary school in Eastern Massachusetts. Problems were eliminated in this elementary school when the principal shared Situational Leadership Theory with the staff and then attempted to negotiate what the principals' leadership style should be with each of the teachers (Hersey and Blanchard, 1977, p. 221). This has come to be known as "contracting for leadership styles."

(5) How do superordinates' perceptions compare with principals' self-perceptions of principals' leadership styles?

Superordinates perceived their principals as having a participative style. This profile was similar to principals' own perceptions, except that the predominant and secondary styles were reversed for these two groups.

Superordinates saw principals as having a wide "style-range," while principals perceived themselves to have a limited "style-range." From this, one is inclined to believe that superordinates perceived their principals as having the potential to vary their leadership styles from a directive approach to a supportive approach, or a delegative approach. Given this wide "style-range," the diagnostic skills of the principals are important factors in leadership development. In light of the

importance of a leader's diagnostic skills and the importance of "style-range," the critical element in determining leader effectiveness seems to be style adaptability (Hersey and Blanchard, 1977, p. 236).

(6) How do subordinates' perceptions compare with superordinates' perceptions of principals' leadership styles?

Superordinates and subordinates perceived principals as having a wide "style-range." However, they differed in their perceptions of principals' predominant styles. Subordinates perceived principals to have directive style, while superordinates saw them as having a participative style. These differences in perceptions point once again to the need for clarification of, and contracting for, leadership styles of principals.

Hersey and Blanchard aptly summed up the concerns and benefits of "Contingency Contracting" for leadership.

As can be seen through this integration of Contingency Contracting with Situational Leadership Theory, the contracting process can be an effective means of establishing a relationship between a leader and follower in which the appropriate leadership style to be used with that follower can be determined. Some contracting process is an important step because problems could occur if managers learn Situational Leadership Theory and then go "back home" and begin to apply it without their subordinates having any knowledge of the theory of their intentions. Hersey and Blanchard, 1977, p. 218

Principals' Leadership Styles and Demographic Variables

(7) How do the principals' self perceptions of their own leadership styles vary according to their training, experience, age and size of school?

The results of the study indicated that the self-perceived predominant and secondary styles of principals did not vary markedly

according to principals' training, experience, age and size of school. There were, however, some variations of the predominant styles in relation to professional and post-graduate training, experience, years in present school and age of principals.

These findings in regard to demographic variables closely resembled the findings of other researchers which indicated that demographic variables do not significantly influence leadership styles. Gross and Herriott (1965) found no significant relationship between education, administration and principals' executive style (pp. 66-67). McGregor (1960) found little evidence of any substantial correlation between academic training and leadership effectiveness (p. 186). Blumberg and Greenfield (1980) found that post-graduate training in administration had little observable influence on principals (p. 256).

These results did have some implications for the continuing education and professional development of principals. Specifically, leadership style would seem to be a relevant and useful facet of any program of professional training for principals. The findings also indicated that principals perceived themselves as having a limited "style-range" regardless of type of demographic variable. This does have some implication for potential effectiveness, particularly if self-perception is any determinant of performance effectiveness as indicated in the social psychological literature (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982, pp. 234-235).

(8) How do subordinates' perceptions of principals' leadership styles vary according to their principals' training, experience, age and size of school?

The findings of the study indicated that subordinates perceived principals to have a wide "style-range." In addition perceptions of

predominant styles varied according to principals' training, experience, age and size of school.

These findings were not supported by the literature. Robbin's (1980) investigations into demographic relationships found that:

Leadership training is a popular way for organizations to prepare individuals for leadership positions. Hundreds of millions of dollars are poured into leadership training each year by organizations, yet research has failed to show that leadership training makes organizations more effective....

However, there is no evidence whatsoever that administrators can, or have ever been able to, successfully change their fundamental behavior. Further, the empirical evidence does not support the idea that by the acquisition of experience, leadership effectiveness is improved. (p. 330)

Gross and Herriott (1965) found that previous administrative experience in public education had no apparent relationship to professional leadership (p. 60). Halpin (1956) was concerned about the concept that professional training programs did not increase leadership effectiveness. He believed that training programs should bridge the gap between the theoretical and the practical application of administrative doctrine (p. 2). This would seem to imply that there is a need to understand the relationship between formal learning and informal learning.

(9) How do superordinates' perceptions of their principals' leadership styles vary according to their principals' training, experience, age and size of school?

This research found that according to superordinates' perceptions, the leadership styles of principals varied according to principals' training, experience, age and size of school. The predominant

Leadership styles were not perceived as varying according to administrative experience. This research found that according to superordinates' perceptions, the leadership styles of principals varied according to principals' training, experience, age and size of school.

Likert and Likert (1976) believed that leaders can learn to use leader behavior skills (p. 110). Hill (1972) asserted that leadership effectiveness skills could be learned, but that training programs were not enough.

A Capstone Competency which all managers need to acquire is the ability to accurately diagnose the situation in which they find themselves. This means that training designs must include opportunity for participants to evaluate their current situation in order for them to see the relevance of training - induced competencies back on the job. (p. 17)

Hill, like other authors (King, Streufort and Fiedler, 1978) seemed to be suggesting that training programs be designed in such a way as to develop the diagnostic skills of the trainee, and then must bridge the gap between theory and practical application.

The above comments seem to confirm the need for better diagnostic skills of leaders and the need for research in the application of theory to the practical world, i.e., the collaboration between formal training and informal training. This implies a co-operation between institutions of higher learning, and in-service or on-the-job training programs. Blumberg and Greenfield (1980) in their book, "The Effective Principal" cited several studies designed to increase principals' effectiveness and bridge the gap between theory and practice:

A major contribution of these programs, in addition to their ability for university professors and school districts involved in training and improving the performance of educational leaders, is their recognition of the complexity of the principalship, and the difficulties inherent in identifying competencies and developing staff development modules that are both relevant and effective. (p. 264)

Recommendations

Recommendations for Government

The results of this study should be of use to politicians, educational administrators and school committees faced with the problem of stronger local control of education. In view of the movement towards local control of native education, the uncertain management framework and lack of leadership in Indian education, this study recommends that:

- (1) The Hersey and Blanchard model of situational leadership be used as an assessment tool in the administration of native schools. The Situational Leadership Model provides leaders with a diagnostic procedure for assessing the maturity of followers regarding specific tasks, and a practical prescriptive tool for selecting the leadership style with the highest probability of success (Hersey and Goldsmith, 1980, p. 1).
- (2) Management by objectives as a management theory be employed with "Situational Leadership Model," since objectives are necessary for the assessment of maturity levels. According to Hersey and Hambleton (1977), management by objectives in most organizations, begins with an agreement on common goals for the entire organization. At this time, any changes needed in the organization's structure - for example, changes in title, duties, or span of control are made (p. 2).

- (3) Administrators, politicians and institutions of higher learning should get together to discuss and implement the necessary organizational changes in order to create improved leadership development for professionals and educators.

Recommendations for Superintendents

Based on the results of this study, it is recommended that:

- (1) The selection process of principals should be examined in order to determine if the selection criteria are relevant to this group of principals.
- (2) That provision be made for principals to upgrade their training in educational administration, especially as it relates to their diagnostic and assessment skills.

Recommendations for Principals

In view of the different perceptions of the principals' leadership styles and differences in perceived "style-range" of principals', it is recommended that:

- (1) Principals clarify and negotiate appropriate leadership styles with their teachers. This process is called "contracting for leadership styles." According to Hersey, Blanchard, Hambleton (1977),

Once a superior and subordinate have agreed upon and contracted certain goals and objectives for the subordinate and measures to evaluate goal accomplishment, the next logical step would be a negotiation and agreement about the appropriate leadership style that the superior should use in helping subordinate accomplish each of the objectives. (p. 8)

- (2) Principals and teachers get together to set goals and professional objectives for themselves and their schools.
- (3) Principals assess the maturity levels of teachers in order to determine their willingness and ability to direct their own performance.
- (4) Principals should share Situational Leadership theory and process with teachers, as a possible focus for in-service professional development activities.

Recommendations for Institutions of Higher Learning

The findings of this study indicated that many principals were lacking in administrative training, and questions were raised as to the relevance of administrative training to actual on-the-job performance, therefore, it is recommended that:

- (1) Institutions of higher learning collaborate with school administrators in developing an in-service training program for school principals and administrators. Blumberg and Greenfield (1980) suggested that, in training and selection of principals, both formal and informal learning should be taken into consideration (p. 260).
- (2) Institutions of higher learning and school administrators investigate alternatives with the intention of making programs more relevant to the needs of teachers and principals in the native school system. Specifically Hersey and Blanchard would advocate that this group of principals and teachers would benefit from training programs designed to develop skills associated with negotiation for leadership styles and management by objectives.

- (3) Institutions of higher learning and native educators develop an internship program for principals. According to Blumberg and Greenfield (1980), "The very informal learning that has accrued as a result of experience in former roles and settings is often ignored. This sort of previous informal learning is critical and should not be overlooked. Teachers, while active in the teaching role, unwittingly accrue both useful and inappropriate conceptions of the principalship (pp. 259-260).

Recommendations for Research

Toward a greater appreciation of the importance of the principals' leadership styles and their contribution to the overall effectiveness of education, the following are recommended as worthy of further research in native education in Saskatchewan:

- (a) principals' style adaptability and flexibility.
- (b) principals' effectiveness as leaders.
- (c) the relevance of principals' administrative training to the principals' role.
- (d) A further investigation of principals' leadership styles should be conducted, in relation to the principals' demographic variables of training, experience, age and size of school. There seem to be some inconsistencies in the literature. Walker (1976), Prachoom (1976), Hansen (1971) and Holsclaw (1967) found that the "older" more experienced administrators were perceived by their subordinates as being less effective than "middle-aged" administrators. In 1970, Reddin postulated that age and experience were components of diagnostic acuity (p. 139) and therefore a relationship between demographic data and leadership effectiveness did exist.

- (e) Similar studies on leadership styles be conducted on other groups of principals in Saskatchewan to facilitate comparisons among groups of principals in varying context.
- (f) Further investigation of the contexts of native schools in regard to such factors as mobility, employment uncertainty, turnover rates, etc. The above comment suggests that the context of native schools provides a set of unique factors not found in other settings which may have some influence on perceptions of the leadership styles which principals use. This may provide a basis for comparison between principals in native school systems and principals in other school settings.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Measuring Instrument

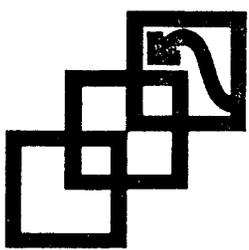
LEAD-SELF

LEAD Self

Developed by Paul Hersey and Kenneth H. Blanchard

Directions:

Assume YOU are involved in each of the following twelve situations. Each situation has four alternative actions you might initiate. READ each item carefully. THINK about what YOU would do in each circumstance. Then CIRCLE the letter of the alternative action choice which you think would most closely describe YOUR behavior in the situation presented. Circle only *one choice*.



Leader
Effectiveness &
Adaptability
Description

Leader Effectiveness & Adaptability Description

<p>SITUATION</p> <p>1 Your subordinates are not responding lately to your friendly conversation and obvious concern for their welfare. Their performance is declining rapidly.</p>	<p>ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS</p> <p>A. Emphasize the use of uniform procedures and the necessity for task accomplishment.</p> <p>B. Make yourself available for discussion but don't push your involvement.</p> <p>C. Talk with subordinates and then set goals.</p> <p>D. Intentionally do not intervene.</p>
<p>SITUATION</p> <p>2 The observable performance of your group is increasing. You have been making sure that all members were aware of their responsibilities and expected standards of performance.</p>	<p>ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS</p> <p>A. Engage in friendly interaction, but continue to make sure that all members are aware of their responsibilities and expected standards of performance.</p> <p>B. Take no definite action.</p> <p>C. Do what you can to make the group feel important and involved.</p> <p>D. Emphasize the importance of deadlines and tasks.</p>
<p>SITUATION</p> <p>3 Members of your group are unable to solve a problem themselves. You have normally left them alone. Group performance and interpersonal relations have been good.</p>	<p>ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS</p> <p>A. Work with the group and together engage in problem-solving.</p> <p>B. Let the group work it out.</p> <p>C. Act quickly and firmly to correct and redirect.</p> <p>D. Encourage group to work on problem and be supportive of their efforts.</p>
<p>SITUATION</p> <p>4 You are considering a change. Your subordinates have a fine record of accomplishment. They respect the need for change.</p>	<p>ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS</p> <p>A. Allow group involvement in developing the change, but don't be too directive.</p> <p>B. Announce changes and then implement with close supervision.</p> <p>C. Allow group to formulate its own direction.</p> <p>D. Incorporate group recommendations, but you direct the change.</p>
<p>SITUATION</p> <p>5 The performance of your group has been dropping during the last few months. Members have been unconcerned with meeting objectives. Redefining roles and responsibilities has helped in the past. They have continually needed reminding to have their tasks done on time.</p>	<p>ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS</p> <p>A. Allow group to formulate its own direction.</p> <p>B. Incorporate group recommendations, but see that objectives are met.</p> <p>C. Redefine roles and responsibilities and supervise carefully.</p> <p>D. Allow group involvement in determining roles and responsibilities but don't be too directive.</p>
<p>SITUATION</p> <p>6 You stepped into an efficiently run organization. The previous administrator tightly controlled the situation. You want to maintain a productive situation, but would like to begin humanizing the environment.</p>	<p>ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS</p> <p>A. Do what you can to make group feel important and involved.</p> <p>B. Emphasize the importance of deadlines and tasks.</p> <p>C. Intentionally do not intervene.</p> <p>D. Get group involved in decision-making, but see that objectives are met.</p>

SITUATION**7**

You are considering changing to a structure that will be new to your group. Members of the group have made suggestions about needed change. The group has been productive and demonstrated flexibility in its operations.

ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS

- A. Define the change and supervise carefully.
- B. Participate with the group in developing the change but allow members to organize the implementation.
- C. Be willing to make changes as recommended, but maintain control of implementation.
- D. Avoid confrontation; leave things alone.

SITUATION**8**

Group performance and interpersonal relations are good. You feel somewhat unsure about your lack of direction of the group.

ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS

- A. Leave the group alone.
- B. Discuss the situation with the group and then you initiate necessary changes.
- C. Take steps to direct subordinates toward working in a well-defined manner.
- D. Be supportive in discussing the situation with the group but not too directive.

SITUATION**9**

Your superior has appointed you to head a task force that is far overdue in making requested recommendations for change. The group is not clear on its goals. Attendance at sessions has been poor. Their meetings have turned into social gatherings. Potentially they have the talent necessary to help.

ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS

- A. Let the group work out its problems.
- B. Incorporate group recommendations, but see that objectives are met.
- C. Redefine goals and supervise carefully.
- D. Allow group involvement in setting goals, but don't push.

SITUATION**10**

Your subordinates, usually able to take responsibility, are not responding to your recent redefining of standards.

ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS

- A. Allow group involvement in redefining standards, but don't take control.
- B. Redefine standards and supervise carefully.
- C. Avoid confrontation by not applying pressure; leave situation alone.
- D. Incorporate group recommendations, but see that new standards are met.

SITUATION**11**

You have been promoted to a new position. The previous supervisor was uninvolved in the affairs of the group. The group has adequately handled its tasks and direction. Group inter-relations are good.

ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS

- A. Take steps to direct subordinates toward working in a well-defined manner.
- B. Involve subordinates in decision-making and reinforce good contributions.
- C. Discuss past performance with group and then you examine the need for new practices.
- D. Continue to leave group alone.

SITUATION**12**

Recent information indicates some internal difficulties among subordinates. The group has a remarkable record of accomplishment. Members have effectively maintained long-range goals. They have worked in harmony for the past year. All are well qualified for the task.

ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS

- A. Try out your solution with subordinates and examine the need for new practices.
- B. Allow group members to work it out themselves.
- C. Act quickly and firmly to correct and redirect.
- D. Participate in problem discussion while providing support for subordinates.

Address inquiries or orders to one of the following:

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Challenge House
45-47 Victoria Street
Mansfield Notts NG8 5SU
England
0623 640-203

Learning Resources Corporation
P.O. Box 26240
San Diego, California 92126
(714) 454-3193

LEAD-OTHER

LEADER'S SUPERIOR
 ASSOCIATE
 SUBORDINATE

LEAD Other

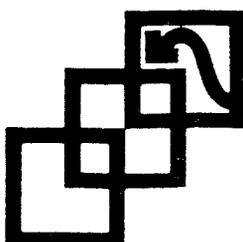
PERCEPTIONS BY OTHERS (LEADERSHIP STYLE)

Developed by Paul Hersey and Kenneth H. Blanchard

Directions:

Assume _____
 (name of leader)

is involved in each of the following twelve situations. Each situation has four alternative actions this leader might initiate. READ each item carefully. THINK about what this PERSON would do in each circumstance. The CIRCLE the letter of the alternative action choice which you think would most closely describe the behavior of THIS LEADER in the situation presented, based upon your experience. Circle only *one* choice.



Leader
Effectiveness &
Adaptability
Description

Leader Effectiveness & Adaptability Description

<p>SITUATION</p> <p>1 Subordinates are not responding lately to this leader's friendly conversation and obvious concern for their welfare. Their performance is declining rapidly.</p>	<p>ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS</p> <p><i>This leader would . . .</i></p> <p>A. emphasize the use of uniform procedures and the necessity for task accomplishment.</p> <p>B. be available for discussion but would not push involvement.</p> <p>C. talk with subordinates and then set goals.</p> <p>D. intentionally not intervene.</p>
<p>SITUATION</p> <p>2 The observable performance of this leader's group is increasing. The leader has been making sure that all members were aware of their responsibilities and expected standards of performance.</p>	<p>ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS</p> <p><i>This leader would . . .</i></p> <p>A. engage in friendly interaction, but continue to make sure all members are aware of their responsibilities and expect standards of performance.</p> <p>B. take no definite action.</p> <p>C. do what can be done to make the group feel important and involved.</p> <p>D. emphasize the importance of deadlines and tasks.</p>
<p>SITUATION</p> <p>3 This leader's group is unable to solve a problem. The leader has normally left the group alone. Group performance and interpersonal relations have been good.</p>	<p>ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS</p> <p><i>This leader would . . .</i></p> <p>A. work with the group and together engage in problem-solving.</p> <p>B. let the group work it out.</p> <p>C. act quickly and firmly to correct and redirect.</p> <p>D. encourage the group to work on the problem and be supportive of their efforts.</p>
<p>SITUATION</p> <p>4 This leader is considering a change. The leader's subordinates have a fine record of accomplishment. They respect the need for change.</p>	<p>ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS</p> <p><i>This leader would . . .</i></p> <p>A. allow group involvement in developing the change, but would not be too directive.</p> <p>B. announce changes and then implement with close supervision.</p> <p>C. allow the group to formulate its own direction.</p> <p>D. incorporate group recommendations but direct the change.</p>
<p>SITUATION</p> <p>5 The performance of this leader's group has been dropping during the last few months. Members have been unconcerned with meeting objectives. Redefining roles and responsibilities has helped in the past. They have continually needed reminding to have their tasks done on time.</p>	<p>ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS</p> <p><i>This leader would . . .</i></p> <p>A. allow the group to formulate its own direction.</p> <p>B. incorporate group recommendations, but see that objectives are met.</p> <p>C. redefine roles and responsibilities and supervise carefully.</p> <p>D. allow group involvement in determining roles and responsibilities, but would not be too directive.</p>
<p>SITUATION</p> <p>6 This leader stepped into an efficiently run organization. The previous administrator tightly controlled the situation. The leader wants to maintain a productive situation, but would like to begin humanizing the environment.</p>	<p>ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS</p> <p><i>This leader would . . .</i></p> <p>A. do what could be done to make group feel important and involved.</p> <p>B. emphasize the importance of deadlines and tasks</p> <p>C. intentionally not intervene.</p> <p>D. get the group involved in decision-making, but see that objectives are met.</p>

<p style="text-align: center;">SITUATION</p> <p>7 This leader is considering changing to a structure that will be new to the group. Members of the group have made suggestions about needed change. The group has been productive and demonstrated flexibility in its operations.</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS</p> <p><i>This leader would . . .</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> A. define the change and supervise carefully. B. participate with the group in developing the change but allow members to organize the implementation. C. be willing to make changes as recommended, but maintain control of implementation. D. avoid confrontation; leave things alone.
<p style="text-align: center;">SITUATION</p> <p>8 Group performance and interpersonal relations are good. This leader feels somewhat unsure about providing little direction for the group.</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS</p> <p><i>This leader would . . .</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> A. leave the group alone. B. discuss the situation with the group and then would initiate necessary changes. C. take steps to direct subordinates toward working in a well-defined manner. D. be supportive in discussing the situation with the group but not too directive.
<p style="text-align: center;">SITUATION</p> <p>9 This leader has been appointed by a superior to head a task force that is far overdue in making requested recommendations for change. The group is not clear on its goals. Attendance at sessions has been poor. Their meetings have turned into social gatherings. Potentially they have the talent necessary to help.</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS</p> <p><i>This leader would . . .</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> A. let the group work out its problems. B. incorporate group recommendations, but see that objectives are met. C. redefine goals and supervise carefully. D. allow group involvement in setting goals, but would not push.
<p style="text-align: center;">SITUATION</p> <p>10 Subordinates, usually able to take responsibility, are not responding to the leader's recent redefining of standards.</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS</p> <p><i>This leader would . . .</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> A. allow group involvement in redefining standards, but would not take control. B. redefine standards and supervise carefully. C. avoid confrontation by not applying pressure; leave situation alone. D. incorporate group recommendations, but see that new standards are met.
<p style="text-align: center;">SITUATION</p> <p>11 This leader has been promoted to a new position. The previous manager was uninvolved in the affairs of the group. The group has adequately handled its tasks and direction. Group interrelations are good.</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS</p> <p><i>This leader would . . .</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> A. take steps to direct subordinates toward working in a well-defined manner. B. involve subordinates in decision-making and reinforce good contributions. C. discuss past performance with group and then examine the need for new practices. D. continue to leave the group alone.
<p style="text-align: center;">SITUATION</p> <p>12 Recent information indicates some internal difficulties among subordinates. The group has a remarkable record of accomplishment. Members have effectively maintained long-range goals. They have worked in harmony for the past year. All are well qualified for the task.</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS</p> <p><i>This leader would . . .</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> A. try out a solution with subordinates and examine the need for new practices. B. allow group members to work it out themselves. C. act quickly and firmly to correct and redirect. D. participate in problem discussion while providing support for subordinates.

Address inquiries or orders to one of the following:

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San Diego, California 92126
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APPENDIX B

Letters of Support



UNIVERSITY OF SASKATCHEWAN

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL

ADMINISTRATION

306-966-7619

SASKATOON, CANADA

S7N 0W0

14 June, 1984

Mr. Merv Buckle
 Acting Director of Education
 Dept. of Indian and Northern Affairs
 2221 Cornwall Street
 Regina, Saskatchewan
 S4P 2L1

Dear Mr. Buckle:

In Saskatchewan, as in most parts of the world, there is increasing emphasis on the role of the school principal. In fact, much of the recent literature on school effectiveness identifies strong leadership at the school level as a major factor in determining how successful a school shall be. Some interesting and useful means have recently been devised for the description of leadership styles of school administrators. These have been found useful in helping school principals with staff and students.

Mr. John Sealy, one of our graduate students has designed a study to gain information on leadership styles of school principals. The study has some considerable potential for school improvement. His study has the support of his advisors, yet the work cannot be done without your assistance.

Consequently, I am writing to request your support by way of permission for Mr. Sealy to approach administrators in selected schools under your jurisdiction. I would recommend this individual highly. His research is well planned and, potentially, extremely valuable to school administrators.

Sincerely,

Dr. Pat Renihan, Professor
 Department of Educational
 Administration

PR:ps
 cc Mr. Hank Kolakowski
 cc Mr. John Sealy



July 3, 1984

Dr. Pat Renihan, Professor
Department of Educational Administration
University of Saskatchewan
College of Education
Saskatoon, Saskatchewan
S7N 0W0

Your file *Votre référence*

Our file *Notre référence*

Re: Leadership Study

I have met with Mr. Sealy and I support his study to gain information on leadership styles of school principals. I hereby give permission to Mr. Sealy to approach education administrators in Indian Affairs. By copy of this letter I am notifying our District Superintendents of Education of this project. I am sure that he will receive co-operation from our Superintendents re: this survey. Also, I hope that we can receive a copy of the completed report and perhaps an appearance by Mr. Sealy at one of our Professional Development workshops for principals to discuss his findings. We are pleased to participate in this study and trust it will be successful.

Merv Buckle
A/Director of Education
Saskatchewan Region
2221 Cornwall Street
Regina, Saskatchewan S4P 2L1

c.c. All D.S.E.'s
Hank Kolakowski

APPENDIX C

Instrumental Scoring Matrix

		(Style-Range) Alternative Actions			
		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
S I T U A T I O N S	1	A	C	B	B
	2	D	A	D	B
	3	C	A	D	B
	4	B	D	A	C
	5	C	B	D	A
	6	B	D	A	C
	7	A	C	B	D
	8	C	B	D	A
	9	C	B	D	A
	10	B	D	A	C
	11	A	C	B	D
	12	C	A	D	B
Subcolumns		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)

FIGURE 1

DETERMINING LEADERSHIP STYLE AND STYLE-RANGE
(Hersey & Blanchard, 1973, p. 1)

APPENDIX D

Tri-Dimensional Leader Effectiveness Model

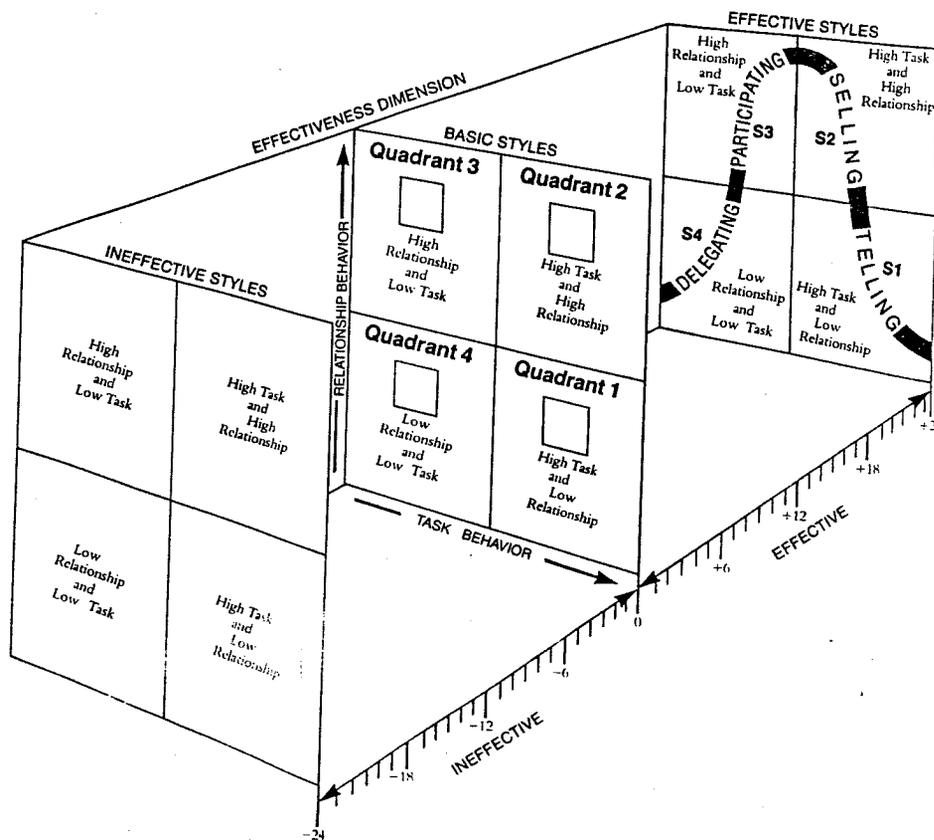


FIGURE 2

TRI-DIMENSIONAL LEADER EFFECTIVENESS MODEL
 (Hersey & Blanchard, 1973, p. 2)

APPENDIX E

Demographic Data Sheets

GENERAL INFORMATIONInstructions:

Please fill out the two questionnaires if you have been in this system for a year or more. In filling out the questionnaire, please use the position and the district or school you were in last year. Make sure you indicate the school on both questionnaires.

I What was your position?

- (1) Principal
 (2) Vice-Principal
 (3) Teacher

II Name of School _____

III Was the school

- (1) Band controlled?
 (2) Government controlled?

IV What is the size of your school?

- (1) Less than 50 pupils
 (2) 50 - 99 pupils
 (3) 100 - 199 pupils
 (4) 200 - 499 pupils
 (5) 500 - 1000 pupils

V How many of years have you been in this school?

- (1) one year
 (2) 2 - 3 years
 (3) 4 - 5 years
 (4) more than 5 years

VI What is your age?

- (1) Less than 24 years
 (2) 25 - 34 years
 (3) 35 - 44 years
 (4) 45 - 55 years
 (5) 55 years and over

VII How many years of training are you credited with for salary purposes?

- | | |
|--|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> (1) one year | <input type="checkbox"/> (4) four years |
| <input type="checkbox"/> (2) two years | <input type="checkbox"/> (5) five years |
| <input type="checkbox"/> (3) three years | <input type="checkbox"/> (6) six years or more |

VIII If you were a school principal last year:

A. How many years have you been involved in Educational Administration at the school level?

- | | |
|--|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> (1) one - two years | <input type="checkbox"/> (3) 5 - 6 years |
| <input type="checkbox"/> (2) 3 - 4 years | <input type="checkbox"/> (4) over 6 years |

B. What specific Post-Graduate training have you had in administration?

List degrees, certificates, diplomas, etc.

GENERAL INFORMATIONInstructions:

Please fill out the two questionnaires if you have been in this system for a year or more. In filling out the questionnaire, please use the position and the district or school you were in last year. Make sure you indicate the school on both questionnaires.

I What was your position last year?

- (1) Superintendent
 (2) District supervisor

II Name of schools you supervise _____

- (a) Band controlled
 (b) Government controlled
 (c) Both

III What is your age?

- (1) Less than 24
 (2) 25 - 34
 (3) 35 - 44
 (4) 45 - 55
 (5) 55 and over.

IV How many years of training have you been credited with for salary purposes?

- (1) one year
 (2) two years
 (3) three years
 (4) four years
 (5) five years
 (6) six or more years.

APPENDIX F

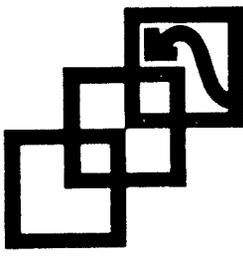
LEAD Profile

LEAD Profile

Developed by Paul Hersey and Kenneth H. Blanchard

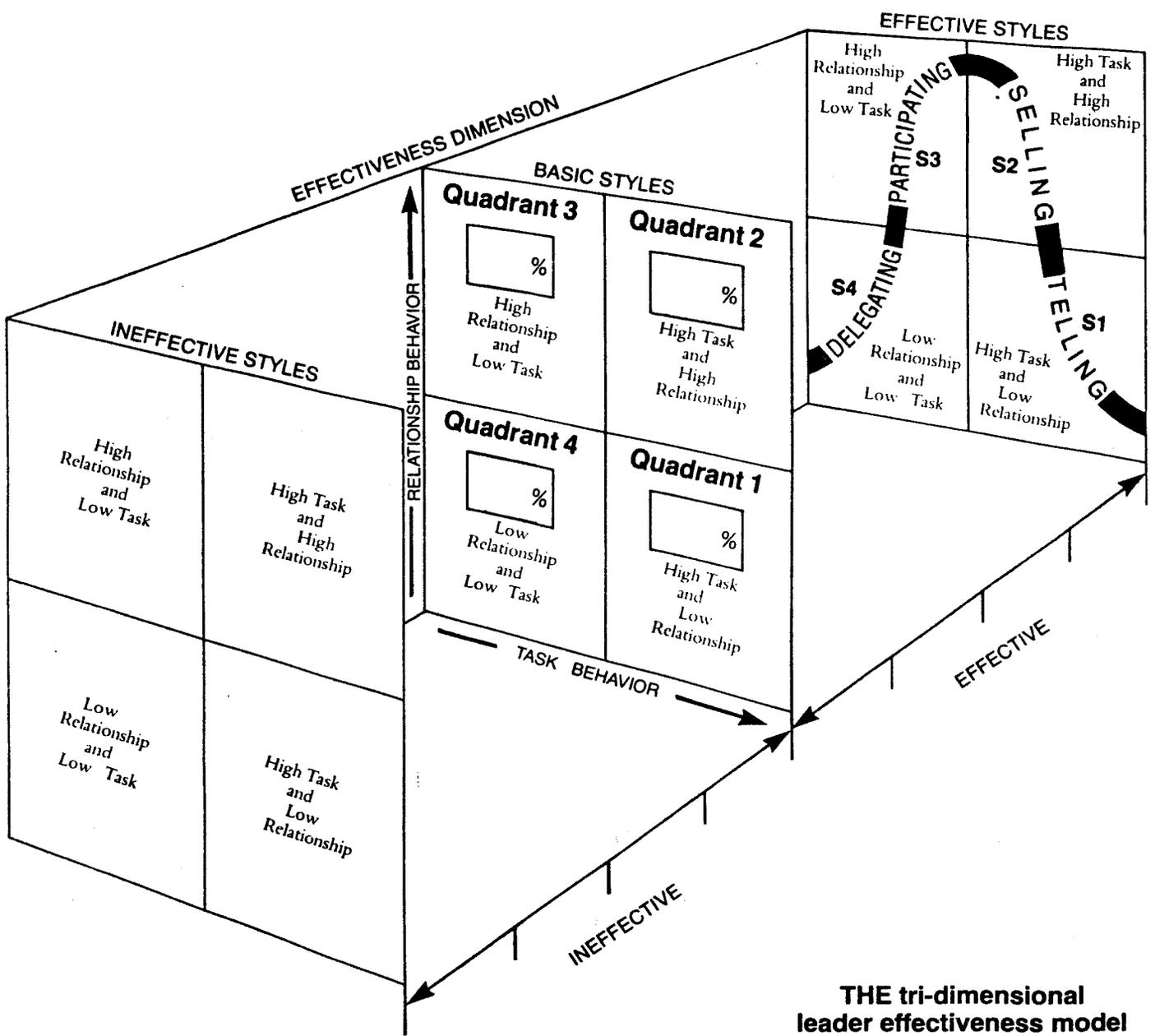
LEAD Data Profile for

(Name of leader)



Lead
Effectiveness &
Adaptability
Description

KEY: Data expressed as percentages



THE tri-dimensional leader effectiveness model

For a detailed discussion of this model see Paul Hersey and Kenneth H. Blanchard, **MANAGEMENT OF ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR: UTILIZING HUMAN RESOURCES**, Prentice Hall, Inc.

KEY: Data expressed as number of responses

**SUPERIOR
STYLE**

RELATIONSHIP BEHAVIOR ↑	High Relationship and Low Task	High Task and High Relationship
	Low Relationship and Low Task	High Task and Low Relationship
	TASK BEHAVIOR →	

**ASSOCIATE
STYLE**

RELATIONSHIP BEHAVIOR ↑	High Relationship and Low Task	High Task and High Relationship
	Low Relationship and Low Task	High Task and Low Relationship
	TASK BEHAVIOR →	

**SELF
STYLE**

RELATIONSHIP BEHAVIOR ↑	High Relationship and Low Task	High Task and High Relationship
	Low Relationship and Low Task	High Task and Low Relationship
	TASK BEHAVIOR →	

**ASSOCIATE
STYLE**

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	Low Relationship and Low Task	High Task and Low Relationship
	TASK BEHAVIOR →	

SUBORDINATES

STYLE

RELATIONSHIP BEHAVIOR ↑	High Relationship and Low Task	High Task and High Relationship
	Low Relationship and Low Task	High Task and Low Relationship
	TASK BEHAVIOR →	

STYLE

RELATIONSHIP BEHAVIOR ↑	High Relationship and Low Task	High Task and High Relationship
	Low Relationship and Low Task	High Task and Low Relationship
	TASK BEHAVIOR →	

STYLE

RELATIONSHIP BEHAVIOR ↑	High Relationship and Low Task	High Task and High Relationship
	Low Relationship and Low Task	High Task and Low Relationship
	TASK BEHAVIOR →	

STYLE

RELATIONSHIP BEHAVIOR ↑	High Relationship and Low Task	High Task and High Relationship
	Low Relationship and Low Task	High Task and Low Relationship
	TASK BEHAVIOR →	

STYLE

RELATIONSHIP BEHAVIOR ↑	High Relationship and Low Task	High Task and High Relationship
	Low Relationship and Low Task	High Task and Low Relationship
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APPENDIX G

Correspondence Initiated by the Researcher



UNIVERSITY OF SASKATCHEWAN

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION

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ADMINISTRATION
306-343-5498SASKATOON, CANADA
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LEADERSHIP PROJECT

I am a graduate student in Continuing Education at the University of Saskatchewan. I wish to solicit your assistance in gathering data for my thesis entitled "Leadership Behaviour of Principals in Native Schools". This study is accepted and endorsed by my thesis committee and the Department of Indian Affairs.

This study is a response to a need for more information on the leadership style and role of school principals. Information from this study will be helpful to principals in assessing and improving their relationship with staff and students.

The research entails collecting data by means of a questionnaire from superintendents, principals, vice-principals and teachers. The study will be distributed on a wide basis so that as many people as possible will profit from the findings.

Please fill out the questionnaire and return it to me in the envelope provided. It should take ten minutes of your time to complete. Please do not put your name on the questionnaire. Only the name of the school is required. All responses are strictly confidential and anonymity in the analyses of the data and the report of the findings is assured.

Thank you for your consideration and assistance.

Yours truly,

A handwritten signature in cursive script that reads "Jonathan Sealy".
Jonathan Sealy

JS:ij
Enclosures