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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEADERSHIP STYLES OF
GEORGIA ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS AND
SELECTED BIOGRAPHIC AND DEMOGRAPHIC
VARIABLES

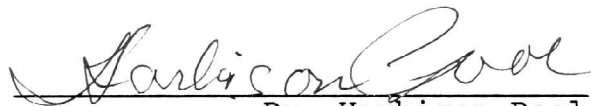
Cynthia Cahill LoMonaco



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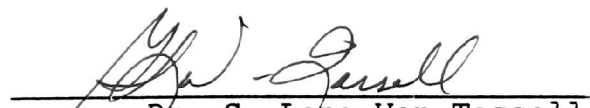
To the Graduate College:

This dissertation entitled The Relationship Between Leadership Styles of Georgia Elementary School Principals and Selected Biographic and Demographic Variables and written by Cynthia Cahill LoMonaco is presented to the College of Graduate Studies of Georgia Southern University. I recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education with a major in Educational Administration.



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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEADERSHIP STYLES OF
GEORGIA ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS AND
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A Dissertation
Presented to
the College of Graduate Studies of
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In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Education
in
Educational Administration

by
Cynthia Cahill LoMonaco

August 1996

Abstract

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE LEADERSHIP STYLES OF GEORGIA ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS AND SELECTED BIOGRAPHIC AND DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES

Cynthia Cahill LoMonaco

Research has shown that differences exist among leadership styles of school principals. These differences may be associated with selected biographic and demographic variables. This study surveyed principals of 243 Georgia public elementary schools to determine their leadership styles, based on the constructs of Structure and Consideration, and examine their biographic characteristics and the demographic characteristics of the schools they serve. Once leadership styles were identified, based on Structure and Consideration, relationships between the independent variables and the dependent variables were examined. Independent variables included: sex, age, ethnicity, marital status, administrative experience, teaching experience, educational level, school setting, school size, and regional area of the state. Dependent variables were the two dimensions used to describe leadership style, Consideration and Structure. Subjects were selected through random sampling of the 1309 Georgia elementary school principals listed in the 1995

Georgia Public Education Directory. The Leadership Opinion Questionnaire (LOQ), developed by E.A. Fleishman in 1960, revised in 1969; and the Georgia Elementary School Principal Questionnaire (GESPO), designed by the researcher, were mailed to 400 randomly selected principals. The number of respondents was 243. Descriptive statistics were examined for all variables. The Pearson's r correlation coefficient was used to determine relationships at the .05 level of significance between the independent, continuous variables and the LOQ Structure and Consideration scores. The one-way analysis of variance with Scheffé's post-hoc analysis, when indicated, were utilized to determine any significant differences at the .05 level in group means of the independent, categorical variables with regard to the LOQ Structure and Consideration scores. Results indicated that the 243 Georgia elementary school principals in the sample group scored higher on Consideration than on Structure. Their preference toward Consideration suggested these principals emphasized relationships and interaction. It was discovered that the more years one had been a principal, the lower score he or she obtained on Structure and Consideration. It was also determined that the more years a principal had taught, the higher he or she scored on Consideration. A significant difference in Structure group means was found among ethnicities, which revealed African-American principals who participated in the study scored higher on Structure than white principals. Another significant difference in Structure

group means existed among respondents from the four regional areas of the state, which indicated elementary school principals in South Georgia scored higher on Structure than those in North Georgia. A profile of the Georgia elementary school principal was developed from the biographic and demographic data collected. The researcher found that the typical elementary school principal in Georgia has served as a principal for 9 years, an assistant principal 4 years, and a teacher for 11 years; this individual is a 48-year old, married, white female who holds an Ed.S. degree. The average elementary school site in Georgia has a population of 600 students. More schools are situated in suburban and rural areas than in urban areas. Over one-third of the schools included in the study were in the Atlanta Metro area and the second largest number were located in South Georgia.

Dedicated to

My Lord

who gave me the strength to complete the task.

My wonderful husband, Rudy,

who constantly demonstrated his caring, understanding, helpfulness, and support; but most of all his love, throughout this endeavor. He provided the inspiration that kept me going.

My sisters, mom, and dad

who expressed their confidence in me to succeed and gave me "pep talks" when I needed them. I am especially grateful for my family's understanding of sacrifices that had to be made to make this goal a reality. Thanks to my nephew and my nieces for helping me keep things in proper perspective.

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Acknowledgements

It is with immense appreciation I recognize my committee members, who each played a different, but important, role in the completion of my dissertation. Thank you for your time, support, and advisement.

Dr. Harbison Pool, my committee chairperson, who is a "perfectionist." His attention to detail proved to be invaluable.

Dr. Cordelia Douzenis, my research professor, who was a "bridge over troubled water." Her direct way of communicating was extremely beneficial to me in writing Chapters III and IV.

Dr. James Stephens, who was the "thought-provoker." He helped keep me focused on the essence of the study. References he recommended were very helpful with writing Chapter II.

A very special thank you to Dr. Michael Richardson, who was the "encourager." He believed in me and always let me know it. His advice was a great asset throughout this venture.

I would also like to thank my Georgia Southern doctoral cohort for their support and empathy, especially Lynn and Troy for being there when I needed them most.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
TITLE PAGE.....	i
ABSTRACT.....	ii
DEDICATION.....	v
VITA.....	vi
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	vii
LIST OF TABLES.....	xi
 CHAPTER	
I. INTRODUCTION.....	1
Statement of the Problem.....	5
Purpose of the Study.....	6
Importance of the Study.....	6
Assumptions of the Study.....	8
Research Questions.....	8
Procedures.....	9
Limitations of the Study.....	10
Definition of Terms.....	11
 II. REVIEW OF RESEARCH AND RELATED LITERATURE.....	 14
Introduction.....	14
An Examination of Selected	
Leadership Studies.....	15
Constructs of Leadership.....	15
Leadership Defined.....	18
Leadership Theories.....	26
Leadership Styles.....	36
Principal Leadership Styles.....	43
Personal Characteristics of Leaders...	51
Leadership Style as It Relates to	
Biographic Characteristics.....	61
Leadership Style and Sex.....	61
Leadership Style and Age.....	71

Table of Contents (continued)

	Page
Leadership Style and Ethnicity.....	72
Leadership Style and Marital Status...	75
Leadership Style and Educational Background.....	76
Leadership Style and Experiential Background.....	77
Leadership Style as It Relates to Demographic Qualities.....	79
Leadership Style and School Setting.....	79
Leadership Style and School Size.....	80
Leadership Style and State Regional Area of the School.....	82
The Leadership Opinion Questionnaire.....	82
Summary.....	84
III. METHODOLOGY.....	86
Introduction.....	86
Research Questions.....	86
Subjects.....	87
Design.....	88
Instruments.....	89
Data Collection.....	93
Data Analysis.....	94
IV. REPORT OF DATA AND DATA ANALYSIS.....	96
Introduction.....	96
Description of Sample.....	96
Analysis of Leadership Styles.....	100
Correlational Analysis.....	101
Comparison of Means.....	105
A Profile of the Georgia Elementary School Principal.....	107
Summary.....	108
V. SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS.....	111
Summary.....	111
Conclusions.....	112
Discussion of Research Findings.....	114
Comparative Profiles of Elementary School Principals.....	118
Implications.....	122
Recommendations.....	123

Table of Contents (continued)

	Page
REFERENCES.....	125
APPENDICES.....	142
A. Leadership Opinion Questionnaire.....	143
B. Georgia Elementary School Principal Questionnaire.....	147
C. Questionnaire Cover Letter.....	149
D. Entry Form for Drawing.....	151
E. Questionnaire Follow-Up Letter.....	153
F. Institutional Review Board Approval Form...	155

LIST OF TABLES

Table		Page
1.	Descriptive Statistics for Categorical Variables Concerning Georgia Elementary School Principals.....	98
2.	Descriptive Statistics for Continuous Variables Concerning Georgia Elementary School Principals.....	99
3.	Descriptive Information for the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire Measuring Leadership Styles of Georgia Elementary School Principals.....	100
4.	Score Ranges and Percentages for the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire Measuring Leadership Styles of Georgia Elementary School Principals	102
5.	Pearson Correlation Matrix of Leadership Opinion Questionnaire and Continuous Variables Concerning Georgia Elementary School Principals.....	103
6.	Means and Standard Deviations for Leadership Opinion Questionnaire Scores for Georgia Elementary School Principals by Variable.....	106

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Current emphasis on the principal's accountability for school improvement has resulted in researchers examining personal characteristics and behaviors of principals. During the past four decades, principal behaviors have been described and theories of leadership and leadership style have been developed (Blake & Mouton, 1982; Bolman & Deal, 1991; Burns, 1978; Cuban, 1986; Evans & Teddlie, 1993; Fiedler, 1967; Fullan, 1993; Hersey & Blanchard, 1977; Howes, 1993; Leithwood, Begley, & Cousins, 1990; Likert, 1961; Murphy, 1994; Sergiovanni, 1987; Stogdill, 1974; Tannenbaum & Schmidt, 1973). Patterns of behavior which principals use could be described as leadership strategies or leadership styles (Hall, 1984; Murphy & Louis, 1994). Mitchell (1990) suggested that principal behaviors could be used to benefit and guide school improvement efforts. He stated that

leadership style is an identifiable and consistent property, a characteristic that makes individuals recognizably consistent from one situation to the next.

. . . They display patterns of action and belief that are uniform over time and make it possible to understand, if

not always predict, common themes in their responses to common organizational problems and opportunities.

(pp. 3-4)

Recently, the principalship has been widely recognized as involving a complicated, holistic, interconnected set of behaviors and processes (Hallinger, Bickman, & Davis, 1990). Evans and Teddlie (1993) found that contextual differences related to principals' leadership styles do exist and do result in implications for school improvement models.

Rallis (1988) said the proper mix of administrative pressure and support from principals was necessary to help teachers develop a commitment to continuous improvement. According to Levine and Ornstein (1993), some schools became more successful once a new principal came on board and used his or her leadership style to change the existing organizational structure and patterns. In addition, Levine and Ornstein reported that most research agreed that the school administrator was the key figure in school change.

Two constructs of leadership, originally identified in the Ohio State University leadership studies, were Structure and Consideration (Fleishman, 1953; Halpin 1958; Hemphill, 1955; Shartle, 1956; Stodgill & Coons, 1957). Consideration was described as the job relationships an individual has with those he or she supervises (Fleishman, 1989). According to Fleishman, Consideration may be characterized by trust, respect, good rapport, and two-way communication. Fleishman (1989) described Structure as the way an individual defined

his or her role as leader and the roles of those he or she supervises in an effort to achieve goals. According to Fleishman, Structure is demonstrated by how active a role the leader takes in supervising subordinates in tasks such as planning, organizing, distributing information, evaluating, and trying new ideas.

Research found that the traditional leadership style, emphasizing Structure, certainly was not the only style used by principals (Bacharach & Mundell, 1995; Heck & Marcoulides, 1993; Rakes & Cox, 1994; Sagor, 1991). In fact, the reform literature of the 1980s indicated that a more informal leadership style, emphasizing Consideration and relationships, was better suited to reforming schools (Adams & Bailey, 1989; Bass, 1990; Murphy & Louis, 1994; Sagor, 1991; Schmuck & Runkel, 1985; Thompson, 1992). Since the 1980s, school reform efforts changed the principal's role and the means he or she uses to ensure compliance with organizational goals (Fullan, 1993; Murphy, 1994).

Bacharach and Mundell (1995) suggested that principal leadership styles might have been affected, at least to some extent, by educational reform activities. Focus had been placed on school-based management, shared decision making, total quality management, and participative management (Murphy & Louis, 1994). Building leadership became a collaborative effort, and the teamwork approach was encouraged (Beckley & Sarvis, 1993). There was a need for research on how these trends toward a collaborative type of "leading from the

center" (Murphy & Louis, 1994, p. 25) might be related to leadership styles used by Georgia elementary school principals, particularly as their roles changed during recent years. No data could be found regarding what leadership styles Georgia elementary school principals used in their schools.

Biographic and demographic variables have been linked to leadership style (Amodeo & Emslie, 1985; Bacharach & Mundell, 1995; DeMoulin, 1992; Eagly & Johnson, 1990; Farrant, 1986; Fleishman, 1989; Hill, 1993; Leithwood & Steinbach, 1995; Owens, 1991; Ozga 1993; Pigford & Tonnsen, 1993; Prestine & Thurston, 1994; Sweeney, 1992). According to Heck and Marcoulides (1993), leadership style is related to both personal and organizational factors. Evans (1988) found evidence which supported the idea that leadership style is affected by different circumstances. This study focused on developing a normative profile of the elementary school principal in Georgia and identifying the dominant leadership style used by elementary school principals in this state. This profile of the typical Georgia elementary school principal was then compared with profiles of elementary school principals in other states. This study examined demographic characteristics of the typical Georgia elementary school and compared these with demographics of elementary schools in other states. Leadership styles, as measured by the two constructs of Structure and Consideration, of principals of Georgia elementary schools during the 1995-1996

academic year were determined and compared with leadership styles of elementary school principals in other states.

Once leadership styles were determined, as measured by the constructs of Structure and Consideration, relationships were examined with regard to biographic characteristics such as sex, age, ethnicity, marital status, highest college degree earned, years of experience as a school administrator, years of experience as a classroom teacher, and years of experience in other educational positions. Relationships were also studied with regard to demographic factors such as school setting (urban, rural, or suburban), regional area of the state, and school size (student population).

Statement of the Problem

Upon thoroughly reviewing the literature, differences were found to exist between leadership styles of school principals. These differences were examined based upon the commonly reported constructs of Structure and Consideration. Differences between Structure and Consideration may be related to the biographic characteristics of principals or to the demographic characteristics of the schools they serve. The focus of this research study was to survey principals of Georgia public elementary schools to examine these biographic and demographic characteristics and their relationship to leadership constructs of Structure and Consideration.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this research study was to examine two constructs of leadership style, Structure and Consideration, of Georgia elementary school principals and how these related to certain biographic and demographic variables. This study of the relationship between Georgia elementary school principals' leadership styles and biographic and demographic variables is a unique study. Research data have been analyzed in the absence of comparative data on leadership styles of Georgia elementary school principals. This study will add to the knowledge base that currently exists in educational research on Georgia elementary school principals.

Importance of the Study

Data related to the leadership styles demonstrated by Georgia elementary school principals with regard to biographic factors such as sex, age, marital status, ethnicity, educational level, years of administrative experience, and years of teaching experience and demographic factors such as school setting, state regional area, and school size were collected and analyzed. This information will add to the knowledge base of principal leadership styles demonstrated at the elementary school level and of biographic and demographic variables which may be associated with two constructs of leadership style: Structure and Consideration.

Information obtained from this study will be valuable to those who research educational leadership because the findings

establish a database upon which future studies may build. Information was gathered from a large sample of practicing Georgia elementary school principals. This provides educational researchers with knowledge of some characteristics of persons leading elementary schools in Georgia and which of two styles those persons are using. This study will be helpful in filling the gap in research on elementary school principal leadership styles and how they are related to biographic factors of principals and the demographic factors of schools they serve (Prestine & Thurston, 1994). Similarities and differences observed in leadership styles of Georgia elementary school principals will be presented for educators and researchers to use. A profile of the Georgia elementary school principal will be developed which could be used in future comparative research studies on school principals' leadership styles and/or on biographic and demographic information.

Since the late 1950s, Structure and Consideration have been recognized as two major constructs of leadership which were the base for subsequent leadership style research. Although leadership has been studied over the past three decades from the constructs of Structure and Consideration, a study had not been conducted of Georgia elementary school principals which examined the relationship between their leadership styles, based on Structure and Consideration, and biographic and demographic variables.

Assumptions of the Study

It was assumed in this study that:

1. All responding principals would honestly answer questions on the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire (LOQ) and the Georgia Elementary School Principal Questionnaire (GESPO).
2. There would be a difference in principal leadership styles related to biographic and demographic variables.

Research Questions

Six research questions are addressed by this study:

1. Is there a dominant leadership style, based on the constructs of Structure and Consideration, exhibited by Georgia elementary school principals and, if so, what is that dominant style?
2. Is there a relationship between the Structure subscale scores on the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire of Georgia elementary school principals and selected biographic variables?
3. Is there a relationship between the Consideration subscale scores on the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire of Georgia elementary school principals and selected biographic variables?
4. Is there a relationship between the Structure subscale scores on the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire of Georgia elementary school

- principals and selected demographic variables?
5. Is there a relationship between the Consideration subscale scores on the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire of Georgia elementary school principals and selected demographic variables?
 6. What is the biographic profile of the typical Georgia elementary school principal and what are the demographic characteristics of the typical Georgia elementary school?

Procedures

This study was conducted using data collected from Georgia elementary school principals during the 1995-1996 academic year. These principals were identified through the use of the 1995 Georgia Public Education Directory. The Leadership Opinion Questionnaire (LOQ), a 40-item instrument developed by E.A. Fleishman in 1960, revised in 1969, was selected for use in this study based on favorable reviews of the original instrument in Buros Sixth Mental Measurement Yearbook (1965).

Data were collected on personal characteristics of the principals studied, such as age, sex, ethnicity, marital status, educational level, years of administrative experience, and years of other educational experience to provide a biographic profile of Georgia elementary school principals. Demographic data on school sites where the subjects were

principals, such as setting, state regional area, and school size, were also collected.

The method of study used was nonexperimental, post-facto research to determine Georgia elementary school principals' leadership styles, based on the constructs of Structure and Consideration, and how certain biographic and demographic variables might be related with their leadership styles. Statistical analyses included a Pearson's r correlation coefficient to determine the relationship between the independent, continuous variables and the Structure and Consideration scores on the LOQ used to measure these constructs of leadership style. The one-way analysis of variance test (ANOVA) was used to determine if significant differences in group means on Structure and Consideration existed for each of the independent, categorical variables in the study. Scheffé's analysis was used as a follow up to the ANOVA test where indicated. Conclusions were drawn after the data had been analyzed and the findings were compared to the research questions.

Limitations of the Study

The study as designed was limited as follows:

1. Only principals who were site administrators at Georgia elementary schools were included in the study because the goal was to identify the leadership styles of practicing Georgia elementary school principals.

2. Only public schools identified as Georgia elementary schools for the year 1995-1996 were included in the study.
3. This study was restricted to Georgia elementary school principals as identified by the 1995 Georgia Public Education Directory.
4. The Leadership Opinion Questionnaire used was designed to be self-reporting and measured from a self-perceptive view at the time the survey was completed, accurate at that time.
5. The results obtained were dependent on principals' honesty in their responses.
6. The Leadership Opinion Questionnaire had been validated and was reliable, but had not been used with this population prior to this study.
7. No empirical studies conducted in the state of Georgia on this topic were found, thereby eliminating any opportunity for direct comparison of results for this population.

Definition of Terms

Several terms used were specific to this study. It is important for readers to have a clear understanding of the definition of each of the following terms as used in this study:

1. Leadership was defined as the ability to guide or influence others' activities and performance to

- accomplish specific results.
2. Leadership style was defined for the purposes of this study as the behaviors a principal uses to guide his or her school staff's activities and performance to accomplish specific results (Structure) and the behaviors a principal uses to form relationships and interact with his or her school staff (Consideration).
 3. Principal was defined as one of those 1309 persons who served as administrative heads of elementary schools in Georgia who were listed in the 1995 Georgia Public Education Directory.
 4. Ethnicity was defined as people in the population who come from various cultural backgrounds. For this study, ethnicity was defined as African American, Asian American, Hispanic, white, and other.
 5. Biographic variables were defined as personal characteristics of the Georgia elementary school principals included in this study.
 6. Demographic variables were defined as characteristics of the elementary school sites where the principals in this study served during the 1995-1996 academic year.
 7. Structure, as defined in Buros Sixth Mental Measurements Yearbook (1965), is "the extent to which an individual is likely to structure his own role and those of his subordinates toward goal attainment" (p. 1371).
 8. Consideration, as defined in Buros Sixth Mental Measurements Yearbook (1965), is "the extent to which an

individual is likely to have job relationships characterized by mutual trust, a certain warmth between supervisor and subordinates, and the like" (p. 1371).

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

Recent research has taken a more holistic view of leadership, as opposed to somewhat fragmented earlier studies, where factors were presented in isolation (Fullan, 1993). According to Fullan, principals were held increasingly accountable as the instructional leaders of the school, developing the school culture and setting the tone of the school climate through their leadership styles. Evans and Teddlie (1993) suggested that differences in principals' leadership styles existed and that these differences had implications for educational improvement strategies. Mitchell (1990) wrote that principal leadership was necessary for "nurturing common commitments, maintaining intense engagement and developing creative approaches to the educational process" (p. 40).

The focus of this study was to determine leadership styles, based on the constructs of Structure and Consideration, of principals of Georgia elementary schools during the 1995-1996 academic year. Relationships were examined with regard to biographic characteristics: sex, age, ethnicity, marital status, educational level, years of administrative experience, and years of experience as a teacher. Relationships were also examined with regard to

demographic factors of the school sites where these principals served: school setting, school size (student population), and state regional area.

In past research comparing leadership styles of principals, few definite conclusions have been drawn. No previous studies were found by this researcher which compared leadership styles of Georgia elementary school principals. Only by studying principal leadership styles will definite findings be discovered and this gap in educational research be filled. It is to this end that the literature reviewed in this study discusses the concept of leadership in a sequential manner, moving from the general philosophy of leadership to specific leadership theories. Various studies have been conducted on this topic, but few definite conclusions have been reached.

An Examination of Selected Leadership Studies

Constructs of Leadership

The review of literature on leadership and leadership styles revealed multiple constructs. However, terms such as task, task-oriented, structure, structure-oriented, bureaucratic, job-centered, and concern for production appeared repeatedly in the literature to describe a leader's concern for accomplishing specific results (Adams & Bailey, 1989; Blake & Mouton, 1982; Bolman & Deal, 1991; Eagley & Johnson, 1990; Etheridge, Hall, & Brown, 1990; Fiedler, 1967;

Fleishman, 1953, 1973; Forsyth & Boshart, 1985; Guthrie & Reed, 1986; Halpin, 1958; Hersey & Blanchard, 1977, 1982; Ignatovich, 1971; Leithwood, Begley, & Cousins, 1990; Lemon, 1982; Mitchell, 1990; Rakes & Cox, 1994; Sagor, 1991; Schmuck & Runkel, 1985; Sergiovanni, 1987; Stogdill, 1974; Stogdill & Coons, 1957; Thomson, 1992). Structure will be used throughout this research study, in the broadest sense of the word, to include the range of terms listed above.

Similarly, the terms relations, relation-oriented, relation-motivated, consideration, considerate behavior, interpersonal relationships, nonbureaucratic, personal aspect dimension, human resource orientations, employee-centered, people-oriented, person leadership, interpersonally related aspects, integrator, and concern for people appeared repeatedly in the literature to describe a leader's concern for forming relationships and interacting with his or her subordinates (Adams & Bailey, 1989; Blake & Mouton, 1982; Bolman & Deal, 1991; Eagley & Johnson, 1990; Etheridge, Hall, & Brown, 1990; Fiedler, 1967; Fleishman, 1953, 1973; Forsyth & Boshart, 1985; Guthrie & Reed, 1986; Halpin, 1958; Hersey & Blanchard, 1977, 1982; Ignatovich, 1971; Leithwood, Begley & Cousins, 1990; Lemon, 1982; Mitchell, 1990; Rakes & Cox, 1994; Sagor, 1991; Schmuck & Runkel, 1985; Sergiovanni, 1987; Stogdill, 1974; Stogdill & Coons, 1957; Thomson, 1992). Consideration will be used throughout this research study, in the broadest sense of the word, to include the range of terms listed above.

Bales (1950) differentiated between task and interpersonal leadership styles when he identified two constructs of leadership as: an orientation to task accomplishment and a social-emotional orientation concerned with relationships and morale among members of the organization. This distinction was further developed when the terms Consideration and Structure were originally identified in the Ohio State University studies on leadership (Bass, 1981; Fleishman, 1953, 1973; Halpin, 1958, Hemphill, 1955; Stogdill & Coons, 1957). Initially Hemphill divided leader behavior into more categories, but after further research studies were conducted, he determined leadership style could be effectively measured by the two constructs of Consideration and Structure. These two broad constructs were derived through factor analytic procedures. Several different factor analyses with a variety of supervisors have confirmed these factors (Fleishman, 1953; Halpin & Winer, 1957; Landy, 1978; Tscheulin & Schmidt, 1970).

Some authors have broken down Structure and Consideration into subsets determined by the extent of each construct present in a given situation. Other authors have used constructs outside the realm of Structure and Consideration to study leadership. The present researcher has chosen to examine leadership using the constructs of Structure and Consideration.

Leadership Defined

Hart (1980) defined leadership as "the process of influencing one or more people in a positive way so that the tasks determined by the goals and objectives of an organization are accomplished" (p. 16). Gardner (1988) suggested that leadership development should be continuous throughout one's lifetime. Gardner (1990) defined leadership as "the process of persuasion or example by which an individual (or leadership team) induces a group to pursue objectives held by the leader or shared by the leader and his or her followers" (p. 1).

Leadership was defined by Etzioni (1965) as "the ability, based on personal qualities of the leader, to elicit the followers' voluntary compliance in a broad range of matters" (pp. 690-691). He further stated that school principals relied on a combination of position power and personal influence. He described "normative" power of school and church leaders as utilizing prestige, esteem, love, and acceptance to influence followers (Etzioni, 1964). One challenge school leaders faced was getting their staffs to demonstrate certain behavior out of the belief it was the correct thing to do; they become morally involved (Bennis & Nanus, 1985).

Burns (1978) defined "leadership as leaders inducing followers to act for certain goals that represent the values and the motivations--the wants and needs, the aspirations and expectations--of both leaders and followers" (p. 19).

Stogdill (1974) viewed leadership as "the initiation and maintenance of structure in expectation and interaction" (p. 411). Leadership was viewed by Richards and Greenlaw (1966) as "an influence process, the dynamics of which are a function of the personal characteristics of the leader, his followers, and the nature of the specific situation" (p. 2).

A differentiation was made by Loucks (1988) between managers and leaders, as follows: Managers placed strong emphasis on planning, budgeting, organizing, staffing, controlling, and problem solving while leaders focused on creating a clear purpose and vision, communicating that vision, and motivating and inspiring people to produce beneficial change. Gardner (1990) distinguished leadership from management in that "leaders thought longer term and looked beyond their unit to the larger world . . . , emphasized vision and renewal . . . , [and] had political skills to cope with requirements of multiple constituencies" (p. 4). Bacharach and Mundell (1995) reported that "good managers emphasized reason, analysis, and structure, whereas gifted leaders emphasized symbols, culture, and politics" (p. 347). Mitchell (1990) maintained that managers and supervisors were more concerned with task dimensions while leaders and administrators focused on personal aspects. He concluded that each leadership style, in the proper environment and with the appropriate goals and expectations, could be successful. Mitchell also held that the most crucial

elements were a set of shared beliefs and expectations and a mutual commitment of principal and staff.

Wheatley (1994) indicated that today's leaders are being encouraged to focus on relationships and getting employees more involved in the organization. The majority of managers, according to her, expressed a need for greater knowledge on team building, work collaboration, and conflict resolution. She stated that leadership was being studied presently from the perspective of its "relational aspects," including followership, empowerment, and leader assessibility (p. 12). Wheatley (1994) asserted,

As we struggle with the designs that will replace bureaucracy, we must invent organizations where process is allowed its varied-tempo dance, where structures come and go as they support the process that needs to occur, and where form arises to support the necessary relationships. (p. 68)

She further stated that "the era of the team player has replaced the era of the rugged individual [leader]. The concept of the unconnected individual has been demolished" (p. 38). The current trend has been to increase the exchange of information among all hierarchial levels in organizations, which, according to Wheatley (1994), will promote internal connectedness and harmonious action. She contended that one must consider the total relationship network and multiplicity of interactions before describing a person's role in the

workplace. Leaders cannot be defined solely in terms of their authority relationship.

Bolman and Deal (1991) described four "frames" that demonstrated different leader orientations that determined the way leaders perceived organizational activities and determined how they responded. Recent studies of educational and business leaders suggested that most were either human-resource-oriented or structurally oriented (Thomson, 1992). According to Bolman and Deal, the human resource frame links organizational goals to individual needs of the people who work in the organization; the leader acts as a facilitator. The structural frame focuses on rationality and production instead of caring and trust; the leader is a formal organizer for efficient operations. The political frame shows the various interest groups competing for survival and power; the leader is an advocate and negotiator. The symbolic frame emphasizes values, commitment, and cultural aspects of the organization; the leader is considered a sort of prophet.

Moore (1994) stated that schools operate in a complex environment which is influenced by numerous external factors. This author (Moore, 1994) recommended that school principals consider these external influences and use a leadership style that is appropriate for interacting with them. Bacharach and Mundell (1995) determined that principals led their schools through the use of various strategies such as "persuasion, example, coaxing, inspiring, and rewarding" (p. 345). These authors (Bacharach & Mundell, 1995) held that for principals

to be effective, "an appropriate fit between leader and context must exist" (p. 345).

The principalship has traditionally been perceived as "a role into which one was fitted . . . by becoming what was expected" of him or her (Ozga, 1993, p. 106). Ozga argued that principals needed to

understand that one could not become the ideal person at the moment of appointment but that one had to discover how one could best do the job through one's own strengths and personality. (p. 106)

Stronge (1993) suggested that the role of principals was primarily that of maintenance, keeping the entire educational process going efficiently and effectively. He determined that educational leadership was a combination of "managerial and instructional responsibilities" (p. 5). According to Stronge, principal behaviors that were not contributing to a "robust learning environment should be eliminated" (p. 6).

Bacharach and Mundell (1995) said changed concepts of leadership had resulted in two major shifts: "Leadership by and for the few to leadership by and for the many, and leadership as a one-way process to leadership as relationship and mutual influence" (pp. 337-338). Murphy (1994) contended that the principal's role was being redefined by new power relationships in regard to collaborative decision-making processes and the delegation of responsibilities. Perhaps the principal's most difficult accomplishment was that of empowering staff and relinquishing some of his or her power.

Murphy (1994) indicated that trust between principal and teachers was a prerequisite to shared responsibilities. A principal demonstrated through "words, actions, and interpersonal relationships" (p. 96) his or her position on participative decision making. According to Murphy, principals must be willing to lead from the background or center, and become facilitators, "helping formulate a shared vision of the school" (p. 97). He further stated that

boundaries between schools and their external environments are becoming more permeable and principals are spending more time with parents and community members than they did prior to restructuring. . . . [Principals] need to expand public relations activities with external constituents. . . . The public image of schools is becoming a matter of increasing concern. (p. 98)

Leithwood and Steinbach (1995) suggested that "variations in patterns of principal practices are consequential for school improvement" (p. 227). Leadership for the purpose of meeting agreed upon educational goals requires not only an effective organizational structure but also a secure climate and culture (Ozga, 1993). School leadership needs to "nurture and support staff and enhance their self-worth" (p. 12).

Johnson (1992) determined from a study she conducted in Texas that

shared leadership became possible because the principal . . . recognized the strength of the faculty and staff and was willing to support them in taking risks

necessary to challenge the status quo. What this meant for the principal was moving away from being "the leader" to being "the leader of leaders." (p. 62)

According to Johnson, this was a part of redefining the leadership of school principals.

In a study conducted by Winter and Sweeney (1994), it was found that teachers named support as number one on the list of what principals do to create school climate. Teachers identified kinds of leadership support that made a difference in school climate as "recognizing achievement, backing up teachers, encouraging teachers, caring, and administering school rules fairly" (Winter & Sweeney, 1994, p. 66). Winter and Sweeney indicated that the principal, as the head of the school, "was likely to evoke the sentiments teachers had about their work" (p. 68). Teachers put forth extra effort when principals showed concern for their professional growth, were supportive, fair, and trustworthy (Winter & Sweeney, 1994).

Sergiovanni (1987) identified five dimensions of leadership in which principals may influence their schools: (a) technical leadership--planning, organizing, coordinating, and scheduling; (b) human leadership--providing support, encouraging growth, building morale, and using shared decision-making processes; (c) educational leadership--bringing expert professional knowledge to supervision, program development, and teaching effectiveness; (d) symbolic leadership--providing selective attention and modeling to others what is important and valued in the school; and (e)

cultural leadership--identifying, strengthening, and articulating the values, beliefs, and cultural patterns that give the school its identity. Sergiovanni implied that a principal needs to utilize all these dimensions of leading to be most effective.

The demand on schools for extended services and better quality education creates a new picture of the school principal (Thomson, 1992). According to Thomson, today's principals must demonstrate a more powerful level of educational, civic, and political leadership to meet the challenges of an increased population of poor and minority students who are not successfully served by our current school system, but who will become a major part of the United States' work force. Thomson stated that "empirical studies of school administrators suggest that their work is shaped by environment" (p. 28). He indicated that a move toward collegiality in schools and a move toward less bureaucracy was taking place. Thomson also suggested that principals achieved organizational goals by working through others. He contended that the school principal must provide a climate which encourages technical and social growth of the staff. He held that the 1990s principal needs to possess expert communication skills and a knowledge of economic and political affairs which enables him or her to establish collaboratives that deliver integrated services to students.

Leadership Theories

The study of leadership has always seemed to intrigue researchers (Adams & Bailey, 1989; Bacharach & Mundell, 1995; Bolman & Deal, 1991; Brubaker, Simon, & Tysinger, 1993; Burns, 1978; Cuban, 1986; Etheridge, Hall, & Brown, 1990; Etzioni, 1965; Fiedler, 1967; Forsyth & Boshart, 1985; Gardner, 1990; Hall & Rutherford, 1983; Hart, 1980; Heck & Marcoulides, 1993; House, 1971; Ignatovich, 1971; Leithwood & Steinbach, 1995; Lemon, 1982; Mitchell, 1990; Ogletree & Thomas, 1990; Purkey & Smith, 1983; Rutherford, 1984; Shakeshaft, 1987; Stogdill, 1974; Thompson, 1992). For this reason, the existing literature is abundant. However, conflicting conclusions have been reached and gaps still exist in the knowledge base (Bacharach & Mundell, 1995; Eagly & Johnson, 1990; Eagly, Karau, & Johnson, 1992; Evans & Teddlie, 1993; Hallinger, Bickman, & Davis, 1990; Johnson, 1992; Leithwood & Steinbach, 1995; Murphy, 1994; Ozga, 1993; Pigford & Tonnsen, 1993; Prestine & Thurston, 1994; Rakes & Cox, 1994; Wheatley, 1994; Winter & Sweeney, 1994). Leadership theories have been divided into the following categories: scientific management, trait theory, democratic leadership, organizational leadership, situational leadership, transformational leadership, moral leadership, and human resource theory. These will be examined in the section below.

Scientific Management

The classical theory of leadership prevalent in the 1930s applied the principles of scientific management. Theorists

attempted to "demonstrate that scientific techniques of systematic observation and experimentation could produce dramatic gains in efficiency and productivity" (Bacharach & Mundell, 1995, p. 322). This authoritarian, hierarchical-based theory was position-oriented and relied on the punishment/reward system for motivation of followers. This concept of leadership supported leader control through directives, highly structured organizations, division and specification of labor defined by the leader, and closely monitored performance. Disadvantages of the scientific management theory were the lack of interpersonal interaction, too much emphasis placed on product, and no ownership of decisions given to followers (Bacharach & Mundell, 1995).

Frederick Taylor was regarded as the father of the scientific management movement. Taylor (1911) supported logic, great effort, diligent work, and well-defined social positions and roles. Max Weber (1964) proposed the bureaucratic model which was derived from the scientific management theory of leadership. Division of labor and employment was determined on the basis of technical proficiency. Kimbrough and Nunnery (1988) identified the four basic concepts of the bureaucratic model of leadership as "a hierarchy of authority, impersonality, a system of rules, and specialization" (p. 263). Henri Fayol was called the father of the administrative process. He determined the following tasks as responsibilities of management: planning, arranging, hiring, supervising, coordinating, presenting, and budgeting.

Cuban (1986) stated that "scientific management," developed by Frederick Taylor, supported the image of the principal as bureaucrat. Education was thought of as a science, equated with numbers and efficiency. According to Cuban, the principal was held accountable for carrying out directives from the superintendent and school board. He maintained that these were principals who generally spent the majority of their workday "maintaining order and preventing conflicts from arising" (p. 109).

Trait Theory

According to Stodgill (1948), the trait theory was, perhaps, the oldest method of studying leadership that researchers used. The trait theory encompassed the search for a cluster of traits, attributes, or other factors that distinguished a leader. Trait research focused on what leaders were like instead of what they did. Owens (1991) held that the trait theory of leadership "hypothesized that what made a leader effective was his personality, what he was as a person" (p. 13).

Supporters of the trait theory attempted to identify some set of built-in traits which successful leaders possessed. Although research findings were ambiguous, Stodgill (1948) reported that three factors were exhibited consistently when leaders were described. The factors were height--leaders tended to be taller than the average person; intelligence--leaders tended to be more intelligent than their followers;

and energy or activity--leaders had a strong sense of drive or ambition.

Democratic Leadership

Previous research also made the distinction between task structuring and interpersonal relationship development as a critical factor in leadership behavior. Stogdill and Coons (1957) identified two dimensions of leading as Consideration and Structure. Building relationships between leader and followers through increased interaction was emphasized. Stogdill (1974) concluded that democratic leadership is positively related to group member satisfaction.

Following the Great Depression, a new era emerged called the Human Relations Era. Bacharach and Mundell (1995) described this era as being focused on "the importance of common interest and consensual decision making" (p. 325). The Hawthorne Studies conducted by Elton Mayo revealed that increased productivity resulted from changed human relations. Mayo (1933) emphasized concern for people and their relations. Mary Parker Follett (1924) perceived coordination as the critical factor in developing a successful organization, one distinguished by harmonious interactions. Kimbrough and Nunnery (1988) reported that her [Follett's] basic contention was that

any enduring organization must be based upon a recognition of the motivating desires of the individual and of the group and that all organizational problems were fundamentally human relations problems. (p. 280)

The human relations or democratic theory of leadership focuses on cooperative effort, conflict resolution, communication, shared power, and exchange of ideas between leader and followers. Advantages of the human relations theory are increased motivation of workers, unified goals and purposes, greater involvement of followers, fewer grievances, ownership of decisions, and positive interdependence. Disadvantages of the theory include its dependence on the dedication of workers, the necessity to develop and maintain worker commitment, role ambiguity of the leader, instability of the organization, and excessive emphasis on process.

Organizational Leadership

Chester Barnard's classic work, Functions of the Executive (1938), became the origin for many organizational theories. Barnard logically analyzed organizational structure and applied sociological concepts to management. Barnard held that three aspects of an organization should be considered: the reason people chose to join the organization, requirements necessary for maintaining the organization, and incentives in the organization which motivate members to contribute their effort.

Bacharach and Mundell (1995) stated that Barnard's contention was that "organizations were essentially cooperative systems, held together ultimately by the shared goals of the participants" (p. 325). This foundation for the behavioral theory of leadership presented a realistic picture of organizations as the relationships between formal and

informal groups within the organizational culture were studied. Argyris (1964) advanced the notion of meshing the individual with the organization in such a way that would produce optimum self-actualization, both using the other to fulfill his or her needs.

Situational Leadership

Maslow (1954) theorized that the motivation of workers depends on unsatisfied needs being met. The strength of each need is determined by the need's position on the hierarchy of needs and the extent to which lower-order needs have been met. Douglas McGregor (1960) proposed that the perspective from which a leader views followers influences how he or she responds. His Theory X suggested that leaders need direct control over subordinates' work, while Theory Y implies that the major responsibility of the leader is to ensure that organizational conditions are such that followers can achieve their own goals by directing their work toward meeting the organization's goals.

Situational leadership theories refuted the normative, one-best-style approach, and held that different situations require different leadership styles. The Contingency Theory developed by Fiedler (1967) distinguishes between the task-oriented and person-oriented approaches to leader behavior. Fiedler discovered that leaders vary their actions between task and people, depending on the environmental stability of the situation. Dow and Oakley (1992) suggested that "leaders in today's schools must be able to demonstrate both task and

relationship behavior" (p. 45). Fiedler's theory held that the effectiveness of a group or an organization depends on the interaction between the leader's personality and the situation. The most critical dimension of importance was identified as

interpersonal relationships, affected by both the task structure and leader's position power as well as by the personalities of the leader and other members of the group. . . . The second most critical dimension was task structure. . . . The third dimension, position power, referred to the formal authority associated with a leader's position in the organization. (Kimbrough & Nunnery, 1988, pp. 348-349)

Robert J. House (1971) expanded the contingency concept in the 1970s to include psychological theories. His Path-Goal Leadership Theory held that leaders needed to ensure increased personal rewards for subordinates accomplishing goals, reduce obstacles blocking the path to these objectives, and provide increased opportunities for personal satisfaction to occur simultaneously with meeting organizational goals. House believed the leader should adjust his or her leadership style to the current situation.

Transformational Leadership

Burns (1978) focused on the purpose of leadership in his studies and distinguished between transactional leadership and transformational leadership. He held that transformational leadership encouraged effective practices and promoted a

consensual understanding of the mission and goals of followers. Actions were based on goals that represented the values, motivations, wants, needs, aspirations, and expectations of leader and followers. According to Burns,

leadership is a process of morality to the degree that leaders engage with followers on the basis of shared motives and values and goals--on the basis, that is, of the followers' needs as well as those of leaders.

(p. 36)

Bolman and Deal (1991) stated that "transforming leaders bring out the best in their followers and move them to pursue higher and more universal needs and purposes" (p. 439). Transforming leadership raised the ethical ambition and behavior of leaders and followers (Schmuck & Runkel, 1985). In the end, both had reached higher plateaus of motivation and morality. Schmuck and Runkel implied that leaders need balance between task and relationships to match followers' expectations. Sagor (1991) stated that "meaningful school development cannot and does not occur in the absence of transformational leadership . . . [which] moves both the leader and follower to new understandings and improved behavior" (pp. 1-2).

A study conducted by Edington and Di Benedetto (1988) concluded that motivating teachers was viewed by teachers as a style of leading that was desirable and effective. These researchers discovered the one leadership style that was positively significant in relation to student learning was

transformational. Bass (1990) said that the effective school principal has the confidence and trust of his or her faculty and staff, assists them in professional growth and development, shows concern for them, intellectually motivates them to be problem solvers, and inspires them. More of a transformational leadership style is needed in today's school climate to meet the needs of a diverse population. Training individuals in transformational leadership was reported by Mitchell (1991) as difficult, however, because the concept and related skills are more abstract than other forms of leadership style.

Ideas or products or needs or services are exchanged when transactional leadership is practiced. This interaction is usually initiated by one of the two parties involved and no commitments are made to each other. Relating task/person distinction to transactional/transformational distinction, it could be said that transactional administrators focus more on things and tasks, while transformational administrators focus more on ideas and people.

Moral Leadership

Sergiovanni (1987) suggested that principals practice servant leadership, providing moral direction, building shared values and shared vision as the foundation for decision making, providing purpose, and empowering others. He contended that there was a strong relationship between moral authority, which was dependent on persuasion and servant leadership. Burns (1978) held that

The ultimate test of moral leadership is its capacity to transcend the claims of the multiplicity of everyday wants and needs and expectations, to respond to the higher levels of moral development, and to relate leadership behavior--its roles, choices, style, commitments--to a set of reasoned, relatively explicit, conscious values. (p. 46)

Human Resource Theory

Leadership theories have moved from the autocratic "scientific" theory to the opposite extreme of the human relations theory to the human resources or process view of administrative decision making" (Rakes & Cox, 1994, pp. 97-98). Rakes and Cox stated that the "human resource theory was a blend of the scientific and human relations theories, which emphasized task and human relationships and shared decision making" (p. 98). They reported that the style an administrator used was a large determinant of employee satisfaction.

Rakes and Cox (1994) held that leadership could be strengthened by the use of "appropriate persuasive strategies" (p. 101). They reported that principals who were teacher-oriented and used persuasion communicated respect which enhanced supervisor-subordinate relationships and teacher satisfaction. According to these authors, "part of selecting an appropriate leadership style is selecting the most effective compliance-gaining techniques" (p. 102). Compliance-gaining strategies were defined as the

"means of accomplishing goals by creating desired behavior while keeping morale and productivity high" (p. 102). Rakes and Cox implied that the principal's use of friendly reasoning will build staff loyalty and maintain productive, long-term relationships with staff members.

Leadership Styles

Immegart (1988) referred to style as the "pattern of behaviors, displayed by a leader in a leadership situation" (p. 262). Mitchell (1990) stated that leadership style was "identifiable and consistent, a characteristic that made individuals recognizably consistent from one situation to the next, an individual coherent approach to work, uniform patterns of action and belief, common responses to organizational problems and opportunities" (p. 3).

Howes (1993) held that leadership style "originated from self-analysis and resulted in a definition and acceptance of what is really important to one's value system" (p. 62). He recommended that when one is developing his or her leadership style, he or she develop behaviors that are congruent with his or her values, develop the toughness required to make organizational improvements, and behave in a way that is genuine, competent, and consistent.

Howes (1993) identified three leadership styles: Glacial Leaders focus on the attainment of goals they determine and are unconcerned about the opinions of other people; Driven Leaders focus on power and their individual advancement and

view things from a self-perspective; Quiet Leaders focus on the morale and unity of people and use their personal behaviors to communicate power.

Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1973) held that different situations required different leadership styles. These authors suggested that three forces be considered by leaders: (a) forces in the leader (including the leader's value system), (b) forces in the followers, and (c) forces in the situation. Tannenbaum and Schmidt designed a continuum that ranged from democratic to authoritarian on which they believed leadership styles and decision-making processes could be placed. The responsibility fell on the principal to let teachers know the nature of a specific decision and what their role was in making the decision. Where the leader behavior fell on the continuum was determined by his or her interpretation of a particular situation. The six leadership styles they identified were:

1. Telling--leader practiced autonomy.
2. Selling--leader provided a rationale for decisions he had made.
3. Testing--leader made the decisions and elicited reactions.
4. Consulting--leader asked for input before making decisions.
5. Joining--leader allowed others to take an equal part in decision-making and went along with the group's decision.

6. Abdicating--leader let others make decisions either by delegating or default.

Through the years, the concept of leadership and specific characteristics of leaders has emerged. The four leadership styles identified by Hart (1980) were: (a) authoritarian--leader has complete control derived from position power; (b) democratic--leader involves followers in decision making and his or her power is derived from his or her followers; (c) laissez-faire--leader shares the power and does not interfere with follower activities; and (d) participatory democracy--leadership role may rotate or the leader is elected by group vote.

Price (1990) believed that "the leader's personality determines how he/she interacts with others in many situations, including the leadership situation" (p. 14). She suggested that once a leader was aware of his or her own personality type, it was crucial to know how to work with differing personality types of those he or she supervised. According to Price, "Once the individual recognizes characteristics of different personality styles, and understands how to interact with the various styles, then it will be easier to determine the leadership style needed for the specific situation" (p. 15). The researcher concluded that, "when leaders recognize their situations, their preferred styles, and the styles their followers want, they can be more effective" (p. 20).

Hersey and Blanchard (1982) defined leadership style as "behavior patterns that emerge as a leader is working with other people and they begin to respond in the same manner under similar conditions: they develop habits of action that become somewhat predictable to those who work with them" (p. 51). These authors supported the belief that there was no one successful style of leadership, but that the leader who was most effective would select his or her behavior based on the maturity level of followers relevant to a specific task. Hersey and Blanchard (1977) held that as the maturity of the followers in the organization changes, so must the style of the leader. They advocated a situational leadership model. Aspects taken into consideration were the leader's dominant style; leader's range of style, which included additional supporting styles; and the leader's style adaptability to adjust to the situation at hand. Hersey (1977) identified four possible leadership styles:

1. Telling--high task and low relationship
2. Selling--high task and high relationship
3. Participating--low task and high relationship
4. Delegating--low task and low relationship

The "maturity" level of subordinates determined which leadership style would be most appropriate. Hersey and Blanchard (1982) defined maturity as "the level of achievement-motivation, willingness and ability to take responsibility, task relevant education, and experience of an individual or group" (p. 40). As maturity increased,

task-oriented behavior was reduced and relation-oriented behavior increased.

Hersey and Blanchard (1982) proposed a curvilinear relationship between the two leadership dimensions of task behavior and relationship behavior. Task behavior refers to the extent to which a leader provides the follower with information concerning work directions. Relationship behavior is the extent to which the leader engages in facilitative and supportive activities. This interplay among the amount of direction (task behavior) a leader gives, the amount of concern for people (relationship behavior) a leader provides, and the maturity level that followers exhibit on a specific task formed the basis of this situational leadership theory.

Fiedler (1967) believed that the effectiveness of the organization is dependent on the interaction between the leader's personality and the situation; there is not one best style for all situations. He proposed leadership style as contingent upon a combination of the quality of relationships between leader and followers, the degree to which the task is well-structured, and the leader's power. Fiedler defined two basic leadership styles: (a) task-motivated--concern for production and (b) relation-motivated--concern for people. According to Fiedler, "Task-motivated leadership fulfilled the leader's need to gain satisfaction from the performance of a task. Relationship-motivated leadership fulfilled the leader's need to gain satisfaction from interpersonal relationships" (p. 408). Fiedler suggested that leaders

should be placed in the situation for which their personalities were best suited since their performance depended on the quality of fit among their personality characteristics, their behavior, and such situational variables as follower skills and attitudes.

Likert's (1961) four systems of management describe leadership patterns used:

1. Exploitative authoritative--leaders attempted to exploit their followers, communication was one-way, top-down decision making.
2. Benevolent authoritative--form of authoritarian leadership having a paternalistic or caring nature, most decision making was top-down.
3. Consultative--some confidence placed in followers, significant amounts of interaction and communication between leader and followers.
4. Participative management--provided long-term goals but had confidence in followers to make decisions.

Likert (1961) thought that the participative leadership style is the one best style for any situation. Groups within the organization are viewed as overlapping and the leader is perceived as the link between them, participating in two separate communication networks. Effective, overlapping groups are emphasized, as well as openness and quality of interpersonal relations. Survey data and feedback are used for organizational improvement. According to Bolman and Deal

(1991), job-centered and employee-centered management styles can be distinguished in the following way:

The job-centered manager decides how the job should be done, instructs the employee, and monitors the employee to make sure that he or she does the job right. . . .

Employee-centered managers focus on the human aspects of employee performance and on building effective work groups with high performance goals. (p. 168)

Blake and Mouton (1982) developed the managerial grid which depicted concern for production on the grid's horizontal axis and concern for people on the grid's vertical axis. The leader's concern for people and concern for production are closely related to his or her activities. Inadequate emphasis either on one or both areas of concern resulted in reduced managerial effectiveness as the two were conceptualized as being interdependent. It was impossible to describe leadership on one variable without concurrently describing it on the other due to their interrelatedness. According to Kimbrough and Nunnery (1988), the goal was to move toward high concern for people and high concern for production, committed employees, interdependence, mutual trust, and respect. Blake and Mouton asserted that a high task-oriented and high relations-oriented leadership style was the best style to use in all situations. Increasing production, while simultaneously maintaining morale and building team process, was the leader's goal.

Principal Leadership Styles

Heck and Marcoulides (1993) said leadership style was determined by "organizational and political variables associated with the context of the school . . . as well as the principal's own beliefs and value preferences" (p. 21). This California study conducted by Heck and Marcoulides showed that the style used by elementary school principals to lead their schools, to develop school climate, and to supervise the instructional program were predictors of academic success. The differences found in leadership styles of the elementary principals was a reflection of how they appropriated their time, in other words, leadership style was a function of time management and the allocation of priorities.

These authors (Heck & Marcoulides, 1993) stated that "how the principal and teachers are able to organize and coordinate the work life of the school shapes the environment in which this work is carried out" (p. 27). They also stated that leadership style depends on

both the person and the specific organizational and political variables associated with the context of the school--district size, level of the school . . . , as well as the principal's own beliefs and value preferences. (p. 21)

The authors found that the principal's leadership style is critical because it affects both school climate and academic achievement. Principals differed in the amount of time they gave certain responsibilities, in the quality of their

instructional leadership, and in their leadership styles (Heck & Marcoulides, 1993).

According to Brubaker, Simon, and Tysinger (1993), the leadership role most preferred was the administrator as instructional leader. They described this type of leader as a leader who performs a bureaucratic role and an instructional role, interacts with teachers professionally, and requests their input in decision making.

Brubaker, Simon, and Tysinger (1993) determined that principals used various leadership styles and, of the roles they identified, the majority of principals were reported to be general managers. These authors perceived the general manager as a leader who acts as a liaison between the school and the board of education, spends much of his or her time doing paperwork, is reactive to problems, and implements instructional objectives as mandated.

Ogletree and Thomas (1990) conducted a study of school principals in Chicago and found that 94% of teachers preferred principals who demonstrated the transactional leadership style. Principals who used the transactional leadership style were preferred because they

used authority fairly and consistently, provided instructional leadership, benefitted from constructive criticism, fostered high staff morale, treated staff with dignity and as professionals, recognized achievements of staff, encouraged initiative and creativity by the staff, assigned tasks fairly and equitably. (p. 26)

The least preferred principal leadership style was the dictatorial style. Ogletree and Thomas reported that principals who used the dictatorial style were rated low on the above leadership characteristics.

Ignatovich (1971), in his study on leadership styles of elementary school principals in Iowa, identified three types of principals. He reported that Tolerant-Integrators accounted for 69% of the 228 principals in the study. He stated that these principals emphasized interpersonal relationships and demonstrated thoughtful and accepting behaviors. Intolerant-Structuralists accounted for 21% of the principals in the study. These principals, according to Ignatovich, emphasized regulations and procedures and demonstrated "bureaucratic" behaviors. Tolerant-Interlopers accounted for 10% of the principals and were described as allowing teachers free reign and not accepting their leadership role.

Leithwood, Begley, and Cousins (1990) identified four leadership styles to explain the varying amounts of influence principals had on schools. The teacher-centered principal emphasized interpersonal relationships, cooperation, and collaboration. The indirect instructional principal emphasized student achievement. The direct instructional principal emphasized program, staff competence, tasks, and attainment of goals. The building-centered manager emphasized school operations and maintenance.

Adams and Bailey (1989) determined that principals were constantly faced with making the choice between "bureaucratic leadership behaviors and nonbureaucratic behaviors" (p. 90). These authors held that traditionally principals had chosen a bureaucratic style of leading; however, a nonbureaucratic style of leading had proven effective recently. Adams and Bailey suggested that principals who had influence did not perceive a conflict between themselves and their staff members; therefore, they used a nonbureaucratic style more. Principals with less influence used status and authority (a bureaucratic style) more. According to these authors, principal influence may involve personal charisma, but is usually related to leadership behaviors that demonstrate respect for individuals.

Cuban (1986) identified the role categories of principals: Instructional, Managerial, and Political. Cuban indicated that leadership style was a combination of personality (affected by experiences and values) and one's function. According to Cuban, even though principals may perform their roles in a similar fashion, their leadership styles may vary to the extent that the similarities are not apparent. It was found in Cuban's study, although leadership styles varied, that the managerial role dominated principals' behavior. However, some principals were able to combine the managerial and instructional roles.

Hall (1984) stated that many principals displayed a combination of styles which could be placed on a continuum

showing a preference more toward one style than another. He attributed the diversity in their leadership styles to their rapport with teachers and district-level staff, and to their comprehension and endorsement of change. Hall also stated that a principal's change intervention strategies could be predicted based on his or her leadership style. Three change facilitator styles were established: responder, manager, and initiator (Hall & Rutherford, 1983). Results of their study showed principals intervened in ways which were consistent with these three change facilitator styles. Hall (1984) suggested that behavioral indicators could be created to describe and identify more clearly principal intervention strategies characteristic of each change facilitator style. Initiators had long-range goals and were direct and clear about their high expectations for teachers, students, and themselves. Managers provided support to assist teachers and were sensitive to their needs. Responders concentrated on school operations flowing smoothly by keeping teachers and students content. They possessed a strong desire to please others and based their performance on short-term goals (Huling, Hall, Hord, & Rutherford, 1983).

Based upon the earlier research of Hall and Rutherford (1983), Evans and Teddlie (1993) discovered two trends:

1. Principals are very seldom perceived by teachers as having only one behavior style. . . . The typical scoring pattern for a principal has 80% of the

responses in two styles (primary/secondary) with only about 20% in the third style.

2. Principals were not perceived as combination responders/initiators or initiators/responders.

This supports the contention that the styles could be arranged on a continuum ranging from responder to manager to initiator. (p. 8)

It was further concluded by Evans and Teddlie (1993) that contextual differences related to principals' leadership styles did exist and resulted in implications for school improvement models such as matching principal leadership styles with characteristics of schools.

In a study conducted by Bunting (1982) of 20 elementary school principals, a correlation was found between "mode of leadership evidenced by a principal and the educational values assumed by his teachers" (p. 572). DeMoulin (1992) stated that "a principal's attitude usually influences teachers' attitude which in turn may influence students' attitude towards learning" (p. 2).

Forsyth and Boshart (1985) conducted a study of 27 Kansas elementary school principals and discovered that principals who were relationship-oriented perceived themselves as easy-going and open when in reality they interacted with teachers least frequently in all categories. These authors also found that task-oriented principals perceived themselves as "dramatic and friendly"; in reality, they emphasized instructions and personal communication (p. 15). Principals

who were without dominant orientation were described by Forsyth and Boshart as "using strong, but quiet, paternal control," while these principals perceived themselves as "dominant and contentious, but relaxed" (p. 14).

In a study conducted by Lemon (1982) of North Dakota elementary school principals, it was found that:

14% had no single dominant leadership style . . . ,
 58% had a dominant leadership style which demonstrated
 a high concern for task and a high concern for
 relationship . . . , 23.3% showed a high concern for
 relationships and a low concern for task. . . ,
 3.3% demonstrated a high concern for task and a low
 concern for relationships, 1.3% showed a low concern for
 relationships and a low concern for task. (pp. 59-60)

Lemon also reported that "only 7 out of the [North Dakota] 150 principals demonstrated a low concern for people" (p. 66).

Etheridge, Hall, and Brown (1990) observed three principal leadership styles: (a) laissez-faire--deliberately relinquished control, allowed people choice, shared information, decisions, and power; (b) authoritarian--task-oriented, principal controlled, relied on reward and punishment, and individual power for influence; and (c) democratic--people-oriented, got commitment from group members, shared authority and decision making, offered suggestions. The principals in this Tennessee study volunteered to work with school councils to implement shared decision making at their sites. Etheridge and her coauthors

reported that principals who used a democratic leadership style "built a sense of community" and assisted the councils in working cooperatively (p. 14).

Purkey and Smith (1983) identified certain behaviors that were demonstrated by principals under their four different school culture concepts of collaboration, community, expectations, and order. All the principals studied held high expectations for teachers and students and this drove their leadership behavior. Each principal also involved the staff in decision making, even though the degree of involvement varied. Principals who were supportive, responsive, sensitive to others' feelings, inspiring, and encouraged participation and involvement of staff were rated most effective by teachers.

A study conducted by Rutherford, Hall, and Hord (1983) determined relationships between leadership styles of principals and their work behaviors. The study supported Mintzberg's (1973) research identifying characteristics of manager work behavior which are influenced by the manager's style. Leadership style had a greater effect on work behavior than situational variables. The final conclusions reached by the authors, were that particular leadership styles could be identified that were stable and, even though a leader's style may vary, his or her dominant style remains fairly constant.

Sayers-Kirsch (1978) advised leaders to determine their individual styles, become familiar with the characteristics of each style, and understand how to interact most successfully

with each style. Rallis (1988) recommended an advocacy relationship between administrator and staff. Evans (1988) discovered some evidence which supported the idea that different circumstances and situations affect leadership style. According to Brock and Grady (1995), it should not be assumed that the leadership style a principal has used in past principalships will work in a different school. They contended that variables to be considered included "size of the school faculty, the culture of the group, and the style of communication they previously used" (p. 34).

Personal Characteristics of Leaders

Bennis (1984) reported that specific areas of competence were exhibited by all 90 of the nation's identified most effective, successful leaders. He further stated that he learned from his research "the factor that empowers the work force and ultimately determines which organizations succeed or fail is the leadership of those organizations" (p. 197). Every leader he studied evidenced management of attention and meaning, communicating a clear vision and commitment to that vision. They were goal-directed and focused. These leaders also maintained consistency and the trust of their employees. Effective leaders made people feel important and as though they were part of a community. They stressed learning, competency, quality, and dedication.

Guthrie and Reed (1986) concluded that effective leaders had "a high need for achievement, had self-confidence, a need

for socialized power, desire to compete with peers, high energy level, interest in oral, persuasive activities, and relevant technical, conceptual, and interpersonal skills" (p. 200). These traits could be related to transactional or task leadership (intelligence, clear purpose, and ability) and transformational or person leadership (energy, friendliness, and persuasive ability).

Roskens (1988) contended that leaders possessed a knowledge of excellence and inspired others to pursue that same objective. He further stated that personal characteristics demonstrated by leaders include respect for self and others; willingness to sacrifice for the common good; a sense of civic responsibility; pursuit of truth; honesty; and an intolerance for anything less than adherence to the highest standards.

The following leadership qualities were presented by Bittel (1984): energy, resistance to stress, self-objectivity, work standards, likability, initiative, communications skills, honesty, perseverance, human relations skills, knowledge, self-confidence, adaptability. According to Price (1990), other studies added tact, ambition, courage, sensitivity, sense of humor, and intelligence to the list. She suggested that the work setting determined the importance of these attributes. Kouzes and Posner (1988) concluded that leaders attracted followers because of their respect and concern for others, their belief in purpose, and their ability

to inspire others to act. Kouzes and Posner further stated that leadership was a process involving skills and abilities.

Wheatley (1994) stated that

today's leaders need to become savvy about how to build relationships, how to nurture growing, evolving things.

. . . [They also] need better skills in listening, communicating, and facilitating groups, because these are the talents that build strong relationships. (p. 38)

She suggested that those who lead through coercion or without concern for other people create negative energy, while those leaders open to others create positive energy in the organization.

The educational leader was described by Murphy (1988) as unheroic in the sense he or she asks questions, copes with weakness, and depends on, yet empowers, others. As he expressed it, "the more the leader acknowledges and accepts personal weaknesses and feelings, the more effective he or she becomes" (p. 657). Murphy (1994) stated that the redefinition of the principalship which took place as a result of the school reform movement requires new skills for principals, such as

group problem-solving skills, group facilitative skills . . . , networking relationships, creating internal support structures . . . , providing resources . . . , [and] helping teachers use existing resources. (pp. 96-97)

Bacharach and Mundell (1995) held that principals had to be aware of what was going on: "listening, learning, and diagnosing situations" (p. 345). Each school has its own unique relationship patterns, culture, attitudes, beliefs, expectations, and politics (Bacharach & Mundell, 1995). These authors reported that school leadership requires shared decision making and authority, risk taking, collegiality, and flexibility. According to Bacharach and Mundell,

Research suggested that the context of leaders' work has considerable consequence for what they do. . . . we need better understanding of how leader behaviors are affected by variables such as timing, constituents' meaning making, and conditions in the school and the community. (p. 341)

Hart (1993) ascertained that principals responded to conditions in their school environment and that the way they responded in turn initiated responses from staff members. Bacharach and Mundell (1995) determined that "much of the variance in school performance is due to environmental variables (one of the most important being differences in student demographics)" (p. 339). Greenfield's (1991) data confirm that leadership is a critical factor in school effectiveness. The school setting produces a demand environment in which the principal is constantly bombarded with unanticipated events. School principals interact with situations they encounter, deciding whether or not to react to the "problem," how and when to respond, and whom to involve.

Personal qualities of the school leader determine how successful he or she is in this reactive role. Perceptions and actions are influenced by one's motives, value commitments, ideas, competencies, and by the current situation.

Schools differ from other organizations in ways that make administering them more difficult. According to Greenfield (1991), there is a greater reliance on leadership by the school principal than administrators in other public organizations. School principals are vulnerable to their environments, external and internal, which sometimes threaten their very stability. A principal's leadership style involves face-to-face communication, making decisions without complete or precise knowledge and continuous action, all within a climate that dictates urgency (Blumberg & Greenfield, 1986). Role demands on public school principals include instructional, social, political, managerial, and moral aspects (Greenfield, 1988). The principal performs his role through many daily interactions with students, parents, teachers, superiors, and school support personnel. It is essential that a principal possess interpersonal skills and be sensitive to verbal and nonverbal language. It is vital that he or she communicate successfully with a variety of clientele. Greenfield (1988) further stated that an effective principal must be morally committed to serve students' best interests and be able to identify and analyze actions,

decisions, problems, and outcomes. Gronn (1984) expressed his belief that talk is the work of educational leaders.

Greenfield (1991) found authority based on personal qualities to be a positive factor to one's ability in leading others. He contended that personal influence is critical to the school principal's capacity to lead and that knowledge, skill, and character are directly linked to the administrator's effectiveness. Greenfield said school principals who depend on personal sources of influence experience more success as leaders because teachers are only influenced by choice. He listed some sources of influence as: one's expertise, being helpful and trustworthy, and being committed to particular goals, values, and beliefs.

Sagor (1991) held that transformational principals were efficient managers; competent at handling difficult personnel issues; conversant about data on their schools, faculties, and students' achievement; both task and relationship oriented; and flexible, but determined, regarding school goals, outcomes, and methods. Transformational principals also demonstrated the following behaviors, according to Sagor: dispersed research information; communicated a strong sense of caring for the school community; supported teachers' work; built a sense of unity with followers; recognized and celebrated school values and staff accomplishments; demonstrated a sense of humor, held philosophies that were student-centered and teacher-focused; and had a positive influence on the school culture. Sagor asserted that "culture

may be the medium through which leaders have a transformative effect on followers" (p. 25). Bundy and Horman (1989) reported that "elementary, middle school, and secondary school 'Distinguished School Principals' [named by the California State Department of Education] consistently identified promoting school climate as the most important aspect [of principal behaviors]" (p. 92). In a study conducted in western Pennsylvania, Donmoyer (1985) ascertained that traits such as fostering staff cohesiveness, encouraging personal closeness, and instilling positive social communication were determined to be desirable leadership qualities.

An important role of the school leader is to supply meaning to the duties performed by the school staff. Tucker-Ladd and Thurston (1992) asserted that instructional leadership included establishing a mission; supervising curriculum, instruction, and teaching; ensuring a school climate conducive to learning; and monitoring progress. Tucker-Ladd and Thurston also reported that the meaning expressed through these activities determined school success. Huddle (1986) noted factors that were consistently observed in successful school leaders: They are thoughtful in dealing with staff members; they empower teachers by permitting them to use flexible teaching methods; they promote a sense of group responsibility for obtaining goals; they recognize staff accomplishments; and they manage curriculum across subjects and grade levels.

School principals need to be self-aware and encourage their staff members to develop themselves, personally and professionally. Beckley and Sarvis (1993) stated that principals must have an impeccable strength of character and maintain their commitment toward continuous improvement by establishing a shared vision. They continued by emphasizing the importance of principals leading the school staff to becoming interdependent, teaming to collaborate on planning and implementing activities that had been mutually agreed upon to meet school goals. Beckley & Sarvis suggested that problems incurred should be analyzed and completely resolved cooperatively, emphasizing a move from isolation to team building. Gainey (1992) said the 1990s were a period when many key educational decisions would be made in the political arena; therefore, principals would need to consider demographic changes that created a shift in the political culture. He determined that team-building skills would be a necessity.

In searching for an excellent school principal, Dimperio (1993) described the following qualities as paramount: (a) a record of success in working with teachers, students, parents, peers, and central office personnel; (b) excellent organizational skills and managerial skills; (c) a good understanding of staff development and curriculum; (d) an appreciation for children; (e) a passion for excellence; (f) a good understanding of budget procedures, labor negotiations, and state educational laws; (g) professionalism; (h) keeping

abreast of current trends and discoveries in education; and (i) a commitment to strive for superior results. Blase and Kirby (1992) found that teachers named praise most frequently as the behavior used by principals that influenced teacher behavior, school climate, and faculty cohesiveness. Teachers reported that principal praise was effective in improving their confidence and increasing their sense of belonging—in addition to increasing their support for their principals and their dedication.

Prestine and Thurston (1994) noted that demographic trends in school student populations implied a need for a different type of principal--an "instructional pediatrician" rather than an "executive manager"--a student advocate with expertise in the diagnosis and treatment of cognitive, psychological, and social problems of children rather than a bureaucratic manager with an emphasis on organizational authority, uniformity, conformity, and control . . . , creative problem-solving and innovative leadership techniques . . . , attentive to the needs of minorities and disadvantaged youth (especially in large urban districts). (p. 144)

Poston (1992) determined that today's principal "worked to develop his or her followers . . . , taught, coached, encouraged, and helped others to become effective" (p. 33). Principal selection processes today are "more comprehensive and may include an evaluation of profiles designed to elicit

leadership styles and decision-making processes" (p. 34). According to Poston, a candidate for a principalship may be asked, "What specific leadership behaviors do you feel make a difference in teacher effectiveness?" (p. 35).

Chamley, McFarlane, Young, and Caprio (1992) said "principals must become experts in shared and informed decision making" (p. 1). These authors suggested that principals of the future must develop "an open system where inquiry is valued and participatory processes . . . are the norm" (p. 2). According to Chamley and his associates, principals are challenged to acquire and employ process consultation skills due to increased demand for participatory management styles. Process consultation incorporates communication patterns and decision making procedures. These authors believe that schools in the future will require principals who are capable of immediate adaptability due to demographic changes, social influences, changing attitudes of the public, and limited resources. Chamley stated that principals must consider the needs and characteristics of those within the school.

Stein and King (1992) found that the more traditional responsibilities the principal relinquished, the greater amount of time he or she had to target essentials: "immersing himself in the interactions taking place between adults and students throughout the school . . . and gaining a global view of what is taking place in the school" (pp. 30-31). Stein and King asserted that the school principal's role must

be transformed from an emphasis on power to an emphasis on school effectiveness and that principals need to be aware of their roles as facilitators versus authoritarian leaders.

Leadership Style as It Relates to Biographic Characteristics

Leadership Style and Sex

According to Eagly and Johnson (1990), male and female leaders usually exhibit different leadership styles. However, these authors reported few definite conclusions were drawn as a result of studies comparing leadership styles of male and female principals. Data produced conflicting conclusions and left the research incomplete with regard to empirical studies on this topic. Eagly, Karau, and Johnson (1992) stated that well-controlled studies on sex and leadership style were hindered because there were many uncontrolled variables that influenced leadership style.

In studies reviewed by Eagly, Karau, and Johnson (1992), differences were discovered in leadership styles of female and male principals of public schools. Females, in general, were found to lead more democratically while male principals were more autocratic. When evaluations of school leaders were examined, it was determined that female principals were devalued relative to male principals when they used an autocratic, directive style (Eagly, Makhijani, & Klonsky, 1992).

Eagly, Karau, and Johnson (1992) ascertained that female high school principals were found to be slightly more interpersonally oriented than male high school principals. Eagly and Johnson (1990) stated that women principals are more likely to employ a collaborative leadership style, treating subordinates as equals and involving them in decision making. They also found that women principals were more concerned with tasks such as organizing activities to accomplish school goals.

In a study conducted by Leithwood and Steinbach (1995), it was discovered that female principals demonstrated instructional leadership styles more than male principals. All principals in their study whose leadership style was determined to be teacher-centered or building-centered were male. However, Leithwood and Steinbach concluded that "gender alone was not a sufficient explanation for leadership style" (p.249).

Greer and Finley (1985) reported that "either no sex differences or females rated higher in studies comparing male and female administrative behavior" (pp. 2-3). These authors contended that "data supporting the value of women as administrators have been ignored, submerged, and, incredibly, treated with skepticism" (p. 3). Prestine and Thurston (1994) contended that "current educational reform trends and student demographic trends may reshape the role of school principals to be less stereotypically masculine" (p. 137). They also reported that more women are earning degrees in educational

administration even though there have been "few challenges to assumptions about the 'masculine' definition of administrative roles, responsibilities, and job requirements" (p. 139).

According to Prestine and Thurston, "female stereotypes do not match administrative job stereotypes which have been defined in masculine terms" (p. 140). They ascertained that females may not be chosen for some administrative positions because they do not match the picture of an administrator. It was discovered that women were more easily placed in administrative positions in school districts where women previously served in administrative roles. Elementary school principalships seem to carry a less masculine image than some other administrative positions such as those at the central office level (Prestine & Thurston, 1994). These authors reported that in 1985 women held 25% of the elementary principalships. Data showed women administrators to be more common in larger school districts and urban areas and where there is a larger number of minority students (Prestine & Thurston, 1994). Prestine and Thurston indicated that:

a leadership role that called for consensus building, creativity, and innovation was not within an exclusively masculine domain. . . . To the degree that [current] educational and demographic trends persist, the stereotype of administrator roles may become more gender-neutral. (p. 146)

Although the majority of educational employees are women, Greer and Finley (1985) stated, "They are the

minority of administrators at all levels and their numbers decrease with each step up the hierarchical ladder" (p. 3). Pigford and Tonnsen (1993) found that the only time in history that females held a majority of principalships was 1928, when 55% of the elementary school principals were women. In 1990, according to Pigford and Tonnsen, only 34% of elementary principalships were occupied by females. These authors described the typical female principal today as

mid to late 40s, white, taught for 15 years, first-born or only child, reared in a two-parent home where her father was a farmer and her mother a homemaker, married to a college graduate, a parent, had a master's degree, and was enrolled in a doctoral program. (p. 2)

Bacharach and Mundell (1995) described female principals as having the following qualities:

They place importance on their relationships with members of the school community; their daily work focuses on teaching and learning; their administrative style emphasizes cooperation and community; they experience sexism frequently; and they draw a thin line between their work and their private lives. (p. 348)

Pigford and Tonnsen (1993) observed that typical female principals used a cooperative leadership style, empowered others, were people- and relation-oriented, were accessible, moved easily from one role to another, made others feel comfortable, used "sensing skills," were able to understand others' feelings and reactions, and were able to work with

people at all levels. Farrant (1986) implied that females displayed an increased ability to maintain discipline and work with others through a more democratic leadership style. According to Fleishman (1989), data collected from 37 different occupational groups in 1987 using the LOQ showed females scored slightly higher on Consideration than males. Males scored higher on Structure than females.

Bacharach and Mundell (1995) identified traditional qualities of male principals as "personal power, management removed from instruction, top-down authority, and technical expertise" (p. 348). Pigford and Tonnsen (1993) offered the following profile of the male principal:

[He] was likely to have only spent five years as a teacher, was considerably younger, more likely to be married, less likely to be a member of a minority, and more likely to be from a small, rural community.
(p. 3)

Lemon (1982) suggested that "female principals were more adaptable in leadership behaviors than male principals" (p. 62). This may possibly be explained by female principals generally having more years of experience as "classroom teachers where they learned to deal with students' individual differences" (p. 62). Even though Lemon found differences in leadership style adaptability between male and female principals, he reported no difference between leadership style itself based on sex.

Few performance differences were found between male and female principals; however, Prestine and Thurston (1994) asserted that female principals tended to be more successful with instructional leadership responsibilities and they were more inclined to use collaborative strategies and participative decision making. Research suggested that female school principals concentrated more on leading in curriculum and instruction than male administrators. Explanations for this were offered by Hallinger, Bickman, and Davis (1990): (a) women tended to spend more years as teachers than men prior to becoming administrators, (b) females generally communicated more easily with elementary teachers who were predominantly women, and (c) incentive systems of women principals were typically more congruent with student learning.

Luebkemann and Clemens (1994) suggested that female principals may experience problems due to differing gender perspectives in administration. Owens (1991) determined that female principals dedicated more time to direct communication through greater involvement with staff and students. Owens also stated that female principals demonstrated a more caring, democratic, participatory style of leadership. According to Owens, women principals had a greater knowledge of teaching methods and directly assisted teachers more frequently.

Ozga (1993) said "the complex, varied, and rich experiences of women's lives develops their particular management styles and capacities" (p. 2). Although women

comprised the majority of educational employees, they were proportionately underrepresented in principalships (Ozga, 1993). This author stated that the majority of women principals were found in elementary schools and that the older the students, the less female principals were seen (Ozga, 1993). Lemon (1982) conducted a study of elementary school principals in North Dakota which revealed that female principals were found in smaller schools. Bacharach and Mundell (1995) stated that "white males are [more] likely to hold principalships in secondary schools, larger schools, and schools in the suburbs. . . . Women principals are more likely to be found in smaller schools, elementary schools, and urban schools" (p. 348). These authors concluded that white males generally received the principal positions with the most status.

Leadership styles used by female principals were found to be quite different from traditional, authoritarian models (Ozga, 1993). Women principals were discovered to be more democratic, flexible, and sensitive and were seen as better communicators with teachers (Ozga, 1993). Other differences observed between men and women principals' leadership styles were:

1. Women emphasize cohesiveness . . . [and] spend more time fostering an integrative culture and climate.
2. Women cope more readily with "routine" stress, and defuse conflict.
3. Group activities are much more highly valued by women

. . . Men attempt to retain control in group situations, or they withdraw. (Ozga, 1993, p. 11)

Ozga (1993) stated that female principals were more focused on relationships and "developed their organizations around the people who work within them" (p. 20). She indicated that women principals were less formal and emphasized collaboration and teamwork. Ozga contended that "differences within each sex are much greater than those between the sexes and that a simple view that all men or all women fall into one category of behavior is quite false" (p. 107). She described the following gender paradigms that illustrated prejudices:

1. Nurturing paradigm (feminine aspects of personality): caring, creative, intuitive, aware of individual differences, noncompetitive, tolerant, subjective, informal.
2. Defensive/aggressive paradigm (male aspects of personality): highly regulated, conformist, normative, competitive, evaluative, disciplined, objective, formal. (p. 111)

Ozga (1993) said the men principals she studied believed that the nurturing paradigm described them better than the defensive/aggressive one, and this "raised issues of their sexuality" (p. 113). Greer and Finley (1985) suggested that "traditional social stereotypes of females as nurturers and supporters have limited their vocational opportunities" (p. 4). Epp (1993) determined that differences in male and female

leadership styles exist and that women are less likely to request assistance for fear it would be perceived as weakness. Epp (1993) contended that people must realize that female principals are equally capable even though they may use a different style than male principals. Amodeo and Emslie (1985) reported that "minority women have styles and characteristics which are in some way different from the male styles [and] . . . women's better developed capacity for interdependence is one such difference" (p. 15). These authors held that "interdependence produced group harmony" (p. 4).

Pigford and Tonnsen (1993) found that men and women principals were indeed different with regard to age, race, and marital status; however, these variables were not associated with the performance of school principals. They discovered that "marital status was rarely an issue for males aspiring to administrative positions, but it continued to be a major issue for married, single, and divorced women" (Pigford & Tonnsen, 1993, p. 14). Females still must

struggle to overcome the male stereotype of principal . . . despite the growing preference for more so-called "feminine" characteristics in leadership style, [such as being] cooperative, people-oriented, curriculum-centered, and consensus-driven (Pigford & Tonnsen, 1993, p. 16).

Bacharach and Mundell (1995) suggested that "males can be ordinary but women must be extraordinary to attain a principalship" (p. 348). Pigford and Tonnsen (1993)

determined that males entered a teaching career and intended to advance into administrative positions. According to their study, "51% of beginning male teachers expressed a desire to enter school administration. . . . Only 9% of single women, 8% of married women, and 19% of the widowed, separated, and divorced women expressed similar aspirations" (p. 11). A study conducted by Richardson, Wallman, Prickett, and Cline (1989) of Kentucky elementary school principals revealed 35% were female and 65% were male. Farrant (1986) stated that "school system organizational structure and socialization provide little opportunity for women's career mobility" (p. 51). Farrant (1986) reported that men more often aspire to principal positions than women.

According to Farrant (1986), females were found to be as assertive as males in "communicating their ideals, attitudes, and beliefs in a positive manner" (p. 37). However, she reported that "the more assertively women managed a situation, the more likely they were to be judged poorly in performance rating" (pp. 40-41). Pigford and Tonnsen (1993) reported that female teachers resisted women principals who used an autocratic leadership style.

Shakeshaft (1987) contended that female school principals used a more democratic leadership style; however, Eagly, Makhijani, and Klonsky (1992) found that some women and men demonstrated leadership styles that were atypical of principals of their sex. Only by studying principals' leadership styles will more conclusive findings be discovered

as to whether male and female principals have different administrative styles.

Leadership Style and Age

A leader's age appears to influence the leadership style he or she uses. Fleishman (1989) reported that data collected from 37 different occupational groups in 1987 using the LOQ showed an increase in Consideration scores as age increased. No relationship was discovered between Structure scores and age. Youngs (1988) found that school administrators under age 45 viewed human relations skills as critical while school administrators over age 45 ranked technology skills as more important.

Farrant (1986) reported that generally older administrators demonstrate more assertive behaviors. Lemon's (1982) study of North Dakota elementary school principals revealed that "there was no difference between principal's age and his or her leadership style. Most female principals in the study were under age 25 or over age 56" (p. 63).

Pigford and Tonnsen (1993) reported that white females were usually in their mid- to late forties and black females were in their mid-forties to early fifties before they acquired their first principalship. Males were described as being considerably younger when they received their first positions as principals (Pigford & Tonnsen, 1993).

The average age of elementary school principals in a Kentucky study was 47 years. Slightly more than half of the

group studied were 45 or over, including 6% who were 60 or over (Richardson et al., 1989). In a study conducted in Indiana, Gousha (1986) found that the average age of Indiana principals was 47 years old. In the same study it was determined that principals of elementary schools were "almost evenly distributed across the ages 31-60" (p. 47).

Leadership Style and Ethnicity

According to Pigford and Tonnsen (1993), "black women seemed to have . . . coping skills and had . . . traditionally assumed more responsibilities at an earlier age . . . which assisted them in competency, aggressiveness, and organization" (p. 17). It was reported that black females "fear being perceived as having lost their racial identity or having misplaced priorities" (p. 18). In addition, black women have been accused of hindering the progress of black men by competing with them for principalships (Farrant, 1986; Pigford & Tonnsen). Farrant also reported that:

the image of the black woman as a hard, overly aggressive, superstrong, sexpot has continued to taunt her. . . . The psychological burden of living with this image and yet struggling to maintain one's identity has been a burden even the contemporary black woman continues to bear. (p. 90)

Pigford and Tonnsen (1993) discovered that typically black females

received their first principalship in their forties to fifties after teaching for twelve to twenty years . . . came from homes where their mothers worked outside the home in unskilled labor positions . . . , were more likely to be married than white women . . . , devoted considerable time to church activities . . . , were usually assigned to "tough, predominantly black elementary schools" . . . , had a strong sense of mission and accomplishment, and were intense about their work.

(p. 3)

Ozga (1993) contended that black women believed they often experienced difficulty in gaining the support and loyalty of the school staff. She suggested that this may be due partially to the fact that loyalty is sometimes a result of "shared values and/or cultural links" (p. 19). Ozga reiterated that some black women principals reported they found that they must "constantly prove themselves to both staff and parents" (p. 22). She asserted:

The stereotyped view of black women as "exotic" often seemed to encourage a certain amount of "disrespect." . . . It was felt that what was a normal part of a black woman's self-identity was treated as theater (i.e., braided hair and traditional Asian dress) and tended to be the focus of attention. (p. 22)

Prestine and Thurston (1994) stated that the "increased minority student population could have strong implications for increased placement of minorities in educational

administrative positions" (p. 145). Literature supported that women in principalships were still a minority; however, black women were a small group within that minority (Ozga, 1993). According to Ozga (1993), these principals were isolated by race and by gender. Bacharach and Mundell (1995) reported that minorities comprised about 13% of both principals and teachers, which is substantially less than their representation in these populations. In their study of Kentucky elementary school principals, Richardson and his associates (1989) found that almost 94% were white and 6% were black. A study conducted in Indiana revealed 96% of Indiana principals were white, 3% were African American, and 1% were Hispanic (Gousha, 1986). Ozga reported that networking for support was historical in the black women's movement. She held that benefits obtained from this strategy were: emotional support, shared tactics, and the merging of ideas.

According to Thompson (1992), many school districts that search for minorities to fill administrative positions "report great difficulty finding minorities with all the right qualities" (p. 6). In South Carolina the Minority Administrators Program (MAP) was created in 1986 by the Department of Educational Leadership and Policies at the University of South Carolina in collaboration with the South Carolina Department of Education and several school districts to develop a pool of qualified minority prospects for future administrative positions and to assist talented minority educators develop to their fullest potential (Thompson, 1992).

Many states, South Carolina included, experienced an absence of minority school principals at the same time they were undergoing an increase in the number of minority students (Hodgkinson, 1990). Since the implementation of MAP, one-third of the 600 minority educators identified as being interested in educational administration careers completed principal certification requirements (Thompson, 1992). MAP was "recognized by the Southeastern Educational Improvement Laboratory in 1989 as the only program in the southeast that focused on the preparation of minorities for the principalship and actively advocated their placement" (Thompson, 1992, p. 10). Thompson stated that the "MAP alumni rated the panel discussions and presentations by minority administrators as the most beneficial parts of the program because of the exchange of ideas, exposure to different leadership styles, and simple networking opportunities" (p. 10).

Leadership Style and Marital Status

Male principals were reported more likely to be married than female principals by Pigford and Tonnsen (1993). They found that, nationally, 92% of male principals were married compared to 59.8% of female principals. Richardson and his associates (1989), in their study of Kentucky elementary school principals, observed that 98% of respondents were married and only 2% were single. According to Pigford and Tonnsen, black female principals were more likely to be married than white female principals. In their study of

beginning teachers, Pigford and Tonnsen determined that "9% of single women, 8% of the married women, and 19% of the widowed, separated, and divorced women expressed a desire to become school principals" (p. 11). Pigford and Tonnsen (1993) reported that

Married women principals indicated that employers questioned their ability to juggle the responsibilities of their homes and families; single women administrators indicated that employers perceived them as not being sufficiently family- or child-oriented; and divorced women administrators reported that they were perceived as having no sense of family or permanency. (p. 13)

Leadership Style and Educational Background

Lemon's (1982) North Dakota data revealed no difference between the amount of education principals had and their leadership style. Farrant (1986) stated that administrators who had advanced degrees were more assertive than those who held bachelor's degrees. According to DeMoulin (1992), "self-efficacy is a mediator of the way one performs and the way one achieves" (p. 3). In a study he conducted of 375 principals in the midsouth and northeastern regions of the United States, DeMoulin (1992) found that middle and secondary principals with high efficacy also had high educational levels.

Pigford and Tonnsen (1993) determined that female principals had more advanced degrees than their male counterparts. According to these authors, the typical female

principal held a master's degree and was registered in a doctoral program. These authors reported that females made up 50% of the enrollment in school administration programs on a national level. A study conducted by Gousha (1986) of Indiana principals found that "47% of these principals held specialist degrees, 77% of which were in administration and supervision; almost 5% held doctoral degrees" (p. 48). Farrant (1986) reported that "even though more women are enrolling in education administration programs for doctorates and credentials, women graduates are more likely than men to enter careers other than public school administration" (p. 50).

Leadership Style and Experiential Background

In a study conducted by Leithwood and Steinbach (1995), results indicated that "first-year principals may be more inclined to model instructional leadership styles" (p. 249). Possible explanations the authors gave for this finding were that "new principals may be in a transition year and are finding a way to bridge the gap between the classroom and the principal's office; or [they have] a love of teaching and reluctance to break with the past" (p. 250). Whatever the reason, Leithwood and Steinbach (1995) contended that the "number of years in the role may provide some of the rationale for leadership style" (p. 250). Farrant (1986) found that "managers with more experience gave more assertive responses" (p. 39). She further stated that "men and women [experienced

managers] thought they were more in control of events that shaped their lives" (p. 40).

Lemon (1982) found in his study of North Dakota elementary principals that there was no relation between years of principalship experience and the principal's leadership style. However, he determined that the more years of teaching experience a principal had the less he or she emphasized relationships.

Pigford and Tonnsen (1993) found that the average male principal had 5 years experience teaching before he became a principal, while female principals had 15 years of previous teaching experience. Black female principals typically had taught 12 to 20 years before receiving their first position as principals.

Richardson and his associates' (1989) Kentucky study concluded that about half of the principals had served at their present school for 5 or fewer years. Over three-quarters of the principals had been at their present schools for 10 or fewer years. The typical Kentucky elementary school principal had served at his or her present school for 6 years. Slightly more than half of the principals had 10 or fewer total years of principalship experience.

Bundy and Horman (1989) conducted a study of 156 California elementary school principals who served at schools identified by the California State Department of Education as "distinguished" and discovered that they averaged 12.1 years of experience as principals and 5.07 years as principals of

the schools they currently served. These elementary school principals averaged 1.57 years as assistant principals before they became principals. Prior to the time they were assistant principals, they served as classroom teachers for an average of 8.9 years.

Gousha's (1986) study, conducted in Indiana, revealed that state's principals had served an average of 8 years at their respective schools. Positions these principals held just prior to becoming principals were teachers (69.5%), assistant principals (9%), or coaches (2%).

Leadership Style as It Relates to Demographic Qualities

Leadership Style and School Setting

Sweeney (1992) observed that urban schools generally have less positive climates than suburban or rural schools, while suburban schools have the most positive climates. He contends that key beliefs and values reflected in the principal's behavior influence all faculty members, such as the degree to which principals assist and support teachers, the degree to which concern is shown for others, and the extent to which fairness, consistency, honesty, and confidentiality are demonstrated. Sweeney concluded that trust was the most significant key belief. Lemon (1982) found "no difference . . . between the size and type of community in which the school was located and the principal's leadership style" (p. 64).

Hill (1993) discovered that rural communities were especially open to new ideas and welcomed trained professionals. He reported, "Decentralized management becomes a basic tool for survival" for rural principals (p. 78). This author implied that it was essential for rural principals to "recognize and use informal, community-based networks" (p. 78) because they worked isolated from peers. However, he also observed that these "community networks are more invasive and more powerful, just as the principal's role in the community is more visible" (p. 80). According to Hill, the principal's style and behaviors, once observed and evaluated by the town's "communication network," became the latest "gossip" (p. 79). Hill concluded that "an individual's personality and family history may mean as much or more than coursework and credentials" (p. 78).

Leadership Style and School Size

Sweeney (1992) determined that the size of the school and community type make a difference in school climate. He ascertained that the larger the school became, the less positive the school climate. The principals who used a human resource leadership style were reported to have a more positive school climate. The climate of the school was reflected in the beliefs and values that influence behaviors of the principal and staff.

According to DeMoulin (1992), "building population was a significant variable" (p. 6) in principal self-efficacy.

Principals with higher building populations had lower self-efficacy. Self-efficacy was described by DeMoulin as "the belief that one can successfully execute a behavior to achieve a given outcome" (p. 1).

In the Kentucky elementary school principalship study previously cited (Richardson et al., 1989), most principals, 69% served at schools with fewer than 500 students. The average student population of the 156 schools in Bundy and Horman's 1989 California study of distinguished elementary school principals was 538. Gousha (1986) found in his study of Indiana school principals that 82% were principals in schools of 740 or fewer students.

Sagor (1991) asserted that "schools need to be of manageable size, if they are to be well led" (p. 24). He believes that principals need an "intimate knowledge of teachers in their buildings, the programs being offered, and the individual students attending their schools" (p. 24). Sagor stated that "when schools get too large, these potent techniques [which enable principals to become partners with their teachers] would be lost" (p. 25).

Leadership Style and State Regional Area of the School

A thorough search of the ERIC network, education data bases, and dissertation abstracts was conducted to determine if any literature had been published regarding the relationship between the leadership styles of Georgia elementary school principals and the regional areas of the

state in which their schools are located. No such information was found.

The Leadership Opinion Questionnaire

The Leadership Opinion Questionnaire (LOQ) was developed as a result of the Ohio State University Leadership Studies which were recognized for their research directed toward determining constructs of leader behavior (Bass, 1981; Fleishman, 1973; Hemphill, 1950; Stodgill & Coons, 1957). Structure and Consideration were among the constructs of leader behavior identified in the Ohio State Leadership Studies. Halpin and Winer (1957) reduced the original number of constructs formulated to four factor-analytic constructs which included Structure, Consideration, Production Emphasis, and Sensitivity. According to Buros Seventh Mental Measurements Yearbook (1972), Structure and Consideration, because they explained 83 percent of the variance among the four constructs, were acknowledged as the major constructs of leadership style. Parallel constructs used in other studies have been compared to the Structure and Consideration constructs of the LOQ. Bales (1953) compared the task and social-emotional leadership constructs he had used with Structure and Consideration. Fiedler (1967) related the terms task-oriented and relation-oriented to Structure and Consideration, respectively.

The LOQ was devised in 1960 and revised in 1969 by E. A. Fleishman to determine leadership style based on the

constructs of Structure and Consideration. Factor analysis and item selection procedures were used to develop the measures of Structure and Consideration (Fleishman, 1953, 1989; Halpin & Winer, 1957; Landy, 1978; Tscheulin, 1973).

The instrument has been used by a wide variety of groups, including educational institutions, industrial and business organizations, medical organizations, military organizations, and governmental institutions during the past thirty years. Group norms, means, and standard deviations for 73 groups are reported in the examiner's manual which was revised by Fleishman in 1989. School principals are among educational positions listed. Numerous estimates of reliability and validity on the instrument are reported from a variety of sources. Results are reported in the examiner's manual for 37 different occupational groups from data collected in 1987 which analyzed LOQ scores in relation to gender and age. According to Fleishman (1989), the data show females scored slightly higher on Consideration than males and males scored higher on Structure than females. He discovered an increase in Consideration scores as age increased, but reported no relationship between Structure scores and age.

Principal effectiveness was not being examined in this study. The LOQ was chosen for use because the purpose of this study was simply to determine the leadership styles of Georgia elementary school principals based on the constructs of Structure and Consideration. As previously stated, that is the purpose of the LOQ. Once leadership styles were

determined, they were compared to biographic and demographic variables.

Summary

In summarizing this extensive review of literature, some commonalities were discovered. The literature reviewed reinforced the important role that the principal's leadership style plays in determining how he or she leads the school. Principal leadership style influences the behaviors and actions that principals emphasize.

The numerous leadership theories and studies reviewed presented the phenomenon of leadership as a dichotomy based on varying amounts of emphasis placed on two major constructs, Structure and Consideration. Structure, structure-oriented, task, task-oriented, bureaucratic, job-centered, and concern for production or things were terms used to describe the dimension of leadership style which emphasizes a leader's concern for accomplishing specific results or goals. Consideration, considerate behavior, relations, relation-oriented, relation-motivated, interpersonal relationships, employee-centered, people-oriented, and concern for people were terms used to describe the dimension of leadership style which emphasizes a leader's concern for forming relationships and interacting with those he or she supervises.

Although the role of leadership has become multifaceted, the literature reviewed supported the contention that Structure and Consideration remain recognized as two major

constructs of leadership. Different leadership styles were determined to exist and were perhaps associated with certain biographic and demographic variables.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This study focused on determining leadership styles, based on the constructs of Structure and Consideration, of Georgia elementary school principals during the 1995-1996 academic year. Once leadership styles were identified, based on the constructs of Structure and Consideration, relationships between the independent variables and the dependent variables were examined. Leadership style was described in terms of the two dependent variables, Structure and Consideration. The independent variables included biographic characteristics of the principals and demographic characteristics of the schools they served during the 1995-1996 academic year. Biographic characteristics examined were: sex, age, ethnicity, marital status, administrative experience, teaching experience, and educational level. Demographic characteristics of the school sites studied were: school setting (urban, rural, or suburban), state regional area, and school size (student population); definitions of these terms were left to the discretion of respondents.

Research Questions

The six research questions investigated were:

1. Is there a dominant leadership style, based on the constructs of Structure and Consideration, exhibited

by Georgia elementary school principals and, if so, what is that dominant style?

2. Is there a relationship between the Structure subscale scores on the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire of Georgia elementary school principals and selected biographic variables?
3. Is there a relationship between the Consideration subscale scores on the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire of Georgia elementary school principals and selected biographic variables?
4. Is there a relationship between the Structure subscale scores on the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire of Georgia elementary school principals and selected demographic variables?
5. Is there a relationship between the Consideration subscale scores on the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire of Georgia elementary school principals and selected demographic variables?
6. What is the biographic profile of the typical Georgia elementary school principal and what are the demographic characteristics of the typical Georgia elementary school?

Subjects

Georgia elementary schools for 1995-1996 were identified through the use of the 1995 Georgia Public Education Directory. The subjects were selected through random sampling

from among the 1309 Georgia elementary school principals listed in the 1995 Georgia Public Education Directory; a Table of Random Numbers (Fraenkel & Wallen, 1990) was utilized. Therefore, each Georgia elementary school principal who served during the 1995-1996 academic school year had an equal and independent opportunity of being included each time another subject was chosen (Sprinthall, 1990). Borg and his associates (1993) held that simple random sampling was effective because it yields research data that can be generalized to a larger population within margins of random error that can be determined statistically.

The sample size consisted of 400 subjects. The Table for Determining Sample Size from a Given Population (Krejcie & Morgan, 1970) specified 297 from a population of 1309 for a ± 5 percent margin of error, but due to expected mortality, the number was increased to 400.

Design

This was a nonexperimental, post-facto research study conducted to determine possible relationships between Georgia elementary school principals' leadership styles, based on the constructs of Structure and Consideration, and various biographic and demographic variables. The rationale for selecting this research design was that the group formation could not be controlled, nor could the independent variables be manipulated. All the independent variables existed prior to the study. Sprinthall (1990) maintained that post-facto

research categorizes subjects according to their possession of specific characteristics or behaviors. Subjects are then measured on some other variable and a correlation or a difference is determined. He further stated that, "In some post-facto research, the goal is to establish not differences but associations" (p. 245). Studies of relationships typically examine multiple variables believed to be related to a major, complex variable (Gay, 1992). Such is the case in this study.

Relationships were examined between the two dependent variables, Structure and Consideration, and the following independent, continuous variables: age, years of experience as a principal, years of experience as an assistant principal, years of experience as a classroom teacher, and school size. Relationships were also examined between the two dependent variables, Structure and Consideration, and the following independent, categorical variables: sex, ethnicity, marital status, highest college degree completed, school setting, and regional area of the state (of Georgia) in which the school is located.

Instruments

Data were collected from Georgia elementary school principals during the 1995-1996 academic year, using the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire (LOQ), developed by E. A. Fleishman in 1960, revised in 1969 (Appendix A), and the Georgia Elementary School Principal Questionnaire (GESPO),

designed by the researcher (Appendix B). Respondents were assured their responses would remain confidential. It was also explained that results of the study would only be reported in group form, not individually.

The Leadership Opinion Questionnaire, a 40-item instrument, was selected for use in this study based on favorable reviews in Buros Eighth Mental Measurements Yearbook (1978), including the validity and reliability of the instrument and its goodness-of-fit for the purpose of this study. The LOQ provides measures of two independent constructs of leadership style: Structure and Consideration. The instrument contains 20 items which measure Structure and 20 items which measure Consideration. The items are formatted in basic multiple-choice style. There are five potential responses for each item, with each response being scored 0 through 4. The potential score range for each of the subscales of Structure and Consideration is 0 to 80. The Structure and Consideration scores are independent; thus, the score for Structure has no bearing on or any predictive ability of the score for Consideration, and vice-versa. The Structure and Consideration scores should only be used together to determine if a principal demonstrated a noticeable gap between the two scores. If a principal scored noticeably higher on one subscale than the other, this may suggest the higher score reflected his or her dominant leadership style.

As explained previously, Buros Sixth Mental Measurements Yearbook (1965) noted that Structure is

the extent to which an individual is likely to structure his own role and those of his subordinates toward goal attainment, and Consideration is the extent to which an individual is likely to have job relationships characterized by mutual trust, a certain warmth between supervisor and subordinates, and the like [emphasis added]. (p. 1371)

The LOQ was reviewed by Jerome Doppelt, Assistant Director for The Psychological Corporation in New York (Buros Sixth Mental Measurements Yearbook, 1965). He reported that

The questionnaire may be useful as an aid in management training . . . [and] is easily administered, yielding two scores. . . . Factor analysis studies revealed structure and consideration patterns as independent. . . . Reliability estimates, computed by the split-half method for four groups, varied between .79 and .88 for the S [structure] scale and between .62 and .89 for the C [consideration] scale. Test-retest coefficients for two groups were .74 and .67 for S and .80 and .77 for C. The author [Fleishman] of the LOQ [Leadership Opinion Questionnaire] believed that the factor analysis and item selection procedures used to develop the consideration and

structure measures support the construct validity of the instrument. (pp. 1370-1371)

The instrument was also reviewed by Wayne Kirchner, Manager of Personnel Research, Minnesota Mining and Manufacturing Company, St. Paul (Buros Sixth Mental Measurements Yearbook, 1965). He stated

The basic use of the questionnaire is to determine an individual's leadership "style" in terms of the two constructs (structure and consideration). These two dimensions of supervisory behavior . . . were derived through factor analytic techniques. . . . Statistically, the instrument appears to be reliable.

Correlations are cited for a variety of groups for both the split-half and test-retest methods. Correlations range from .62 to .89 for the two scales. . . . This questionnaire appeared to have validity in determining leadership style or supervisory behavior. (p. 1372)

The GESPO was developed by the present researcher for this study based upon the needs of the study and the population surveyed. This questionnaire was composed of 3 school demographic questions and 12 principal biographic questions. Questions were phrased in basic questioning styles, including multiple-choice and fill-in-the-blank items.

This survey was designed to fit on a single sheet of 8 1/2" x 11" paper. It could be completed within 3 minutes. All information requested was readily available to respondents.

The GESPO was reviewed by a doctoral-level class of 10 practicing school administrators at Georgia Southern University (Statesboro) during Summer Quarter 1995 to establish content validity. Class members were asked to make recommendations related to the readability and clarity of survey questions. They were also asked to record the amount of time required to complete the survey.

In addition, the instrument was piloted in August 1995 with eight Georgia public elementary school principals selected by the researcher, based on convenience. They were asked to review the GESPO to determine if its items could be easily understood by the research population and if they were properly worded. Information gathered was helpful in redesigning the questionnaire.

Data Collection

Data were collected on personal characteristics of the principals being studied--age, sex, ethnicity, marital status, years of administrative experience, teaching experience, and educational level--to provide a profile of Georgia elementary school principals. Demographic data on school sites where the subjects were principals were also collected: setting, state regional area, and student population. In the fall of 1995, the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire (LOQ) and the Georgia

Elementary School Principal Questionnaire (GESPO) were sent, along with a cover letter and self-addressed, stamped envelope, to 400 randomly selected principals (Appendix C). A drawing was held for all principals who returned their responses within two weeks to encourage prompt responses. The prize awarded was a night at the Foley House Inn in Savannah. Respondents were identified for the drawing by returning an entry form (Appendix D) with their name, address, and telephone number in the respondent envelope, such that cards could be removed and respondent anonymity maintained.

Follow-up questionnaires were mailed to principals who did not complete and return them within two weeks. A telephone call was made as an additional reminder, requesting returns from those who had not responded after three weeks of the initial mailing. Several respondents returned the LOQ but failed to include the GESPO. The GESPO was administered by telephone to these respondents.

Data Analysis

The dependent variables, Structure and Consideration, were analyzed initially for all subjects and the mean, median, mode, standard deviation, and range were provided for each of these variables. Structure and Consideration scores were grouped by 10-point intervals to depict the ranges and percentages for the LOQ. Frequency counts and percentages for Structure and Consideration were determined in each category for the following independent, categorical variables: school

setting, state regional area, sex, ethnicity, marital status, and highest college degree completed. The means and standard deviations were supplied for the following independent, continuous variables: school size, age of principal, years of experience as a principal, years of experience as an assistant principal, and years of experience as a classroom teacher. These data provided a profile of the respondents.

Relationships between the independent, continuous variables and the leadership subscales were determined through use of the Pearson's r correlation coefficient. These correlations were tested for significance using an alpha of .05.

Means and standard deviations for each variable category were determined for the independent, categorical variables. The one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was then used to examine the relationships between these variables and the leadership style subscales. The one-way ANOVA determined if differences in group means were significant. These F tests were conducted at the .05 level of significance. Significant F values resulted in further comparisons of group means using Scheffé's post-hoc analysis.

CHAPTER IV

REPORT OF DATA AND DATA ANALYSIS

This chapter presents an analysis of the data collected through the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire (LOQ) and the Georgia Elementary School Principal Questionnaire (GESPO). Prior to this study, no information was available describing leadership styles of elementary school principals in Georgia. This research was directed toward biographic and demographic characteristics of practicing Georgia elementary school principals and how these independent variables may be related to leadership styles of these elementary school principals. Demographic and biographic data collected with the GESPO provided a profile of Georgia elementary school principals and schools in which they served. Data collected on the LOQ provided information on leadership styles, based on the constructs of Structure and Consideration, of Georgia elementary school principals.

Description of Sample

Sixty-one percent of the questionnaires were completed and returned. The biographic and demographic data derived from the GESPO and the leadership style scores derived from the LOQ were analyzed for the 243 returns of the 400 mailed. In order to have a $\pm 5\%$ margin of error in terms of generalizing results to the population of 1309, 297

responses were needed (Krejcie & Morgan, 1970). However, only 243 questionnaires were returned; therefore, the margin of error was slightly larger than that sought ($\pm 5.68\%$).

Table 1 presents the frequencies and the percentages for each group included in each independent, categorical variable in the study. More than three-quarters (79.4%) of the Georgia elementary school principals in the sample group were white. There were no responses for ethnicities other than white and African American on the GESPO. A large percentage (81.9%) of these Georgia elementary school principals were married. There was a fairly equal distribution of males and females. Two-thirds of the principals (67.9%) in the sample group reported their highest college degree completed to be the Education Specialist's degree; 16.5% held doctoral degrees. No respondents reported the bachelor's degree as their highest college degree completed.

Demographic data collected and reported in Table 1 indicated that of the 243 schools in the sample group, 26.7% were located in urban areas. The rest were somewhat evenly divided between suburban areas (37.9%) and rural areas (35.4%). The definitions of urban, suburban, and rural were left to the discretion of the respondents. More schools in the study (35.8%) were located in the Atlanta Metro region than in any other part of the state. The remainder were fairly evenly distributed among Middle Georgia, South Georgia, and North Georgia. Regional areas were self-

reported by respondents from among four areas designated on a state map provided on the GESPO .

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics for Categorical Variables Concerning Georgia Elementary School Principals

Variable/Group	Frequency ^a	Percentage
Ethnicity		
African American	50	20.6
White	193	79.4
Sex		
Male	118	48.6
Female	125	51.4
Marital Status		
Married	199	81.9
Single	13	5.3
Widowed	7	2.9
Divorced	24	9.9
Highest College Degree Completed		
Master's	38	15.6
Specialist's	165	67.9
Doctorate	40	16.5
School Setting		
Rural	86	35.4
Suburban	92	37.9
Urban	65	26.7
Regional Area of State		
North Georgia	45	18.5
Atlanta Metro	87	35.8
Middle Georgia	52	21.4
South Georgia	59	24.3

^an = 243.

The mean and standard deviation for each of the independent, continuous variables in the study are presented in Table 2. The average number of students enrolled in the 243 schools in the sample group was 600. Responses indicated that the average age of the Georgia elementary school principals in the sample group was 48 years. Respondents' ages ranged from 31 to 64 years, with 77% being between 41 and 54.

Based on data collected, the typical Georgia elementary school principal has been a principal for 9 years, served as an assistant principal for 4 years, and taught for 11 years. None of the principals in the sample group was an assistant principal for more than 15 years. About one in five (19%) never served as an assistant principal. The same number, 19%, taught for 5 or fewer years while 6% taught for 20 or more years. Two-thirds of the respondents (66%) have been principals for 10 or fewer years.

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics for Continuous Variables Concerning Georgia Elementary School Principals

Variable	Mean	SD
Population of School	600.38	232.07
Age	47.86	6.03
Years as Principal	9.11	7.39
Years as Assistant Principal	4.07	2.89
Years as Teacher	10.94	5.05

Analysis of Leadership Styles

The first research question was concerned with the leadership styles, based on the constructs of Structure and Consideration, of principals of Georgia elementary schools. The findings for the leadership style instrument used, the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire, were summarized and are discussed. Table 3 indicates the mean, median, mode, standard deviation, and range for the two constructs of leadership style examined, Structure and Consideration.

Table 3

Descriptive Information from the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire Measuring Leadership Styles of Georgia Elementary School Principals

Subscale	Mean	Median	Mode	SD	Range
Structure	46.65	46.00	44.00/46.00	7.09	36.00
Consideration	56.65	57.00	57.00/58.00	6.38	36.00

Data revealed that the 243 Georgia elementary school principals who responded, as a group, scored higher on Consideration than on Structure. The sample group's mean for Consideration was 56.65 and its mean for Structure was 46.65. The potential score range for each of the leadership styles was 0-80. Score distributions were bimodal on both the Consideration subscale and the Structure subscale. Scores on Consideration ranged from 40-76, with 19 principals scoring 57 and 19 principals scoring 58. Scores

on the Structure subscale ranged from 27-63, with 21 principals scoring 44 and 21 principals scoring 46. A similar number, 18 principals, scored 45 on the Structure subscale. The same range of scores (36) was present for both constructs. The distribution for Structure and the distribution for Consideration were nearly symmetric, as evidenced by the similarity of the mean, median, and mode for both Structure and for Consideration.

Georgia elementary school principals, as a group, demonstrated a tendency toward higher Consideration scores as shown by the data displayed in Table 4. Nearly all 99.6% of the principals in the study scored 41 or above on Consideration, whereas 81.5% scored 41 or above on Structure. However, with nearly 75% of the principals scoring between 41-60 for both constructs, it appears that both Consideration and Structure are key elements of these principals' leadership styles. The distribution of scores for Structure and Consideration can be seen more definitively in Figure 1.

Correlational Analysis

The second through fifth research questions were concerned with determining if there was a relationship between the Structure and Consideration scores on the LOQ and selected biographic and demographic variables. The Pearson's r correlation coefficient was used to compute the

quantifiable relationships between the Structure and Consideration scores and the five independent, continuous

Table 4

Score Ranges and Percentages for the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire Measuring Leadership Styles of Georgia Elementary School Principals

Score Range	Consideration	Structure
0-10	0%	0%
11-20	0%	0%
21-30	0%	1.2%
31-40	.4%	17.3%
41-50	15.6%	53.9%
51-60	56.0%	24.7%
61-70	26.8%	2.9%
71-80	1.2%	0%

variables. These independent, continuous variables were age, population, years as an assistant principal, years as a principal, and years taught. Table 5 presents the correlation matrix which depicts these relationships.

A very weak negative correlation was discovered between Consideration and years as a principal ($r = -.1808$, $p = .005$). Similarly, a very weak negative correlation was

Table 5

Pearson Correlation Matrix of Leadership Opinion Questionnaire and Continuous Variables Concerning Georgia Elementary School Principals

	Consider- ation	Structure	Age	School Popula- tion	Years as Assistant Principal	Years as Principal Taught
Consider- ation	1.000 p= .					
Structure	-.0974 p=.130	1.000 p= .				
Age	.0243 p=.707	-.1075 p=.095	1.000 p= .			
School Popula- tion	-.0431 p=.504	-.0080 p=.901	-.0669 p=.299	1.000 p= .		
Years as Assistant Principal	.0647 p=.367	.0769 p=.283	.1550 p=.030	.1037 p=.147	1.000 p= .	
Years as Principal	-.1808 p=.005	-.1329 p=.038	.5262 p=.000	.0330 p=.609	-.1329 p=.063	1.000 p= .
Years Taught	.1277 p=.047	.0454 p=.481	.0364 p=.572	-.1413 p=.028	-.1964 p=.006	1.000 p= .

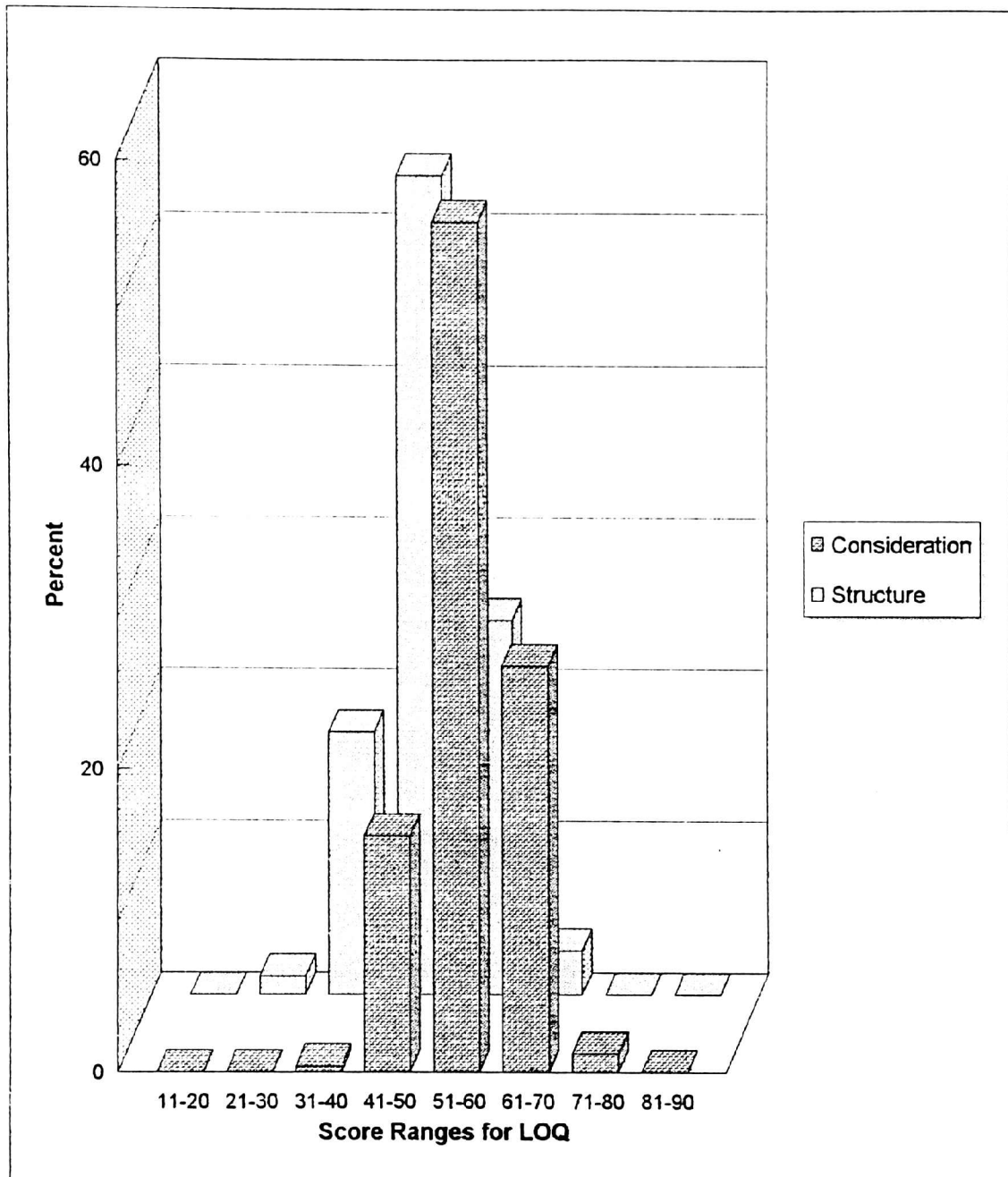


Figure 1. Leadership Opinion Questionnaire score ranges and percentages measuring leadership styles of Georgia elementary school principals.

found between Structure and years as principal ($r = -.1329$, $p = .038$). A very weak positive correlation was evidenced between Consideration and years taught ($r = .1277$, $p = .047$). No other significant relationships were found between the Structure and Consideration scores on the LOQ and the five independent, continuous variables in the study.

Comparison of Means

Table 6 presents the means and standard deviations for each categorical variable group on Structure and Consideration scores on the LOQ. The one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) test was used to determine if significant differences in group means on Structure and Consideration existed for each of the categorical variables. These six independent, categorical variables were ethnicity, marital status, sex, degree, region, and setting.

A significant difference was discovered between males and females on Consideration ($F = 10.964$, $p = .0011$). This indicated that female principals scored slightly higher on Consideration than males. Male principals in the sample group had a mean score of 46.1 ($SD = 6.98$) on Structure and females had a mean score of 47.1 ($SD = 7.19$).

African-American Georgia elementary school principals in the sample group scored slightly higher on Structure than white Georgia elementary school principals in the sample group. The mean score for African-American respondents on Structure was 49.6 ($SD = 6.43$), while the mean for white

respondents was 45.9 (SD = 7.06). A one-way ANOVA was run to compare the group means and a significant difference was found ($F = 11.889$, $p = .0007$).

A significant difference was discovered among group means on Structure scores for principals representing the

Table 6

Means and Standard Deviations for Leadership Opinion
Questionnaire Scores for Georgia Elementary School Principals
by Variable

Variable/Group	<u>Structure</u>		<u>Consideration</u>	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Ethnicity				
African American	49.63	6.43	55.76	6.22
White	45.86	7.06	56.89	6.41
Sex				
Male	46.17	6.98	55.29	5.98
Female	47.10	7.19	57.94	6.49
Marital Status				
Married	46.42	7.22	56.79	6.51
Single	48.38	7.18	55.46	3.93
Widowed	49.71	5.47	57.14	6.57
Divorced	46.71	6.33	56.04	6.48
Highest College Degree				
Master's	45.18	7.94	56.29	5.51
Specialist's	47.39	6.94	56.92	6.50
Doctorate	44.98	6.52	55.90	6.70
School Setting				
Rural	47.71	7.45	56.94	6.65
Suburban	46.16	7.24	56.87	6.23
Urban	45.94	6.29	55.97	6.25
Regional Area of State				
North Georgia	44.16	7.71	56.60	7.19
Atlanta Metro	46.15	6.96	55.99	6.74
Middle Georgia	46.94	6.48	57.56	6.10
South Georgia	49.03	6.71	56.88	5.38

four regional areas of the state ($F = 4.43$, $p = .0047$). The mean for South Georgia elementary school principals in the sample group was 49 ($SD = 6.71$) on Structure. The mean for North Georgia principals was 44.2 ($SD = 7.71$) on Structure, and for Atlanta Metro and Middle Georgia principals in the study the means were 46.2 ($SD = 6.96$) and 46.9 ($SD = 6.48$), respectively. Scheffé's post-hoc test was conducted which involved all possible pairwise comparisons of the four group means in order to determine where the specific significant difference was. It was determined that the mean Structure score from South Georgia respondents was significantly different from the mean Structure score of North Georgia respondents. No other significant differences were found between the LOQ scores on Structure and Consideration and the independent, categorical variables in the study.

A Profile of the Georgia Elementary School Principal

One of the objectives of this study, evidenced in the final research question, was to create a data base from which a profile of the practicing Georgia elementary school principal could be developed. According to the data collected (see Table 1), the typical Georgia elementary school principal in the sample group was a 48-year old, married, white female who had earned her Ed.S. degree; who had served as a principal 9 years; and who had 4 years experience as an assistant principal and 11 years as a teacher.

The final research question was also concerned with providing demographic data related to Georgia elementary schools in which the sample group served as principals during the 1995-1996 school year. The average school size (student population) was found to be 600. Over one-third of the 243 schools in the study were located in the Atlanta Metro region of the state, with the second largest number in South Georgia. Most schools in the sample group were located in suburban or rural areas, as opposed to urban areas.

Summary

This research study considered leadership style, based on the constructs of Structure and Consideration, as it related to demographic and biographic data collected in response to the Georgia Elementary School Principal Questionnaire and the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire.

An objective of this study was to determine if a dominant leadership style, based on the constructs of Structure and Consideration, was exhibited by Georgia elementary school principals, and, if so, what that dominant leadership style was. Respondents who participated in the study collectively scored higher on Consideration than on Structure, indicating that as a group they demonstrate a preference toward a leadership style which emphasizes Consideration more than Structure. This finding suggests that elementary school principals in Georgia may place more importance on forming job relations and interacting

with their staffs than on accomplishing specific results. The findings also indicate that both constructs, Structure and Consideration, are prominent elements of the Georgia elementary school principal's leadership style.

The study sought to determine if there was a relationship between the Structure and the Consideration scores on the LOQ of Georgia elementary school principals in the study group and selected biographic and demographic variables. A very weak negative correlation was found between both Structure and Consideration scores and principalship experience. This indicated the more years a respondent had served as a principal, the lower his or her scores on Structure and on Consideration. A very weak positive correlation was discovered between Consideration and years taught, which suggested that the more years a principal had taught, the higher he or she scored on Consideration. One should use caution in interpreting these correlation coefficients due to the weakness of the relationships.

A relationship was found between Consideration and sex which indicated that female principals use a leadership style which emphasizes Consideration more than male principals. A relationship was also determined between Structure and ethnicity, with African-American principals in the sample group emphasizing Structure slightly more in their leadership style than white principals. Another significant difference which existed was in Structure scores

among respondents from the four regional areas of the state. Results indicated that elementary school principals in the sample group from South Georgia scored significantly higher than principals from North Georgia on Structure, suggesting they prefer a leadership style which puts greater emphasis on Structure.

CHAPTER V
SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

Summary

This research study examined the leadership styles, based on the constructs of Structure and Consideration, of Georgia elementary school principals and how they may be associated with selected biographic and demographic variables. The extant literature pertaining to leadership styles, leadership theories, and personal characteristics of leaders was reviewed and discussed. The data base of biographic and demographic characteristics reported in other studies was also researched and discussed. This study expands the knowledge base by establishing a data base of biographic and demographic information on Georgia elementary school principals.

Data were collected utilizing the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire (LOQ), developed by E.A. Fleishman (1969), and the Georgia Elementary School Principal Questionnaire (GESPO), designed by the researcher. The survey instruments were mailed to principals of 400 Georgia elementary schools who were identified through the use of the 1995 Georgia Public Education Directory. This sample population of 400 was randomly selected from the 1309 Georgia elementary schools listed in the directory. Subsequent to the initial mailing, follow-up questionnaires were mailed and phone

calls were made in an effort to increase the number of responses. A drawing was held for all principals who returned their responses within two weeks to encourage prompt responses. Data analyses were conducted on the 243 returned surveys (61% response rate).

The LOQ asked participants to complete 40 questions which resulted in measures of two independent constructs of leadership: Structure and Consideration. The GESPO asked respondents for certain biographic information identifying their sex; age; ethnicity; marital status; highest college degree completed; and years of experience as a teacher, as an assistant principal, and as a principal. The GESPO also sought demographic information about the school sites where these principals served, including: school setting, school size, and state regional area. These data were collected in order to develop a profile of the Georgia elementary school principals in the study.

Questionnaire responses were scored by the researcher and the data were analyzed. Relationships were determined at the .05 level of significance between the independent variables and the two constructs of leadership, Structure and Consideration. The data were displayed in tables and were accompanied by narrative text.

Conclusions

The first research question proposed stated: Is there a dominant leadership style, based on the constructs

of Structure and Consideration, exhibited by Georgia elementary school principals and, if so, what is that dominant style? Within the limitations of the study, the following conclusion can be drawn. Data suggested that the 243 Georgia elementary school principals in the sample group exhibited a dominant leadership style which placed more emphasis on Consideration than on Structure. This suggests that elementary school principals in Georgia stress relationships and interaction more than accomplishing specific results.

The second through fifth research questions, which focused on the relationship between the Georgia elementary school principals' leadership styles and selected biographic and demographic variables, were addressed. It was determined that the more years a principal had taught, the higher he or she scored on Consideration. It was found that the more years of principalship experience, the lower respondents scored on Structure and on Consideration. Female principals scored higher on Consideration than male principals. African-American principals who participated in the study scored higher on Structure than responding white principals. Elementary school principals in South Georgia scored significantly higher on Structure than those in North Georgia.

While some statistically significant results were found, few practical conclusions can be drawn. Based on the information obtained, it was determined that the LOQ was

incapable of revealing reasons for variance in leadership styles of Georgia elementary school principals.

The final research question sought to develop a biographic profile of the practicing Georgia elementary school principal and a demographic profile of the typical Georgia elementary school. Data revealed the typical elementary school principal in Georgia was a 48-year old, married, white female who had earned her Ed.S. degree, who had served as a principal 9 years, as an assistant principal 4 years, and as a teacher 11 years. It was determined the typical elementary school in Georgia had a student population of 600, was located in a suburban or rural area, and was located in the Atlanta Metro region of the state or in South Georgia.

Discussion of Research Findings

Georgia elementary school principals who participated in this study collectively scored higher on Consideration than on Structure. This finding confirms that elementary school principals in Georgia demonstrate a preference toward Consideration. Ignatovich (1971) reported in his study of Iowa principals that the majority (69%) emphasized interpersonal relationships. In Lemon's (1982) North Dakota study, 23% of the principals demonstrated a high concern for relationships and a low concern for task while 3% of the principals demonstrated high concern for task and low concern for relationships. Wheatley (1994) suggested that

today's leaders are encouraged to focus on relationships and, she maintained, that leadership is being studied presently from this perspective. The literature stated that leadership has moved from the leader as individual to the leader as team player (Wheatley, 1994), from a one-way process to a relationship of mutual influence (Bacharach and Mundell, 1995), from bureaucracy to collegiality (Thomson, 1992), and from "the leader" to "leader of leaders" (Johnson, 1992, p. 62). Murphy (1994) contended that the principal's role was being redefined by shared power relationships. Ozga (1993) stated that school leadership needs to "nurture and support staff" (p. 12). The finding that this sample group demonstrated a preference toward Consideration, which emphasizes relationships and interaction, indicates that Georgia elementary school principals reflect the trend toward a relationship orientation to leadership observed in the professional literature.

Lemon (1982) also reported that the majority (58%) of the principals in his North Dakota study demonstrated a high concern for task and a high concern for relationships. Results of this study evidenced through nearly 75% of the principals scoring within the range of 41-60 for both constructs indicate that Structure and Consideration are vital components of their leadership styles.

Georgia female elementary school principals in the sample group scored higher on Consideration than male

principals in the study which supports the conclusion reported in other studies reviewed (Farrant, 1986; Ozga, 1993; Owens, 1991). Epp (1993) reported that female principals emphasized relationships more than male principals. Shakeshaft (1987) found that females used a more collaborative, less competitive style than males.

No significant relationship was found in this study between leadership style and principal's age. This was congruent with Lemon's (1982) study of North Dakota elementary school principals which revealed no difference between principal's age and his or her leadership style.

The analysis of data showed no significant difference in group means among principals whose highest degree earned is an M.Ed., an Ed.S., or an Ed.D. This is coincident with Lemon's (1982) conclusion regarding North Dakota principals that there is no relationship between amount of education and leadership style.

A very weak correlation was found between years served as a principal and leadership style, indicating that the more years one has served as a principal, the lower score he or she obtained on both Structure and Consideration. Lemon (1982) found no relationship between number of years of principalship experience and leadership style.

A weak positive correlation was found between years taught and leadership style among Georgia elementary school principals. The more years a principal had taught, the higher he or she scored on Consideration. This differs from

Lemon's (1982) finding that the more teaching experience a principal had the less emphasis he or she placed on relationships.

No difference in group means was found among Georgia elementary school principals in the study and their school setting. This was congruent with Lemon's (1982) conclusion that there was "no difference between the size and type of community in which the school was located and the principal's leadership style" (p. 64).

A significant difference was discovered among group means on Structure scores for principals representing the four regional areas of the state. Respondents in South Georgia scored significantly higher on Structure than those in North Georgia. African-American Georgia elementary school principals in this study scored slightly higher on Structure than white Georgia elementary school principals. When the literature search was conducted by this researcher, no information was found regarding the relationship between principal leadership style and either ethnicity or regional areas of the state of Georgia.

Data analysis revealed no relationship between school size (student population) or principal's marital status and his or her leadership style. Upon a thorough review of the literature, this researcher found no data related to leadership style and either of these independent variables.

Comparative Profiles of Elementary School Principals

One purpose of this study was to develop a comprehensive biographic profile of the practicing Georgia elementary school principal and a demographic profile of the typical Georgia elementary school. The knowledge base established by this information may be used in future comparative research studies.

The biographic profile revealed that the age of Georgia elementary school principals who participated in this study ranged from 31 to 64, with the average age being 48. This was similar to findings reported in the literature. The age range of respondents in Richardson, Wallman, Prickett, and Cline's (1989) study of Kentucky elementary school principals was from 25 to 70-plus, with an average age of 47. In an Indiana study, the age range of elementary school principals was from 31 to 60, with an average age of 47 (Gousha, 1986).

It was determined that 21% of Georgia elementary school principals involved in this study were African Americans. This supported the literature which stated that African Americans were a minority in educational administrative positions (Bacharach & Mundell, 1995; Ozga, 1993). Richardson and his associates (1989) reported in their study of Kentucky elementary school principals, 6% were African American and Gousha's (1986) study of Indiana school principals revealed 3% were African American. While percentages of African-American principals reported from

other studies were lower than the percentage in this study, African-American principals are clearly a minority.

In this study of Georgia elementary school principals, approximately one-half (51%) of respondents were female. This is different from findings reported in the literature which stated that females were extremely underrepresented (Ozga, 1993; Prestine & Thurston, 1994; Pigord & Tonnsen, 1993). A Kentucky study of elementary school principals revealed that 36% were female (Richardson et al., 1989). According to Pigford and Tonnsen (1993), in 1990 women only held 34% of elementary principalships nationwide. The literature disclosed that there were more women principals at the elementary school level than at the middle or high school level (Ozga, 1993; Bacharach & Mundell, 1995).

Data revealed that 82% of the Georgia elementary school principals in this study were married. This is similar to the 98% of married respondents, reported by Richardson and his associates (1989) in their Kentucky elementary school principal study. Pigford and Tonnsen (1993) found nationally that 92% of male principals were married and 60% of female principals were married. This study of elementary school principals in Georgia determined that 5% of the sample group were single. This compared to Richardson and his associates' (1989) study of Kentucky elementary school principals which reported 2% were single.

This study of Georgia elementary school principals found that 68% held an Ed.S. degree. Gousha (1986) reported

that almost half (47%) of Indiana principals held their Ed.S. degree. Of the 243 Georgia elementary school principals who participated in this study, 17% hold doctorates. This compares with the 5% of Indiana principals in Gousha's study who held doctorates.

Based on the data collected, the typical elementary school principal in Georgia has been a principal for 9 years. Bundy and Horman (1989) reported in their study that California elementary school principals had served an average of 12 years in the principalship. Richardson and his associates (1989) found that Kentucky elementary school principals had served an average of 11 years as a principal. This Kentucky study also reported that slightly more than half (54%) of the respondents had been principals for 10 or fewer years. This compares to the two-thirds (66%) of respondents in the current study who reported they had been principals for 10 or fewer years.

It was determined that the average Georgia elementary school principal in this study served as an assistant principal for 4 years. Bundy and Horman (1989) reported that California elementary school principals had served an average of 2 years in the assistant principalship.

The typical elementary school principal in Georgia had 11 years of teaching experience. Pigford and Tonnsen (1993) reported that the average male principal had 5 years experience teaching and female principals had 15 years of teaching experience. The typical elementary school

principal in Bundy and Horman's (1989) California study had served 9 years as a teacher.

The demographic profile disclosed that the average elementary school site in Georgia has a population of 600 students. This was similar to Bundy and Horman's (1989) California study which found the average student population was 538. Gousha (1986) reported in his Indiana study that 82% of the schools had 740 or fewer students. Richardson and his associates (1989) found that more than two-thirds (69%) of the Kentucky elementary schools had fewer than 500 students.

Over one-third of the schools included in the study were in the Atlanta Metro area and the second largest number were in South Georgia. More schools in the sample group were situated in suburban and rural areas than in urban areas.

Some similarities were found when data in the current study were compared with the literature. African-American principals were clearly a minority in all studies reviewed and in the current study. Another likeness discovered was the age range/average age of elementary school principals reported in the studies reviewed and in this study. In both the Kentucky study and the current study, it was found that a majority of the principals were married. This supported Pigford and Tonnsen's (1993) finding that, nationally, well over half of school principals are married.

The average number of years as a principal reported in the Kentucky and California studies and in this Georgia study were comparable. Similarly, the number of years the typical principal in the California study had served as an assistant principal and as a teacher was congruent with findings of the present study. More than half of the principals in both the current Georgia study and in the Kentucky study stated they had served in the principalship fewer than 10 years. Another similarity found was the average elementary school size (student population) found in other studies and in the present study.

Differences were also discovered when the present study was compared with what the literature stated. Other studies indicated that women were extremely underrepresented (Ozga, 1993; Prestine & Thurston, 1994; Pigford & Tonnsen, 1993). However, women were equally represented among Georgia elementary school principals who participated in the present study. Another difference discovered was that there were more elementary school principals in the current Georgia study who held Ed.S. degrees and doctorates than in Gousha's (1986) study of Indiana principals.

Implications

The conclusions previously cited apply only to the Georgia elementary school principals in the sample group. Their demonstrated preference toward Consideration suggests that elementary school principals in Georgia may place

greater importance on relationships and interaction than on achieving specific results. Some variations between Structure and Consideration among Georgia elementary school principals' leadership styles could be accounted for by sex, years of teaching experience, ethnicity, and regional area of the state; however, even when these variables were all examined, they accounted for an extremely small amount of the difference in principals' leadership styles. Leadership style is variable, but the source of the variation was not revealed by the LOQ in this study.

Practicing Georgia elementary school principals may compare their own leadership styles with those of other Georgia elementary school principals. Findings from this study may be helpful in filling the gap in research conducted prior to this on elementary school principal leadership styles and how they may be related to biographic and demographic factors.

Recommendations

This study was designed to investigate the leadership styles of Georgia elementary school principals and their relationship with selected biographic and demographic variables. In her review of literature, the present researcher uncovered no examples of studies on the leadership styles of Georgia elementary school principals; therefore, the study also provides a baseline of data for further research.

The following recommendations for further study are suggested:

1. This study should be replicated using a different leadership style instrument. As a result of this study, it was determined that the LOQ may not be the most appropriate instrument to measure leadership style. While statistical significance was found in several instances, the differences in means were small, thus indicating limited practical value of the results. Since there is significant variation in leadership style which cannot be linked to leadership behavior, additional studies may be able to reveal the extent and nature of the relationship.
2. A similar study should be conducted with middle and high school principals in Georgia.
3. A study should be conducted to determine the possible correlation between Georgia elementary school principals' leadership styles and other variables, such as personality characteristics, that may help to explain variance in leadership styles.
4. This study should inspire further investigation into the leadership behaviors of school principals in Georgia.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A
Leadership Opinion Questionnaire

Name _____ Date _____
 (Last) (First) (Middle)
 Organization _____ Position _____

Raw Score	Percentile	Other
C		

Description
of
Norm Group

INSTRUCTIONS:

For each item, choose the alternative which most nearly expresses your opinion on how frequently you *should* do what is described by that item. Always indicate what you, as a supervisor, or manager, sincerely believe to be the desirable way to act. Please remember—there are no right or wrong answers to these questions. Different supervisors have different experiences and we are interested only in your opinions.

Answer the items by marking an "X" in the box before the alternative that best expresses your feeling about the item. *Mark only one* alternative for each item. If you wish to change your answer, draw a circle around your first "X" and mark a new "X" in the appropriate box.



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1.
Put the welfare of your unit above
the welfare of any person in it.

- ☐ Always
- ☐ Often
- ☐ Occasionally
- ☐ Seldom
- ☐ Never

2.
Give in to your subordinates in
discussions with them.

- ☐ Often
- ☐ Fairly often
- ☐ Occasionally
- ☐ Once in a while
- ☐ Very Seldom

3.
Encourage after-duty work by
persons of your unit.

- ☐ A great deal
- ☐ Fairly often
- ☐ To some degree
- ☐ Once in a while
- ☐ Very seldom

4.
Try out your own new ideas in
the unit.

- ☐ Often
- ☐ Fairly often
- ☐ Occasionally
- ☐ Once in a while
- ☐ Very seldom

5.
Back up what persons under you
do.

- ☐ Always
- ☐ Often
- ☐ Occasionally
- ☐ Seldom
- ☐ Never

6.
Criticize poor work.

- ☐ Always
- ☐ Often
- ☐ Occasionally
- ☐ Seldom
- ☐ Never

7.
Ask for more than the persons
under you can accomplish.

- ☐ Often
- ☐ Fairly often
- ☐ Occasionally
- ☐ Once in a while
- ☐ Very seldom

8.
Refuse to compromise a point.

- ☐ Always
- ☐ Often
- ☐ Occasionally
- ☐ Seldom
- ☐ Never

9.
Insist that persons under you fol-
low to the letter those standard
routines handed down to you.

- ☐ Always
- ☐ Often
- ☐ Occasionally
- ☐ Seldom
- ☐ Never

10.
Help persons under you with their
personal problems.

- ☐ Often
- ☐ Fairly often
- ☐ Occasionally
- ☐ Once in a while
- ☐ Very seldom

11.
Be slow to adopt new ideas.

- ☐ Always
- ☐ Often
- ☐ Occasionally
- ☐ Seldom
- ☐ Never

12.
Get the approval of persons under
you on important matters before
going ahead.

- ☐ Always
- ☐ Often
- ☐ Occasionally
- ☐ Seldom
- ☐ Never

13.
Resist changes in ways of doing
things.

- ☐ A great deal
- ☐ Fairly much
- ☐ To some degree
- ☐ Comparatively little
- ☐ Not at all

14.
Assign persons under you to par-
ticular tasks.

- ☐ Always
- ☐ Often
- ☐ Occasionally
- ☐ Seldom
- ☐ Never

15.
Speak in a manner not to be
questioned.

- ☐ Always
- ☐ Often
- ☐ Occasionally
- ☐ Seldom
- ☐ Never

16.
Stress importance of being ahead
of other units.

- ☐ A great deal
- ☐ Fairly much
- ☐ To some degree
- ☐ Comparatively little
- ☐ Not at all

17.
Criticize a specific act rather than
a particular member of your unit.

- ☐ Always
- ☐ Often
- ☐ Occasionally
- ☐ Seldom
- ☐ Never

18.
Let the persons under you do their
work the way they think is best.

- ☐ Always
- ☐ Often
- ☐ Occasionally
- ☐ Seldom
- ☐ Never

19.
Do personal favors for persons
under you.

- ☐ Often
- ☐ Fairly often
- ☐ Occasionally
- ☐ Once in a while
- ☐ Very seldom

20.
Emphasize meeting of deadlines.

- ☐ A great deal
- ☐ Fairly much
- ☐ To some degree
- ☐ Comparatively little
- ☐ Not at all

- | | | | |
|---|--|--|---|
| 21.
Insist that you be informed on decisions made by persons under you. | <input type="checkbox"/> Always
<input type="checkbox"/> Often
<input type="checkbox"/> Occasionally
<input type="checkbox"/> Seldom
<input type="checkbox"/> Never | 31.
See to it that persons under you are working up to capacity. | <input type="checkbox"/> Always
<input type="checkbox"/> Often
<input type="checkbox"/> Occasionally
<input type="checkbox"/> Seldom
<input type="checkbox"/> Never |
| 22.
Offer new approaches to problems. | <input type="checkbox"/> Often
<input type="checkbox"/> Fairly often
<input type="checkbox"/> Occasionally
<input type="checkbox"/> Once in a while
<input type="checkbox"/> Very seldom | 32.
Stand up for persons under you, even though it makes you unpopular with others. | <input type="checkbox"/> Always
<input type="checkbox"/> Often
<input type="checkbox"/> Occasionally
<input type="checkbox"/> Seldom
<input type="checkbox"/> Never |
| 23.
Treat all persons under you as your equals. | <input type="checkbox"/> Always
<input type="checkbox"/> Often
<input type="checkbox"/> Occasionally
<input type="checkbox"/> Seldom
<input type="checkbox"/> Never | 33.
Put suggestions made by persons in the unit into operation. | <input type="checkbox"/> Often
<input type="checkbox"/> Fairly often
<input type="checkbox"/> Occasionally
<input type="checkbox"/> Once in a while
<input type="checkbox"/> Very seldom |
| 24.
Be willing to make changes. | <input type="checkbox"/> Always
<input type="checkbox"/> Often
<input type="checkbox"/> Occasionally
<input type="checkbox"/> Seldom
<input type="checkbox"/> Never | 34.
Refuse to explain your actions. | <input type="checkbox"/> Often
<input type="checkbox"/> Fairly often
<input type="checkbox"/> Occasionally
<input type="checkbox"/> Once in a while
<input type="checkbox"/> Very seldom |
| 25.
Talk about how much should be done. | <input type="checkbox"/> A great deal
<input type="checkbox"/> Fairly much
<input type="checkbox"/> To some degree
<input type="checkbox"/> Comparatively little
<input type="checkbox"/> Not at all | 35.
Ask for sacrifices from persons under you for the good of your entire unit. | <input type="checkbox"/> Often
<input type="checkbox"/> Fairly often
<input type="checkbox"/> Occasionally
<input type="checkbox"/> Once in a while
<input type="checkbox"/> Very seldom |
| 26.
Wait for persons in your unit to push new ideas. | <input type="checkbox"/> Always
<input type="checkbox"/> Often
<input type="checkbox"/> Occasionally
<input type="checkbox"/> Seldom
<input type="checkbox"/> Never | 36.
Act without consulting persons under you. | <input type="checkbox"/> Often
<input type="checkbox"/> Fairly often
<input type="checkbox"/> Occasionally
<input type="checkbox"/> Once in a while
<input type="checkbox"/> Very seldom |
| 27.
Rule with an iron hand. | <input type="checkbox"/> Always
<input type="checkbox"/> Often
<input type="checkbox"/> Occasionally
<input type="checkbox"/> Seldom
<input type="checkbox"/> Never | 37.
"Needle" persons under you for greater effort. | <input type="checkbox"/> A great deal
<input type="checkbox"/> Fairly much
<input type="checkbox"/> To some degree
<input type="checkbox"/> Comparatively
<input type="checkbox"/> Not at all |
| 28.
Reject suggestions for changes. | <input type="checkbox"/> Always
<input type="checkbox"/> Often
<input type="checkbox"/> Occasionally
<input type="checkbox"/> Seldom
<input type="checkbox"/> Never | 38.
Insist that everything be done your way. | <input type="checkbox"/> Always
<input type="checkbox"/> Often
<input type="checkbox"/> Occasionally
<input type="checkbox"/> Seldom
<input type="checkbox"/> Never |
| 29.
Change the duties of persons under you without first talking it over with them. | <input type="checkbox"/> Often
<input type="checkbox"/> Fairly often
<input type="checkbox"/> Occasionally
<input type="checkbox"/> Once in a while
<input type="checkbox"/> Very seldom | 39.
Encourage slow-working persons in your unit to work harder. | <input type="checkbox"/> Often
<input type="checkbox"/> Fairly often
<input type="checkbox"/> Occasionally
<input type="checkbox"/> Once in a while
<input type="checkbox"/> Very seldom |
| 30.
Decide in detail what shall be done and how it shall be done by the persons under you. | <input type="checkbox"/> Always
<input type="checkbox"/> Often
<input type="checkbox"/> Occasionally
<input type="checkbox"/> Seldom
<input type="checkbox"/> Never | 40.
Meet with the persons in your unit at certain regularly scheduled times. | <input type="checkbox"/> Always
<input type="checkbox"/> Often
<input type="checkbox"/> Occasionally
<input type="checkbox"/> Seldom
<input type="checkbox"/> Never |

Appendix B

Georgia Elementary School Principal Questionnaire

GEORGIA ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PRINCIPAL QUESTIONNAIRE

(Please answer appropriately.)

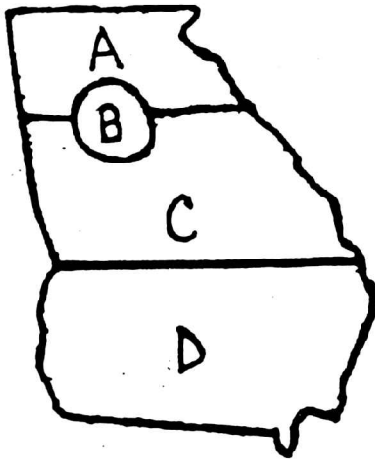
1. _____ Student population of school

2. School setting is mostly:

- _____ Rural
_____ Suburban
_____ Urban

3. School's regional area of state (see map):

- _____ (A) North Georgia
_____ (B) Atlanta metropolitan area
_____ (C) Middle Georgia
_____ (D) South Georgia



* "B"
includes
Decatur
Cobb
Fulton
Gwinnett
Newton
Henry
Fayette
Spalding

4. _____ Years as a principal
(include this year as 1 year)

5. _____ Years as principal at this school
(include this year as 1 year)

6. _____ Total number of years as an
assistant principal

7. _____ Total number of years as a
classroom teacher

8. Total number of years taught at the
following school levels:

- _____ Elementary
_____ Middle
_____ High

9. Total number of years experience in
other educational positions:

- _____ Media specialist
_____ Counselor
_____ Coach
_____ Other (specify)

10. Ethnicity:

- _____ African American
_____ Asian American
_____ White
_____ Hispanic
_____ Other (specify)

11. _____ Age

12. Sex:

- _____ Male
_____ Female

13. Marital status:

- _____ Married
_____ Single (never married)
_____ Widowed
_____ Divorced

14. Highest college degree completed:

- _____ Bachelor's
_____ Master's
_____ Specialist's
_____ Doctorate

Appendix C
Questionnaire Cover Letter



October 1995

Georgia Elementary School Principal:

My name is Cynthia LoMonaco. I am currently pursuing my EdD from Georgia Southern University in Educational Administration. As an assistant principal at two elementary schools in Savannah, I have become very interested in the leadership styles of Georgia elementary school principals. The information gained from this study will add to the knowledge base of principal leadership styles demonstrated at the elementary school level and determine if certain biographic and demographic factors may influence these styles.

My dissertation is titled *A Comparative Study of Leadership Styles and Demographic Variables of Georgia Elementary School Principals*. I am writing to request your help through your participation in this research study. The enclosed (1) fourteen-question personal/school information sheet and (2) *Leadership Information Questionnaire* should take no more than 10 to 15 minutes to complete. A self-addressed, stamped envelope is also enclosed for your convenience in returning the surveys. The coding on the return envelope is for follow-up purposes only and will be destroyed once your surveys are returned.

A drawing will be held for all principals who return their surveys, postmarked by Monday, November 6. If you wish to participate in this drawing, return the enclosed entry form with your name, address, and phone number or your business card. The prize awarded will be **a night at the Hyatt Regency in Savannah**. Please be assured that your answers will remain confidential as neither individual respondents nor schools will be identified. Findings will be reported in group form only, not individually.

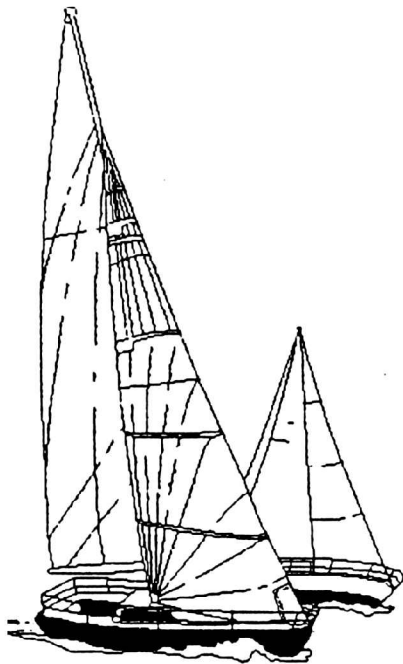
While you are, of course, under no obligation to participate in this study, my dissertation chair, Dr. Harbison Pool, and I hope that most of the 400 Georgia elementary principals randomly selected to take part in this study will wish to do so. As you no doubt realize, the study will be more meaningful if there is a very high level of participation. Completion and return of the questionnaire will be considered permission to use your results in the study. If you have questions about the surveys, you may contact me at 912/353-8445. If you have any questions or concerns about your rights as a research participant in this study, you may contact Tom Case, PhD, Chair of the Institutional Review Board at Georgia Southern University, 912/681-5205.

Thank you in advance for your assistance and support in this study. Please return all surveys as soon as possible.

Sincerely,

Cyndy LoMonaco

Appendix D
Entry Form for Drawing



A NIGHT IN SAVANNAH!

ENTRY FORM

NAME _____

ADDRESS _____

PHONE_(_____)_____

Winner will be notified by November 18

GOOD LUCK!

Appendix E
Questionnaire Follow-up Letter

November 1, 1995

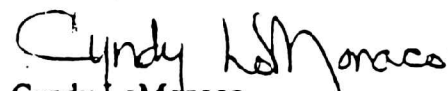
Dear Principal,

Recently you were mailed a Leadership Opinion Questionnaire and a Georgia Elementary School Principal Questionnaire. I am requesting your participation in this unique study of Georgia elementary school principals and their leadership styles, which is the topic for my doctoral dissertation through Georgia Southern University. If you no longer have the surveys originally sent, you may use the copies enclosed. If you have questions, please call my home phone and leave a message. Upon completing the surveys please mail or fax them to:

Cydy LoMonaco
102 Beaulieu Bend
Savannah, GA 31406
Phone: 912-353-8445
Fax: 912-352-0541

Those participants whose surveys are returned by November 6, may enter a drawing for a "Night in Savannah" by filling out the entry form below or enclosing a business card. Your help is very much appreciated.

Sincerely,


Cydy LoMonaco

**"A Night in Savannah"
Entry Form**

Name _____

Address _____

Phone _____

Appendix F

Institutional Review Board Approval Form

INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD
GEORGIA SOUTHERN UNIVERSITY

To be submitted to the Institutional Review Board for the protection of Human Subjects in Research prior to the initiation of any investigation involving human subjects. A copy of the research proposal and approval form must be attached.

APPROVAL FORM

Date: 2-8-95

Research Title: A Comparative Study of Leadership Styles and
Demographic Variables of Georgia Elementary
School Principals

Principal Investigator: Cynthia LoMonaco

Title: doctoral candidate

Department: Educational Leadership, Technology, and Research

Campus Address: LB 8143 Phone: 861-5307

Signature: Cynthia LoMonaco John L. Smith
Principal Investigator (if student research,
major professor)

[Signature]
Department Head

Determination of Institutional Review Board:

Human Subjects At Risk ✓ Not At Risk

Action: ✓ Approved Not Approved Reapproved

Returned for Revisions

Signed: Thomas L. Case Date: 8/21/95
Chair, Institutional Review Board