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**Gender differentiation in leadership styles among high school principals in North Carolina**

**Brookbank, Priscilla Gayle, Ed.D.**

**The University of North Carolina at Greensboro, 1991**

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GENDER DIFFERENTIATION IN LEADERSHIP STYLES  
AMONG HIGH SCHOOL PRINCIPALS  
IN NORTH CAROLINA

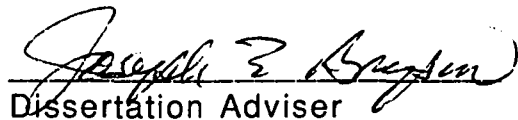
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BROOKBANK, PRISCILLA GAYLE, Ed.D. *Gender Differentiation in Leadership Styles Among High School Principals in North Carolina.* (1991) Directed by Dr. Joseph E. Bryson. 206 pp.

The purpose of this study was to discover differences in specific gender traits utilized by male and female high school principals as perceived by themselves and their subordinates. Six females and six males in matched schools comprised the sample.

Each principal was asked to complete Elias Porter's Strength Deployment Inventory<sup>®</sup> and Job Interactions Inventory<sup>™</sup> and to select five random instructional staff members to complete a Strength Deployment Inventory, Feedback Edition<sup>®</sup>.

For each principal, profiles were prepared showing (1) the principal's perception of his leadership style when things are going well and when not, (2) the teachers' perceptions of the principal's leadership style when things are going well and when not, and (3) the congruence of the principal's perceptions of his leadership style and his perception of what the job requires.

The following conclusions were drawn concerning the importance of gender in leadership style: (1) Leadership in North Carolina high schools is divergent, situational, and more likely to be androgynous among male principals, (2) Behavior patterns and traits employed by all principals are more likely to be feminine during favorable conditions and masculine during unfavorable

conditions, (3) Female principals frequently see themselves as functioning in masculine ways even when subordinates perceive them differently, (4) Female principals see themselves differently than do their subordinates more often than do males, (5) Male principals appear to be more often nurturant of others than are females, (6) Male principals appear to be more at ease with their roles as principal than do females who report fewer areas of compatibility, (7) Male principals appear to be more at ease with their divergence from compatibility, reporting greater variance than do females in their areas of incompatibility, (8) Male principals function more like other male principals and female principals function more unlike other female principals under normal conditions, and (9) All principals are more concerned with establishing and maintaining harmony in their schools than with production or orderliness.

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## CHAPTER 1

### INTRODUCTION

#### Overview

Among the first noticed problems in the body of literature surrounding leadership theories is that no one agrees with anyone else, beyond a superficial level. Quick secondary observations generally reveal that the theories have all been proven valid and/or reliable, more or less, by experimentation with or by application to an array of production-line businesses. Educators, therefore, find themselves in the position of having a “yes, but” reaction even to works such as In Search of Excellence by Peters and Waterman or A Passion for Excellence by Peters and Austin.

The first problem an educator who is interested in leadership faces is that while theories abound, they are largely other-than-education oriented, and they tend to be general rather than specific, descriptive rather than prescriptive. The hallmark Hawthorne studies at Western Electric gave rise to Elton Mayo’s “Rabble Hypothesis,” which had probably paved the way for perhaps the most commonly known leadership theory of all--

Douglas McGregor's Theory X-Theory Y assumptions.<sup>1</sup> The business-world orientation of management has shifted focus to personalized leadership only partially and only gradually. The theoretical evolution has witnessed emphases such as Theory Z, quality circles, statistical quality control and job enhancement. The movement, while it is definitely toward the humane, is still in its infancy.

In addition to this dilemma, it is difficult to separate the work on leadership from the work on successful schools. Sadly, "successful" has become so widespread that its currency has been devalued: what certainly began as an effort to qualify became mere quantification with the result that "successful" has come to have more to do with meeting minimum competencies than with excellence. Since James B. Conant's The American High School Today was published in 1959, the responses of practitioners and critics alike to those 21 recommendations have focused on change (and improvement) as a function of what is now referred to as

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<sup>1</sup> Paul Hersey and Kenneth H. Blanchard, Management of Organizational Behavior: Utilizing Human Resources (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1984), 48.

instructional leadership. The publication of A Nation at Risk did nothing to alter this bias. Unfortunately, however, even the effective schools literature has not yet isolated leadership behavior as a function of personal traits but has focused instead on the issue of accountability, an issue irrevocably associated with the business-school mentality of quantification: acknowledged "effective" schools are those that produce a certain percentage of standardized test scores at or above a certain number. Those who determine percentages and scores, however, tend to ignore the effect of so-called normal distribution: if the scores demanded go up, the frequency must decline. The result has been the unfortunate willingness to settle for the merely mediocre and to attempt to disguise minimums as somehow excellent. One must wonder why, for example, the State of North Carolina publishes the number of its high school students who "pass" its Minimum Competency Exam but not the number whose scores are perfect.

The emphasis on accountability has been applied not alone to the classroom teacher and the unit superintendent, but also to middle-level managers, the building principals, as school-site management, a concept currently being discussed under many

names but always with superlatives attached and with the fervor of reform, has come to be seen as “an essential ingredient for successful schools.”<sup>2</sup> It is the building principal who can translate the superintendent’s system-wide mission into a vision of what one school within the system can be and/or become. As Bennis and Nanus have contended, “Leadership is what gives an organization its vision and its ability to translate that vision into reality.”<sup>3</sup> Even Conant’s report pointed to the primacy of the building principal:

Three things are necessary to have a good high school, provided that it is of sufficient size: first a school board composed of devoted, intelligent, understanding citizens who realize fully the distinction between policy-making and administration; second, a first-rate superintendent; and third, a good principal. I assume that the school board will leave the development of curriculum to the administrative officers and the teaching staff but will reserve the right to ask the superintendent and through the superintendent the

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<sup>2</sup> Jack McCurdy, The Role of the Principal in Effective Schools: Problems and Solutions (Sacramento, California: Education News Service for the American Association of School Administrators, 1983), 5.

<sup>3</sup> Warren Bennis and Burt Nanus, Leaders: The Strategies for Taking Charge (New York, New York: Harper and Row Publishers, 1985), 20.



principal, searching questions about the details of the curriculum.<sup>4</sup>

In such an arrangement, the board and the superintendent manage the system, and the principal leads the school. The distinction is profound. Bennis and Nanus address the distinction thus:

'To manage' means 'to bring about, to accomplish, to have charge of or responsibility for, to conduct.'  
'Leading' is 'influencing, guiding in direction, course, action, opinion.' The difference may be summarized as activities of vision and judgment--effectiveness versus activities of mastering routines--efficiency.<sup>5</sup>

It is the building principal who interprets policy and is accountable to the superintendent for the compliance or non-compliance of a particular school. It is the building principal who selects staff and supervises/evaluates daily performance by those staff members. It is the building principal who analyzes and diagnoses a student body's performance and acts on specific needs and achievements. It is also the building principal who

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<sup>4</sup>James B. Conant, The American High School Today: A First Report to Interested Citizens (New York, New York: Signet Books, 1959), 50.

<sup>5</sup>Bennis and Nanus, 21.

provides the vision which bridges mission and reality and makes progress possible.

There can be little question that building-level leadership is a key concept and crucial factor in actual school success. Ronald Edmonds pointed to the five key factors that influence school success: (1) strong instructional leadership, (2) clearly-defined goals, (3) safe environment which encourages learning, (4) high teacher expectations, and (5) basic skills emphasis as evidenced and accompanied by frequent testing.<sup>6</sup> The list is already an old one, but it has only been added to--not challenged--by subsequent works. It is by now generally agreed that the behaviors of the building level principal govern school success to such a degree that further investigation of those traits which govern leadership behaviors would seem the next, and most, logical step.

### Significance of the Study

Typically, the high school principal has been white and male. North Carolina saw its first female high school principal

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<sup>6</sup> Ronald Edmonds, "Effective Schools for the Urban Poor," Educational Leadership 37 (October 1979): 21-25.

when Mrs. Rebecca Stieghel was appointed Principal of Mt. Airy High School in 1979. The phenomenon of a female high school principal is so rare and so new that its very newness would seem to indicate more than merely cultural bias or gamesmanship. Both factors are powerful as well as obvious, but of crucial importance beyond the superficial or the obvious is the heart of this research: how can there be found, and in what measure, the blending of leadership traits and proclivities that make student learning more effective through making instruction and instructional leadership easier to achieve, more truly effective when accomplished, and more rewarding to do. The literature points clearly to the situational nature of effective leadership, the androgynous blend of personal qualities inherent in leadership, and the direct relationship between workers' satisfaction and their productivity. Therefore, it would seem that objective information about which gender traits prevail in the leaders perceived by their staffs in the most positive light is not only appropriate but also crucial.

#### Purpose of the Study.

The purpose of this study is to discover whether there are different specific gender traits utilized by male high school

chief executive officers and female high school chief executive officers as perceived by themselves and their subordinates. This study will produce a leadership profile of perceived effective high school chief executive officers based on gender traits though not on gender itself.

### Questions to be Answered

1. Are there gender-specific perceptions of the chief executive officer's leadership style among instructional staff members?
2. Do the gender-specific perceptions of instructional staff that do exist match the gender-specific perceptions of the chief executive officers themselves?
3. Is there a higher instance of nurturance among female chief executive officers as contrasted with male chief executive officers?
4. Do female chief executive officers perceive their jobs to require fewer typically feminine traits than masculine or fewer typically masculine traits than feminine?
5. Do male chief executive officers perceive their jobs to require fewer typically feminine traits than masculine or

fewer typically masculine traits than feminine?

6. Is there a "typical" leadership style for female chief executive officers? Is there a "typical" leadership style for males? If there is a "typical" leadership style for female and male, how do they differ and how are they alike?

### Organization of the Remainder of the Study

Chapter 2 will focus on a review of the literature on leadership styles, specifically as they can be gender differentiated. This will include general information on leadership theories from the historical perspective and specific information on leadership traits. Additionally, the chapter will narrow its focus to leadership studies within the educational environment, specifically the public high school.

Chapter 3 is the methodology chapter. Here the focus will be on the instruments available to examine leadership styles and the rationale for selection of the instrument of choice. General information will be given on instruments not chosen to justify their exclusion and the subsequent choice. In turn, the Blake-Mouton, the FIRO B, the Myers-Briggs, the Fiedler, and the Hersey-Blanchard instruments will be reviewed and reasons for their

inadequacies in this study examined. The three Elias Porter instruments, the Strength Deployment Inventory,<sup>®</sup> the Job Interactions Inventory,<sup>™</sup> and the Strength Deployment Inventory. Feedback Edition<sup>®</sup> will be presented and the congruence of the three different but still complementary instruments illustrated.

Following selection of the instrument to be used, selection of sample was a relatively simple process. There were, at the time of selection, eleven female high school principals in North Carolina who had been in their positions at least the previous year. Of these, one was under suspension pending a conflict-of-interest hearing and, therefore, unavailable as a subject. Two others were principals in schools not matchable in terms of size and location. The remaining eight female high school chief executive officers were contacted individually to elicit their cooperation and support. All agreed to complete a Strength Deployment Inventory<sup>®</sup> and a Job Interactions Inventory<sup>™</sup> and to ask five instructional staff members chosen at random to complete a Strength Deployment Inventory. Feedback Edition<sup>®</sup>. Complete materials were returned by six of the eight. Repeated

efforts to secure materials from the others were unsuccessful.

Once this limited sample had been secured, their schools were paired with six schools having male chief executive officers on the basis of size and general location (whether urban or rural, piedmont or coastal plain, generally affluent or needy). These male chief executive officers were contacted individually and inventories completed and returned for comparison with those from matched schools. The inventories will be discussed at some length in Chapter 3 and the three areas of finding will be given:

- 1) The principal's self assessment of his relational skills given two different sets of circumstances:
  - a) stable conditions
  - b) unstable conditions marked by conflict and opposition
- 2) The principal's self assessment of his positional requirements in interpersonal dealings
- 3) The teachers' assessment of the principal's relational skills given two different sets of circumstances:
  - a) stable conditions
  - b) unstable conditions of conflict and opposition.

Chapter 4 will focus on the completed inventories. Each principal's leadership style will be shown on the Strength Deployment Inventory<sup>®</sup> grid, and teachers' perceptions as measured by the Strength Deployment Inventory, Feedback Edition<sup>®</sup> will be presented. Each principal's Job Interactions Inventory<sup>™</sup> will be shown in comparison to his perception of his leadership style. The heart of the chapter lies in likenesses and differences between the male and female chief executive officers.

Chapter 5 then focuses on the extant literature, the surveys administered, and the questions posed at the outset. Once the questions are answered, the conclusions and implications will be given. The heart of the chapter will be those conclusions based on findings and recommendations for further study/action.

#### Definitions of Terms

Terms defined, for purposes of this study, are as follows:

Management: manipulation, covert or overt, or the ability "to bring about, to accomplish, to have charge of or responsibility for, to conduct."<sup>7</sup>

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<sup>7</sup> Bennis and Nanus, 21.



Leadership: qualities, more personal than positional, which make possible “influencing, guiding in direction, course, action, opinion.”<sup>8</sup>

Leadership style: “the consistent behavior patterns that they (leaders) use when they are working with and through other people as perceived by those people.”<sup>9</sup>

Leadership behaviors: much more specific actions undertaken in an effort to adapt a general style to a specific set of circumstances and/or personalities which may change or have changed.

Leadership traits: personal traits relied upon or employed to wield influence over others. While it is a truism that research has “failed to produce one personality trait or set of qualities that can be used to discriminate leaders and nonleaders,”<sup>10</sup> it is also true that certain traits, i.e. assertiveness, either help or hinder (depending upon the extent and degree to which they are

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<sup>8</sup> Ibid., 21.

<sup>9</sup> Hersey and Blanchard, 126.

<sup>10</sup> Ibid., 83.

relied upon) in the attempt to influence. Such traits include, but are not limited to, assertiveness, self-confidence, ability to communicate clearly, personal courage, integrity, and organizational skill.

Gender traits: personal traits which have, historically, been culturally and socially associated primarily with a specific gender. Examples of masculine gender traits would include but not be limited to assertiveness, self-confidence, personal courage, organizational loyalty, and discipline. Examples of feminine gender traits would include but not be limited to compassion, nurturance, organizational skill, and attention to "housekeeping" details.

## CHAPTER 2

### RELATED LITERATURE

#### Introduction

Having defined "leadership" as influence rather than manipulation, as practiced in "management," one is still left with myriad theories about how this influence is achieved. Popularized theories include the so-called "genetic" theory, which holds that true leaders are born, not made, the so-called "Divine" theory which holds that true leaders are infused by the breath of the Divine with qualities which make it possible for them to influence, the "leadership-can-be-developed" theory which stresses the importance of learned and calculated behaviors, the "Nature vs. Environment" theory which contends that individuals must inherit the capacity to lead but must practice and hone their leadership skills, and the "cream rises to the top" theory which holds that only superior persons become leaders and that these superior persons will, in fact, become leaders regardless of the barriers thrown in their paths. Each of the generalized theories leaves something to be desired in

specificity and raises more questions than answers, unfortunately. In an effort to achieve both understanding of the specific leadership processes and a methodology designed to improve those processes, businesses have turned to theorists who offer empirical data.

### Historical Background

The first comprehensive work in the area of leadership was done by a businessman for businessmen. Ralph Stogdill's Handbook of Leadership addresses the historical perspective on and general view of leadership within organizations, whether cultures or businesses. Stogdill's definition of leadership is "the process (act) of influencing the activities of an organized group in its efforts toward goal setting and goal achievement."<sup>1</sup> In his work, Stogdill includes a review of the six theoretical constructs of leadership development from the business point of view:

- (1) Great Man Theories
- (2) Environmental Theories

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<sup>1</sup> Ralph M. Stogdill, Handbook of Leadership (New York: Macmillan Publishing Co., 1974), 10.

- (3) Situational Theories
- (4) Interaction-Expectation Theories
- (5) Humanistic Theories
- (6) Exchange Theories

(1) Great Man Theories

Many leadership theorists extended Darwin's concept of the survival of the fittest to the field of leadership development during the latter part of the nineteenth century. A number of theorists, probably beginning with Galton's 1879 investigation of the heredity of prominent individuals, advanced the premise that leadership is an inherited trait.<sup>2</sup> In 1913, F. A. Woods studied the development of fourteen nations over a span of five to ten centuries and advanced the theory that the "man makes the nation and shapes it in accordance with his abilities."<sup>3</sup> In his 1931 "The Biology of Leadership," A. E. Wiggam contended that the survival of the fittest and the interbreeding of these individuals combine to create an aristocracy which contrasts biologically

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<sup>2</sup>Stogdill, 17.

<sup>3</sup>F.A.Woods, The Influence of Monarchs (New York: Macmillan Publishing Co., 1913), quoted in Stogdill, 17.

with the lower classes. Thus, the upper classes must procreate at a sufficient rate to assure a stock of societal leaders.<sup>4</sup> In 1936, Dowd contended that there is no such thing as real leadership by the masses. Individuals in every society possess "different degrees of intelligence, energy and moral force, and in whatever direction the masses may be influenced to go, they are always led by the superior few."<sup>5</sup> Akin to the theory of the "Great Men," is what Stogdill called "trait theories of leadership."<sup>6</sup> Stogdill cites from Barnard (1926), Bingham (1927), Tead (1929) and Kilbourne (1935) to explain leadership in terms of traits of personality and character. The "Great Man Theories" have met much criticism as elitist and sectarian because they support the segregation of the masses based upon biological superiority. Due to their orientation, the "Great Man Theories" fail to account for leadership development in the non-elite. This theoretical

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<sup>4</sup> A. E. Wiggam, "The Biology of Leadership," in H. C. Metcalf, Business Leadership (New York: Pitman, 1931), quoted in Stogdill, 17.

<sup>5</sup>J. Dowd, Control in Human Societies (New York: Appleton-Century, 1936), quoted in Stogdill,17.

<sup>6</sup> Stogdill, 17.

construct is a product of its era, dominated by racism and class segregation.

## (2) Environmental Theories

Contrary to the elitist, individualistic orientation of the "Great Man Theories," the Environmental Theories view leadership as a characteristic of the event rather than of the individual. Several early theorists held that "The emergence of a great leader is a result of time, place and circumstance."<sup>7</sup> In 1909, Mumford claimed that leaders arise due to their personal ability to contend with and find solutions to specific societal problems.<sup>8</sup> By 1918, Bogardus maintained that the style of leadership needed by a group is directly correlated to the characteristics of the group and nature of the problem the group must solve.<sup>9</sup> In 1928, Person held two hypotheses to explain the nature of leadership: (1) the situation determines the leadership qualities as well as the

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<sup>7</sup> Stogdill, 18.

<sup>8</sup> E. Mumford, The Origins of Leadership (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1909), quoted in Stogdill, 18.

<sup>9</sup> E. S. Bogardus, Essentials of Social Psychology (Los Angeles: University of Southern California Press, 1918), in Stogdill, 18.

leader required for that situation and (2) the qualities in the individual which may be revealed in a particular situation as leadership qualities are themselves the products of prior leadership situations which have shaped him.<sup>10</sup> The theory holds that the specific predicament prescribes specific human qualities necessary for its proper resolution; the individual is merely an arbiter of and channel for those called-for traits.

The fallacy of the environmental theories is that the situation does not always, unfortunately, elicit proper leadership. If the situation were the true determinant of leadership, it could be concluded that the requisite leadership would always be present in all events. There is, obviously, something missing from the environmental construct of leadership theory.

### (3) Situational Theories

The situational theorists attempted to bridge the gap in the environmentalists' concept of leadership. Situational theorists contend that it is a combination of personal characteristics and the nature of the situation that determine the appropriate style of

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<sup>10</sup> H. S. Person, "Leadership As A Response to Environment," Educational Record Supplement, no. 6. (1928), pp. 9-21, quoted in Stogdill, 18.



leadership. Among the earlier investigators, many attempted to establish the relevance of the human-relationships element in leadership situations. In "Leadership and Conjuncture," C. M. Case held that leadership is produced by the conjuncture of three factors: (1) the leader's personality traits, (2) the make-up and nature of the group and its members, and (3) the situation (whether change or problem) confronting the group.<sup>11</sup>

Following World War II, previously developed theories were expanded. In 1952, Garth and Mills contended that leadership goes beyond personality and situation and is composed of (1) personal traits, (2) the group perception of the leader, (3) the leadership role, and (4) the situation.<sup>12</sup> In 1955, Stogdill and Shartle held that leadership is the result of dynamic interaction between individuals rather than merely of the traits of a single person.<sup>13</sup>

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<sup>11</sup>C. M. Case, "Leadership and Conjuncture," Sociology Research 17, (1933), 510-513, quoted in Stogdill, 18.

<sup>12</sup>H. Garth and C. W. Mills, Character and Social Structure (New York, Harcourt, Brace, 1953), quoted in Stogdill, 19.

<sup>13</sup>Ralph M. Stogdill and C. L. Shartle, Pattern of Administrative Performance (Columbus: Ohio State University Bureau of Business Research, 1958) quoted in Stogdill, 19.

In 1961, Warren Bennis, in a startling revision of and amendment to prevailing leadership theory, proposed the inclusion of: (1) the effects of bureaucracy, (2) the effects of non-formal organizations and interpersonal interaction, (3) the effects of command hierarchy, (4) the effects of attempts to enrich jobs through job enlargement programs which allow for self-actualization and (5) the effects of participative management styles.<sup>14</sup>

The situational construct has received popular acclaim because it has attempted to take into account all of the dimensions that affect leadership development and is versatile, arguing for different leadership styles for different situations.

#### (4) Interaction-Expectation Theories

Interaction-Expectation theorists premise their arguments upon the idea that as group members interact, more admiration will build, resulting in clarity of group norms. Stogdill's 1959 "Expectancy-Reinforcement Theory" states that as individual members in a group interact continuously, there is a growing

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<sup>14</sup>W. G. Bennis, "Revisionist Theory of Leadership," Harvard Business Review, 1, (1961), 26-36 and 146-150, quoted in Stogdill, 19.

expectation that individuals will act and interact in ways similar to their past patterns. The typical manners of interacting not only predict but control parameters of the role which the leader will be allowed to play, and thus any real leadership becomes even more a situational phenomenon. "Thus, the individual's role is defined by mutually confirmed expectations relative to the performance and interaction he will be permitted to contribute to the group."<sup>15</sup> One's potential for leadership is determined by one's ability to initiate and maintain structure in group interaction and expectation. Stogdill cites M. G. Evans' 1970 Path Goal Theory to show how the extent to which a leader shows consideration tends to predetermine his followers' perception of rewards available to them and how the extent to which the same leader initiates structure can determine the followers' perception of how to attain the available rewards. House's 1971 Motivational Theory of Leadership made the claim that it is the responsibility of leaders to provide proper motivation for their followers to attain group goals. They must do so through clarifying,

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<sup>15</sup> Ralph M. Stogdill, Individual Behavior and Group Achievement (New York: Oxford University Press, 1959) quoted in Stogdill, 20.

simplifying and directing the tasks associated with goal achievement. Reward, used in this scheme as a form of positive reinforcement, and punishment, used as negative reinforcement, are believed to aid in the achievement of group goals.<sup>16</sup>

#### (5) Humanistic Theories

Central to the humanistic theories is the concept of the human being as innately motivated. By design, the organization is structured and controlled. It is the purposeful intent of the leader to mold the organizational structure to allow the individual the mobility to achieve his own goals while simultaneously achieving those of the organization.<sup>17</sup>

Chris Argyris contended that organizations tend to mold individuals and manipulate their functions in order to achieve organizational goals, while individuals are primarily self-interested and concerned only with achieving personal goals.

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<sup>16</sup> R.J. House, "A Path Goal Theory of Leadership Effectiveness," Administration Science Quarterly 16 (1971): 321-338, quoted in Stogdill, 21.

<sup>17</sup> Stogdill, 20-21.

Effective organizational leadership will allow the individual the necessary latitude and structure within the organizational goals so that they can be achieved as the individual's personal goals are also being attained.<sup>18</sup> In this theory, the apparent humanism is merely utilitarian, the consideration being given in order to secure an exchange which will benefit the organization.

Likert maintains that the appropriate leadership style is one of support. The leader must exhibit behavior which illustrates genuine support for goal attainment by members of the organization. The leader must be concerned not only for goal attainment, but also for the social well being of his subordinates as well. By exhibiting a supportive leadership style, the leader can assure homogeneity and task performance within the organization.<sup>19</sup>

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<sup>18</sup> Chris Argyris, Personality and Organization (New York: Harper, 1957); Interpersonal Competence and Organizational Effectiveness (Homewood, Ill.: Irwin-Dorsey, 1961); Integrating the Individual and the Organization (New York: Wiley, 1964), quoted in Stogdill, 22.

<sup>19</sup> Rensis Likert, New Patterns of Management (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1961); The Human Organization (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1967), quoted in Stogdill, 22.

## (6) Exchange Theories

Exchange theorists contend that societal involvement emulates an exchange process in which members contribute at some utility cost to themselves and receive investment return at the cost of other societal members.<sup>20</sup> Blau's 1964 work is built on the theory that promoting an individual to a leadership role is rewarding to him. Leaders have their power diminished when the group leave their problems with the leader to solve. The leader's power is restored through the resolution of group problems by his own direct efforts. Because the leader gains as his followers do from their accepting his "good suggestion, rather than somebody else's poorer ones, the compliance and his contributions earn him a surplus profit of leadership."<sup>21</sup>

In summary, the early work on leadership, especially as reviewed in the pioneer volume of Ralph Stogdill, attempted to

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<sup>20</sup> Stogdill, 22-23.

<sup>21</sup> P. M. Blau, Exchange and Power In Social Life (New York, Wiley, 1964), quoted in Stogdill, 23.

explain the phenomenon of leadership development in pragmatic terms. Each of the constructs seems to have grown out of its own time and is therefore evolving and/or incomplete. They are all, to varying degrees, similar to the perception of the elephant by blind men at different positions: to the one who felt its trunk, the elephant was "like" a snake, while to the one who felt its side, the elephant was "like" a wall. Mercifully, the growth of the human race toward the humane is reflected in the changing view of what leadership should be and do although the disagreement on what it is "like" has yet to be resolved and will, in fact, likely never be resolved.

### Gender and Group Leadership Studies

Unfortunately, the growth of opportunity for aspirants in the realm of educational leadership has been less humane. Specifically the history of women in leadership positions has been addressed by several, many times strident, voices either decrying the barriers and closed doors or contending that the elephant does not exist: that there is no difference in either the opportunity, performance, or abilities of men and woman in educational leadership positions. The latter voices have been largely stilled

since approximately 1975, but the other voices present differing views of the extent of both the differences in opportunity and the differences in ability.

In 1983, Lavonne Friesen held that while research has focused on the possibility of a relationship between gender and leadership style since 1975, the results of those studies have been rather inconclusive and often contradictory. She posits that the lack of support for an association between gender and leadership style has led to consideration of the "possibility that sex-role identity, rather than gender, may be an important determinant of leadership style."<sup>22</sup> The argument is weak, for it ignores altogether the possibility of androgyny as separate and apart from discrete sex roles. She further believes that while consideration behaviors are associated with a feminine sex-role stereotype, "data are clearly not strong enough to support a feminine model of leadership which would be people oriented."<sup>23</sup> The Friesen work presents research on the effect of gender on

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<sup>22</sup> Lavonne Friesen, "Women and Leadership," Contemporary Education, (Spring 1983): 226.

<sup>23</sup> *Ibid.*, 226.



followers' perceptions of leader effectiveness as "inconclusive at this time,"<sup>24</sup> but adds that the research "continues to point to favorableness of non-directive styles among leaders in general, and especially among women."<sup>25</sup> The participative style of leadership is favored, it would seem, whether the leader is male or female.

In a 1979 study, Sheila Inderlied and Gary Powell claimed to have proven that there is a "connection between masculine characteristics and structuring behavior as a leader," but no "relationship between sex-role identity and leadership style."<sup>26</sup> Inderlied and Powell contend that sex differences, when in fact they do occur, exist not as a result of sex, but as a result of individuals holding "different sex-role identities which may be correlated with, but not rigidly determined by, sex."<sup>27</sup> Friesen

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<sup>24</sup> Ibid., 227.

<sup>25</sup> Lavonne Friesen, 227.

<sup>26</sup> Sheila Davis Inderlied and Gary Powell, "Sex-role Identity and Leadership Style: Different Labels for the Same Concept?" Sex Roles, no. 5 (1979): 613.

<sup>27</sup> Ibid., 614.

cites a 1977 study by Denmark which divides systems into only two basic types of organization: (1) those that are static, or formal, centralized, and stratified and in which the leadership focus would be on efficiency and production, and (2) those that are dynamic, or decentralized and in which the leadership focus would be on new ideas, programs, individual initiative and shared decision making. Under these concepts, she concludes, women would be expected to emerge as leaders more frequently in dynamic organizations "since responsiveness and sensitivity to others, characteristics socially reinforced in women, would be fostered in such a system."<sup>28</sup> The strong relationship between leadership and masculine sex-role characteristics noted by Friesen and others is not surprising if one remembers that prior to 1970, most research on leadership dealt with an almost exclusively male population. Identification of leadership with stereotypical masculine personality traits has resulted from the overwhelmingly large proportion of men in such positions.

In more recent studies, especially since the advent of the women's movement of the 60's, the message has been kinder and

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<sup>28</sup> Ibid., 228.

more comprehensive, with many researchers saying outright that "women possess as much administrative potential as men do."<sup>29</sup>

The differences between potential and performance, however, may be gender-related. Butters and Gade suggest that there is no significant difference in either except that men are higher in consideration and theorize that "perhaps the disciplinary nature of the job affected women's ability to function in human relations."<sup>30</sup> Eskilson and Wiley, however, report no significant difference in performance output for males and females in leadership positions and suggest that the sex of the leader "affects performance output conditionally, depending on the context in which the leadership is exercised."<sup>31</sup> Eskilson and Wiley further observed that male leaders did appear to attempt to

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<sup>29</sup> Elizabeth Levin Arons, "Male and Female Administrative Potential--Is There a Difference?" NASSP Bulletin (December 1980): 8.

<sup>30</sup> Michael A. Butters and Eidon M. Gade, "Job Satisfaction and Leadership Behavior of Residence Hall Assistants," Journal of College Student Personnel ( July 1982): 321.

<sup>31</sup> Arlene Eskilson and Mary Glenn Wiley, "Sex Composition and Leadership in Small Groups," Sociometry: A Journal of Research in Social Psychology (September 1976): 186.

concentrate more on the actual task of leadership while “female leaders felt a need to be expressive as well as to lead,”<sup>32</sup> and that “both male and female leaders perform in a more leader-like way when with members of their own sex.”<sup>33</sup> Eskilon and Wiley reported three findings that would appear to be true to traditional sex-role stereotypes: (1) male leaders concentrated significantly more than female leaders on recognizable leadership behaviors, (2) female leader behavior was distinguished from that of male leaders by a relatively greater performance of positive affect activity, and (3) female leaders were less likely to choose self as future leaders than were male leaders.<sup>34</sup> One additional and somewhat troubling finding was that females who achieved leadership roles by personal achievement rose dutifully to the instrumental challenge but maintained their internalized and socially acceptable obligation to provide for the emotional needs of others while male leaders maintained their leadership focus and “did not differ in leader behavior due to type of leader role

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<sup>32</sup> Ibid., 187.

<sup>33</sup> Ibid., 190.

<sup>34</sup> Ibid., 192.

attainment.”<sup>35</sup> Further, Eskilson and Wiley hold that because both male and female leaders concentrated more on the task of leadership in a group that was sexually homogeneous, as opposed to their actions while in a mixed-sex group, there is evidence that the “context of leadership determines the salience of sex role stereotypes in task situations.”<sup>36</sup> It would appear that, at least in some specific contexts, culturally ascribed and voluntarily assumed sex roles can be a burden to women but do not affect men at all.

Vale and Riker seem to discount the perceptions of others as more important than the perceptions of leaders themselves when they find that “there are basic differences between males and females in their perceptions of the leadership role and their styles in implementing this role.”<sup>37</sup> Their investigation considered three leadership qualities: self-awareness, regard for others, and facilitative communication. They found that females

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<sup>35</sup> Ibid., 194.

<sup>36</sup> Ibid., 193.

<sup>37</sup> Daniel W. Vale and Harold C. Riker, “Sex-Role Differences in Student Leadership Training,” Journal of College Student Personnel (January 1979): 61.

were significantly (at the .05 level) less aware of their need for dominance, aggression, exhibition, affiliation, and nurturance. (There was, it should be noted, no effort to determine whether this lack of awareness stemmed from what respondents perceived to be their appropriate roles or from some difference inherent within the respondents.) They also found females to have significantly (at the .05 level) greater regard for others or nurturance and to have significantly (at the .05 level) higher levels of facilitative communication skill.<sup>38</sup>

Greene, Morrison, and Tischler found that "males tend to be invested with and affirmed for exercising comparatively more authority in their work roles than females."<sup>39</sup> They found, not surprisingly, that the qualities of independence, assertiveness, and emotional aloofness were more often associated with masculinity and the qualities of nurturance, submissiveness and social competence were more often associated with femininity.<sup>40</sup>

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<sup>38</sup> Ibid., 58-62.

<sup>39</sup> Les R. Greene, Thomas L. Morrison, and Nancy G. Tischler, "Gender and Authority: Effects on Perceptions of Small Group Co-Leaders," Small Group Behavior (November 1981): 401.

<sup>40</sup> Ibid., 402.

Additional, less obvious findings were (1) co-leadership arrangements in which females had greater formal authority than their male colleagues were viewed as "more emotionally responsive than the traditionally structured co-leadership pairs,"<sup>41</sup> (2) male co-leaders, regardless of their formal authority, "were perceived as significantly more potent, active, instrumental, and insightful than their female colleagues,"<sup>42</sup> (3) male and female consultants alike, when compared not to each other but to the associate consultants, were interpreted as "more positively valued and considered more emotionally responsive,"<sup>43</sup> and (4) female co-leaders could be liked but not highly respected for or perceived as possessing task-relevant attributes, "even when they were invested with comparatively more formal authority for achieving the task than their male counterparts."<sup>44</sup>

An earlier and somewhat contradictory finding was reported by Mamola who studied several dissertations which had focussed

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<sup>41</sup> Ibid., 408.

<sup>42</sup> Ibid., 408.

<sup>43</sup> Ibid., 409.

<sup>44</sup> Ibid., 409.

on women employed as both elementary and secondary school principals. The documents in her study have emphasized these women principals being perceived by their teachers as "more effective than male principals in such tasks as progress toward school goals, management of conflict, and representation of teacher interests."<sup>45</sup> The first two findings are traits typically associated with males, while the third is typically associated with females. Arnette, Higgins, and Priem, while finding that "female managers, on average, were not less well liked, nor were they more accommodative than male managers,"<sup>46</sup> also found that "accommodative females were not better liked than accommodative males" but that "directive females were significantly better liked than directive males."<sup>47</sup> This liking and acceptance point to the implications of stereotypes so pervasive as to be separate and apart from other leadership variables.

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<sup>45</sup>Claire Mamola, "Women in Mixed Groups: Some Research Findings," Small Group Behavior (August 1979): 432.

<sup>46</sup> Matthew Arnett, Richard B. Higgins, and Andre P. Priem, "Sex and Least Preferred Co-Worker Score Effects in Leadership Behavior," Sex Roles (June 1980): 139.

<sup>47</sup> *Ibid.*, 139.



Florence Denmark remarked that the leader "exerts more influence on a group's activities and beliefs than any other single member,"<sup>48</sup> but went on to declare that "the group determines leadership--either by conferring it or by accepting the legitimacy of a leader appointed by others or self-chosen."<sup>49</sup> It is just this process of conferring over which women should exercise great control but do not seem empowered to do so. Denmark points to three reasons for the shortage of women in leadership positions: (1) women generally need training and/or opportunities to develop and exercise leadership skills, (2) men appoint others who are similar to themselves in status, background, beliefs, and sex, and (3) there is still a pervasive sex-role stereotypical belief that women do not make good leaders.<sup>50</sup> The belief is so pervasive that even women managers are "as likely as men to make placement and promotion decisions in favor of men."<sup>51</sup> What is

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<sup>48</sup> Florence L. Denmark, "Styles of Leadership," Psychology of Women Quarterly (Winter 1977): 99.

<sup>49</sup> Ibid., 99.

<sup>50</sup> Ibid., 100.

<sup>51</sup> Ibid., 101.

fairly obvious is that while women will emerge or be perceived as leaders in all-female groups, the leader in a mixed-sex group is almost certain to be male. Denmark concludes that in general, because women are less likely than men to be authoritarian and use authoritative power since their power is more limited by the expectations of the group, women are "more likely than men to focus on human-relations skills,"<sup>52</sup> thus completing the circle: the self-fulfilling prophecy is fulfilled, and the elephant is intact.

Several of the studies of group behavior have seemed to underscore the same cultural biases at work. Kahn reported that in small groups communication patterns and conversational themes in same-sex and mixed-sex groups differed along the expected lines: in all-male groups the themes were competition, aggression, the fear of intimacy, and questions of identity; in all-female groups the themes were affiliation, family, personal relations, and conflicts concerning competition and leadership; in mixed-sex groups, the themes of aggression, competition, and victimization emerged less frequently than in all-male groups because when in the company of females, males tended to talk

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<sup>52</sup> Ibid., 105.

more of self and feelings than they did when isolated from females.<sup>53</sup> Kahn goes on to say that "role types occur in groups without respect to sex, but the intensity of expression of that role and the group response to it is influenced by sex-role expectations."<sup>54</sup> The findings of her study were familiar and alarming: (1) female member groups are more disclosing and practice more affiliation, and (2) there was more hostility displayed in female-led groups than in male-led groups. Apparently, female leadership is not only not as acceptable to the average citizen as is male leadership, but it provokes active hostility as well, regardless of the sexual make-up of the group.<sup>55</sup> Given this culturally pervasive bias, it is not surprising that women have, on the surface, failed to fulfill both their personal potential and society's great need for the attributes they possess naturally. Those who have survived at all have been able to do so because they have become more politically astute. It has

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<sup>53</sup> Lynn Sandra Kahn, "Group Process and Sex Differences," Psychology of Women Quarterly (Spring 1984): 272.

<sup>54</sup> *Ibid.*, 279.

<sup>55</sup> *Ibid.*, 279.

even been reported that women board members “tend to perceive their roles and the role of the board more politically than do men board members.”<sup>56</sup>

Women principals differ in other significant ways from their male counterparts. One study reported that among high school principals, men were in their early 30’s when they first became principals while women were nearing 40. The modal age for those in the position is 50 for women, while it is only 44 for men, and women in the high school principalship are more likely to be either ethnic or religious minorities (21% as opposed to 4% among males). Partly as a function of the age differences upon entering the position, women are also more likely to be single and to have adult children than their male counterparts.<sup>57</sup> There is little disagreement as to the primacy of the building-level principal in assuring success for students. Ron Brandt found that even where the principal is not strong in other areas such as

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<sup>56</sup>Stephanie A. Marshall and Mel Heller, “A Female Leadership Style Could Revolutionize School Governance,” The American School Board Journal (August 1983): 32.

<sup>57</sup>Susan C. Paddock, “Women Principals: the Rule or the Exception?” NASSP Bulletin (December 1980): 1-4.

public relations, if the principal is a visible presence in the school, if the principal sets a vision for the school, and, most importantly, if the principal gets resources to help teachers deliver, individual student achievement will be higher than in schools where these three tasks are unaddressed.<sup>58</sup> Brandt further found that “teachers’ perceptions of the quality of principal leadership is the single greatest predictor of incremental growth in student achievement.”<sup>59</sup> It is interesting that teacher “perception,” and not necessarily reality could be such a determinant.

Given the documented difficulty of women to be legitimated as leaders addressed earlier, it is still possible to find studies which speak to the effectiveness of female principals. Araki studied 226 principals in ten categories of leadership and nine output variables and found that the females in his study (though clearly in the minority--29%) rated higher in every leadership category and significantly higher in seven of them. He concluded

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<sup>58</sup> Ron Brandt, “On Leadership and Student Achievement: A Conversation with Richard Andrews,” Educational Leadership (September 1987): 7-16.

<sup>59</sup> *Ibid.*, 14.

that women rated significantly higher on their "general leadership, supportive relationships, capacity to foster teamwork, familiarity with teacher problems, ability to help teachers 'work smarter instead of harder,'"<sup>60</sup> and most especially in their competence and ability "to promote and maintain high goals and standards."<sup>61</sup> Since high goals and standards are positively correlated with student SAT scores, "students may, in the long run, perform more successfully under women principals."<sup>62</sup> Ironically, student absence, burglary, and arrest are lower in schools with women principals but the length of service of principals among women is only 65 percent that of men.<sup>63</sup> It is not only female aspirants who suffer from the lack of appropriate opportunity for advancement for women in educational administration. Obviously, if Mr. Araki's study is valid, society suffers the most grievous hurt of all.

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<sup>60</sup> Charles T. Araki, "Leadership Study in Hawaii--How Characteristics of Principals Affect the Schools," NASSP Bulletin 66 (October 1982): 95.

<sup>61</sup> *Ibid.*, 96.

<sup>62</sup> *Ibid.*, 96.

<sup>63</sup> *Ibid.*, 88-96.

Jane Conoley writes that "such predictable qualities as intelligence, enthusiasm, dominance, self-confidence, social participation, and egalitarianism are frequently found to characterize leaders,"<sup>64</sup> with the heavy emphasis on dominance. It is still, however, "less acceptable for women to be very task oriented and authoritarian than it is for men under any circumstances."<sup>65</sup> Women are evaluated poorly when they adopt culturally "inappropriate styles of leadership,"<sup>66</sup> and those who project such an image rarely get an opportunity to serve in a leadership position.

### Women in Education

Perhaps the most coherent review of women's place in education was done by Charol Shakeshaft, whose history of women

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<sup>64</sup> Jane Close Conoley, "The Psychology of Leadership: Implications for Women," in Sari Knopp Biklen and Marilyn B. Brannigan, eds. Women and Educational Leadership (Lexington, Ky: D.C.Heath and Company, 1980), 36.

<sup>65</sup> Ibid., 38.

<sup>66</sup> Ibid., 39.

in educational administration accomplishes on a grand scale the same kind of trail blazing that Ralph Stogdill had done in 1974 for the study of leadership in the business world. While Shakeshaft's collection of both published and unpublished research is illuminating, it remains depressing. Undertaken because the traditional body of literature in school administration had tended largely to ignore women, or at least to ignore the obvious fact that men and women do not differ alone in gender, Shakeshaft's work exists because of the "need to assemble the research on women in school administration," its purpose being essentially to "document the experiences of women administrators so that we may begin to expand the theory and lore of the field to include them."<sup>67</sup> Only with this task begun can previous research have any meaning to the women who have looked in vain for either general or personal understanding in the literature that failed both them and the purpose of research. It did so when it compared them to men as though there were no differences in operational styles, no inadequacies in the organizational theory, lore, and advice for women, and no admissions or analyses of the

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<sup>67</sup> Charol Shakeshaft, Women in Educational Administration (Newbury Park, California: Sage Publications, 1989), 10.



inadequacies and inappropriatenesses of the "theories and advice based upon male samples and male experience."<sup>68</sup> The task was a massive undertaking complicated by the scarcity of previously published hard data. Whether because of lack of interest or because of lack of candor, such data are frequently still not available. Shakeshaft herself reports that

It is not only difficult, but in some cases impossible, to find the number and percentage of women administrators or teachers for a particular year or geographic location. Although numbers are available, they have often not been compiled by sex....the National Education Association and other agencies that collected such information ceased breaking down their tables by sex by 1930.<sup>69</sup>

The history of women in administration is crucial to an understanding of the current situation. Available accounts indicate that teaching was a profession open only to men until the late eighteenth century. Gradually, and only because of shortages of supposedly qualified men, the dame school evolved from the practice of allowing women to train very young children of both sexes. Between 1820 and 1830, new (and more lucrative)

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<sup>68</sup> Ibid., 10.

<sup>69</sup> Ibid., 21.

employment opportunities for those men who had previously filled teaching positions as well as the growth of industrialization, urbanization and the immigrant population including an influx of school-age children, combined to create a shortage of male teachers. The joint answer to both the problems of a demand for greater compensation and for more teachers was addressed in an 1838 issue of the Connecticut Common School Journal:

How shall we get good teachers for our district schools, and enough of them? While we should encourage our young men to enter upon this patriotic, and I had almost said, missionary field of duty, and present much higher inducements to engage them to do so, I believe...that there is but little hope of attaining the full supply... from that sex. This will always be difficult, so long as there are so many other avenues open in our country to the accumulation of property, and the attaining of distinction. We must...look more to the other sex for aid in this emergency....<sup>70</sup>

Due to the influence of leaders such as Catharine Beecher and Emma Willard, women began to move from the home but only into a limited number of service occupations: specifically

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<sup>70</sup> T.H. Galludet, "Female Teachers of Common Schools," Connecticut Common School Journal 1, (1838): 9-10, in Shakeshaft, 25.

domestic service, nursing, and education. Although women were seen as natural teachers, being nurturant and maternal, they earned only roughly one quarter as much as their male counterparts and enjoyed less status, being "identified by their sex, whereas men were acknowledged for the roles they played."<sup>71</sup> Despite low pay and low status, white women turned to education in increasing numbers, probably because it offered a more favorable alternative than other occupations available. Neither domestic service nor nursing offered women the opportunity to exercise their minds as did teaching.

Black women, and even white women who taught black children, faced much graver difficulties, often existing outside the law and sometimes paying a terrible price for their attempts to be educated or to educate. Milla Granson taught her lessons between midnight and 2:00 in Louisiana, Susie King Taylor went with other black children to the home of her black teacher in Georgia daily, but she and the other children took care to conceal their books and to enter the house singly so as not to arouse suspicion among the white community, Prudence Crandall, a white

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<sup>71</sup> Shakeshaft, 26.

Quaker, was arrested in Connecticut for operating a school to train black prospective teachers, Myrtilla Miner survived arson and mob attacks at her Washington, D.C. school for black students, Julia Hayden was murdered in Tennessee for teaching blacks, Charles Caldwell was murdered by a Mississippi mob for harboring a white woman who had come South to teach black children. Despite the dangers, the number of black women teachers grew steadily and between 1830 and 1900 women, white and black alike, became more identified with teaching, forming a 57 percent majority of all teachers by 1880 and a 70 percent majority by 1900. At the same time, women began to compete for positions of leadership within the profession: Margaret Haley was the leader of the militant Chicago Teachers Federation, Ella Flagg Young was president of the NEA, and Grace Strachan led the 1910 fight for equal pay for male and female teachers in New York City.<sup>72</sup>

Originally, teaching and administering were parts of the same task, and there was no differentiation between teachers and administrators. By 1918, the professions had diverged and women had been relegated to the teaching profession while the male

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<sup>72</sup> Ibid., 24-30.

dominance typical of the society of that day and age extended into the schools. Between 1820 and 1900 very few women held any administrative positions any place, most of those who did having secured their positions by founding their own schools--with the help and financial aid of a father or of a husband--and serving there as the chief administrator. Shakeshaft reports that between 1900 and 1930,

women primarily occupied elementary principalships and county and state superintendencies. By 1928, women held 55% of the elementary principalships, 25% of the county superintendencies, nearly 8% of the secondary school principalships, and 1.6% of the district superintendencies. These advances are not as significant as they might seem. Unlike the higher status and higher paying secondary principalships and district superintendencies held by men, elementary principalships and county and state superintendencies were low-paying, low-status, low-power positions.<sup>73</sup>

After 1930, women in administration became even more rare except for the period during World War II when many women became administrators by default, being replaced immediately as soon as the men who had previously filled their positions returned from the war. Immediately after World War II, many men attended

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<sup>73</sup> Ibid., 34.

college on the G.I.Bill and trained themselves to move into education, thus increasing the male contenders for administrative positions. The 1950s movement toward consolidation almost invariably cost female and minority administrators their positions as the newly merged systems had majority males appointed to lead them. In the 1950s, men, but not women, were recruited into the teaching ranks. Women were not only not recruited as teachers and/or as administrators, but when they entered the profession, it was viewed not as a profession, but as a "semiprofession that would allow the duties of wife and mother to go undisturbed."<sup>74</sup> Ironically, women had been, almost a century earlier, told that teaching would prepare them for marriage and motherhood and school boards refused to allow married women in the profession. During the 1950s, married women were preferred and single women mistrusted as to their motivation and personal proclivities. At no point in history have men been discriminated against because of their marital status, but marital status seems to have been a major determinant--at both extremes--for women in several periods of history.

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<sup>74</sup> Ibid., 46.

According to Shakeshaft, "the 1950s and 1960s witnessed a revival of the prejudices against women that had hindered their advancement into administration from the colonial period onward."<sup>75</sup>

The 1960s saw a great influx of men into the profession, one of many factors which kept the number of women administrators to a minimum through the 1980s. The Women's Liberation Movement which drew attention to the underemployment of women in the profession had little effect on hiring or promotion. In fact, Shakeshaft tells us that

the percentage of women in school administration in the 1980s is less than the percentage of women in 1905. Women have seldom attained the most powerful and prestigious administrative positions in schools, and the gender structure of males as managers and females as workers has remained relatively stable for the past 100 years. Historical record, then, tells us that there never was a golden age for women administrators, only a promise unfulfilled.<sup>76</sup>

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<sup>75</sup> Ibid., 48.

<sup>76</sup> Ibid., 51.

### Educational Gender Studies

Shakeshaft's work provides us with more than just a history of women's experiences in education; in it she has collected and synthesized the literature which has attempted to examine the differences between the worlds men and women inhabit and the ways they administer. Because the world of the white male is the majority world--and the dominant one--in which we all operate, it is not surprising that women and minorities know this world well. What has escaped notice by researchers previously is that while women certainly--and at the demand of the majority world in which they function--do most of the things that men do when they administer schools or school systems, "the activities that women undertake and their motivation for doing so...are in addition to and different from those that men perform."<sup>77</sup>

Shakeshaft reviews several studies that have attempted to address sexual differences in performance and shows that most of the literature which speaks to comparisons shows either no differences or differences favoring women. (The mystery of why this information has not been more widely disseminated she

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<sup>77</sup> Ibid., 167.



addresses as a result of the disparity in samples which goes beyond gender: women who have made a place for themselves in education have been brighter or more privileged than their male counterparts, have certainly persevered through greater difficulty, and thus cannot really be used for comparison.) The comparisons which do find definitive gender differences fall into categories of work environment, leadership, communication, decision making, and conflict resolution. In an unpublished paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, J. Berman reporting on the work environment of secondary principals of both genders shows that women secondary principals have

- (1.) a higher percentage of contacts initiated by others both during and after the ordinary work day
- (2.) shorter desk work sessions during the school day and more time spent during after-school hours
- (3.) a higher percentage of total contacts with superiors
- (4.) a longer average during work time for scheduled meetings, phone calls, and unscheduled meetings
- (5.) cooperative planning more often taking place during

scheduled meetings.<sup>78</sup>

Shakeshaft cites a similar study by Kmetz and Willower in 1982 documenting similar findings with elementary principals. The point is that routine activities of the principals "may differ depending on whether the principal is a male or a female" and that "some work gets more attention than other work depending upon the gender of the administrator."<sup>79</sup> Shakeshaft cites several studies that show that female leaders, whether superintendents or principals, interact more with teachers and with students as well than do their male counterparts. Being largely excluded from the totally masculine world of the informal political network, they also spend more time with teachers, whether outside of school altogether, in the classroom, or in discussions about curricular issues, and they are more likely to assist beginning teachers with instructional problems and experiences and to offer concrete assistance with their initial teaching

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<sup>78</sup> J. Berman, "The Managerial Behavior of Female High School Principals: Implications for Training," Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New York (March 1982) 2, quoted in Shakeshaft, 170-171.

<sup>79</sup> Shakeshaft, 171.

experiences.<sup>80</sup> Specific differences seem to Shakeshaft to illustrate differences in priorities which show that women view the "job of principal or superintendent more as that of a master-teacher or educational leader whereas men more often view the job from a managerial-industrial perspective."<sup>81</sup> The perspective of the woman in the field is more likely to be, therefore, service-oriented rather than one seeking personal status or achievement. While her own perspective is not limiting, some studies have suggested that the perspective of others not accustomed to

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<sup>80</sup> Shakeshaft, 172, citing G.C.Fauth, "Women in Educational Administration: A Research Profile," Educational Forum (January 1984): 65-79 and M.Gilbertson, "The Influence of Gender on the Verbal Interactions Among Principals and Staff Members: An Exploratory Study, in P.A. Schmuck, W.W.Charters, Jr., & R.O.Carlson (eds.), Educational Policy and Management: Sex Differentials (New York: Academic Press), 297-306, and N. Gross and A.E.Trask Men and Women as Elementary School Principals, (Cambridge, MA: Harvard University press), and N. J. Pitner, "Hormones and Harems: Are the Activities of Superintending Different for a Woman?" in P.A. Schmuck, W.W.Charters, Jr., & R.O. Carlson (eds.), Educational Policy and Management (New York: Academic Press), 273-295, and A. Fishel and J. Pottker, "Performance of Women Principals: A Review of Behavioral and Attitudinal Studies", in J. Pottker & A. Fishel (eds.), Sex Bias in the Schools (Cranbury, NJ: Associated University Presses), 289-299.

<sup>81</sup> Ibid., 173.

working for a woman may function as a limiting factor. Kahn found that "in female-led groups, more hostility is exhibited toward the female leader, specifically if she is a low-disclosing, high-task person."<sup>82</sup> It is entirely possible that this particular finding results from a cross-over from the expected sexual role. Being low-disclosing is a quality that one expects from and associates with maleness. If a woman functions in this manner, not only is she a female in a male world, but she is also a female who refuses to function as the sexual stereotypes insist she should.

Apparent gender differences in leadership and managerial style were reported in a number of studies. Gross and Trask report higher task attention of female principals as evidenced by such principal behaviors as exerting

more control of teacher's professional activities by requiring teachers to discuss classroom problems, by asking teachers to report all major conferences with parents, by requiring teachers to keep the principal informed about 'problem' children, by closely directing the work of teachers experiencing difficulties, by requiring that teacher's classroom behaviors conform

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<sup>82</sup> L.S.Kahn, "Group Process and Sex Difference," Psychology of Women Quarterly 8 (Summer 1984): 261-281, quoted in Shakeshaft, 175.

to the principal's standards, by checking to see that teachers had written lesson plans, by knowing what is taking place in the classrooms during the day, and by determining what the objectives of the guidance program should be in the school.<sup>83</sup>

Shakeshaft cites Leonard to show an example of a study that found women to be high on both task and consideration dimensions<sup>84</sup> and Charters and Jovick for their conclusion that women outrank men on the trust and consideration subscales of the Organizational Climate Description Questionnaire,<sup>85</sup> and concludes that behavior studies indicate differences in the manners in which male and female principals are described if the descriptions utilize traditional leadership categories.

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<sup>83</sup> Shakeshaft, 178, condensing N. Gross and A.E.Trask, The Sex Factor and the Management of Schools (New York: John Wiley, 1976).

<sup>84</sup> R. Leonard, "Managerial Styles in Academe: Do Men and Women Differ?" Paper presented at the meeting of the Southern Speech Communication Association, Austin, Texas (April 1981), quoted in Shakeshaft, 178.

<sup>85</sup> W.W.Charters, Jr. and T.D.Jovick, "The Gender of Principals and Principal/Teacher Relations in Elementary Schools," in P.A.Schmuck, W.W.Charters, Jr., & R.O.Carlson (eds.), Educational Policy and Management: Sex Differentials (New York: Academic Press, 1981), 307-331, quoted in Shakeshaft, 178-179.

Communication is generally agreed to be the major activity engaged in by school administrators, with both oral and written communication essential to administration. Gender differences in communication styles are well documented. Shakeshaft reports that in their verbal communication, both written and oral, women use correct speech forms more often than men, are more likely to use expressive language and intensifiers, are more likely than are men to use questions for a variety of purposes, shy away from universal pronouncements, tend to use language that encourages community building and is more polite and cheerful, are more likely to express courtesy, gratitude, respect, and appreciation, use language that indicates more consideration and concern, give more information, encourage more effort, stress interpersonal relations, use humor less (and more often direct it at themselves when they do use it), interrupt less, and are generally more perceptive, moderate, consistent, and evenhanded.<sup>86</sup> Sex differences in language patterns are by now a cultural expectation (There is "man talk" and there is "woman talk," as any talk show host, or hostess, will affirm.) and have been analyzed by many.

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<sup>86</sup> Shakeshaft, 180-182.

One study reported by Shakeshaft showed that "stereotypic female characteristics rated more positively than stereotypic male characteristics for effective communication among competent adults," and that "the characteristics of effective females were more like those of effective adults than were those for effective males."<sup>87</sup> In view of the changing, more consensual management styles, Shakeshaft suggests that

Four areas in which it has been predicted that management style will need to change have relevance for women's speech. It has been recommended that managers engage in less autocratic downward communication and that they develop noncoercive motivational and persuasive skills, humanized feedback, and threat-reducing strategies.<sup>88</sup>

Shakeshaft moved to what she presents as the logical conclusion that "women's traditional and stereotypic styles of communication are more like those of a good manager than are men's stereotypic styles."<sup>89</sup>

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<sup>87</sup> K.P.Scott, "Perceptions of Communication Competence: What's Good for the Goose is Not Good for the Gander," Women's Studies International Quarterly 3 (1980): 206, quoted in Shakeshaft, 185.

<sup>88</sup> Shakeshaft, 185.

<sup>89</sup> *Ibid.*, 186.

A number of studies have been done to show that women are at least perceived as being more democratic than are men and allow, in fact foster, participatory involvement among their staffs. Hines, and Grobman (1956) are reported to have found that on self-report measures, principals indicate that women principals are more democratic than are men principals.<sup>90</sup>

Berman (1982) found in an observational study that women use more cooperative planning strategies than do men in meetings.<sup>91</sup>

Fairholm and Fairholm (1984) observed that the predominate power tactics employed by women principals are coalition building, cooptation, and personality.<sup>92</sup> Neuse (1978) shows that because women are less committed to the formal hierarchy (possibly because they have been trained culturally to operate in a

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<sup>90</sup> V. Hines and H. Grobman, "The Weaker Sex is Losing Out," School Board Journal 132 (1956): 102, quoted in Shakeshaft, 187.

<sup>91</sup> J. Berman, "The Managerial Behavior of Female High School Principals: Implications for Training," Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Research Association, New York (March 1982), quoted in Shakeshaft, 187.

<sup>92</sup> G. Fairholm and B.C. Fairholm, "Sixteen Power Tactics Principals Can Use to Improve Management Effectiveness," NASSP Bulletin, 68 (1984): 472, quoted in Shakeshaft, 187.



more devious, less direct, manner), they more often subdue displays of personal power (even when they are in a position to use personal power to enforce their will) in order to get others to participate in the decision-making process.<sup>93</sup> Shakeshaft concludes that "women decision makers are more inclusive than exclusive," using democratic or participatory management styles "both to their advantage and to the advantage of the educational system."<sup>94</sup>

Of all the areas, conflict resolution is the least studied area of gender differences in administrative competencies. Shakeshaft reports, however, that the little that has been studied as well as knowledge

of female socialization have led to the speculation that women will tend to cool conflict out, rather than heat it up. Women more than men, see conflict as a negative state. Thus ridding the school of conflict is more likely to occur when women are in charge.<sup>95</sup>

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<sup>93</sup> S.M.Neuse, "Professionalism and Authority: Women in Public Service," Public Administration Review, 38 (1978): 436-441, quoted in Shakeshaft, 187.

<sup>94</sup> Shakeshaft, 188.

<sup>95</sup> Ibid., 190.

### Summary

Leadership as an activity is still being defined.

Historically, the concept was defined in business terms to describe a process. Early theories were narrowly focussed and subsequent developments have called for adaptations to theory, much as the space age demanded a new vocabulary. Gender and group leadership studies uncovered some differences in the ways in which men and women influence followers, but the framework was invariably that of the male-dominated world which precluded serious consideration of differences that were due to gender differences themselves: women were still defined in terms of "like" or "unlike" the other sex. The elephant was never seen for itself, but researchers did begin to identify certain traits as either masculine or feminine in stereotypical terms. The history of women in educational administration specifically reflects the tendency to define women in terms of the male world. Unfortunately, the "golden age for women administrators" has not yet come to pass although it is certainly more nearly possible today than it has ever been before. Researchers are at long last beginning to look at educational gender studies in meaningful ways. The time for gender studies to enrich the practices and

lives of both sexes is closer to being a reality due to the work of people such as Charol Shakeshaft, Sari Knopp Biklen and Marilyn B. Brannigan, and Sakre Kennington Edson.

## CHAPTER 3

### OUTLINE OF PROCEDURES

#### Introduction

The purpose of this study is to investigate the relationship between the high school principal's leadership style, particularly as it reflects gender-specific traits, and the leadership style as perceived and valued by the principal's followers. Finding an appropriate instrument is the first problem to be solved. Perhaps the most obvious result of the business-oriented mentality of the early study of leadership theory is the pragmatic approach of the instruments designed to measure leadership behaviors. Among the more prominent of the available instruments are:

- (1) Blake-Mouton Managerial Grid
- (2) FIRO Scales
- (3) Myers-Briggs Type Indicator
- (4) Fiedler's Contingency Model
- (5) Hersey-Blanchard Model

The Managerial Grid, a personality inventory which can be used to assess an individual's management style, was developed

during the mid 60's by behavioral scientists Robert Blake and Jane Mouton. Its purpose is two-fold. First, the Managerial Grid is used to identify and categorize leadership styles from least to most effective in terms of concern for work performance and employee relations. Second the Grid acts as a premise for generating ideas to foster advanced management capabilities and organizational productivity. The Grid is based on the behavioral science framework which rests on the belief that a person's own assumptions about human behavior influence his reactions to differing situations. The assumptions one makes reflect his own personal experiences. The authors sum up thus: "Whenever a manager approaches a situation, he is not acting according to objective reality but according to his subjective appraisal of it."<sup>1</sup>

They continue to explain that the Grid:

is used for helping people to identify the assumptions they make as they work with and through others. By using managerial theories to identify one's own assumptions, a person is able to see himself and others more objectively, to communicate with them more clearly, to understand where their differences come from, to see how to change themselves, and to help

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<sup>1</sup> Robert R. Blake and Jane S. Mouton, The New Managerial Grid (Houston: Gulf Publishing Company, 1978), 4.

others toward more productive and rewarding experiences.<sup>2</sup>

The first step in using the Grid is to evaluate one's own style of management by rank ordering five descriptive paragraphs on management behavior from least to most typical of one's own reactions. The second step is to rank order six elements which describe qualities of personal behavior through which one can observe one's own Grid assumptions. These elements are decisions, convictions, conflicts, temper, humor, and effort. There are five sentences, one under each element, which should be viewed as a possible description of the participant, and rank ordered as in the first step. Each alternative response under each element corresponds with one of five managerial styles. These leadership styles are classified thus:

- 1.1 Impoverished Management, characterized by low  
commitment to subordinates and productivity
- 1.9 Country Club Management, characterized by high con-  
cern for people at the expense of productivity
- 5.5 Organization Man Management, characterized by only

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<sup>2</sup> Ibid., 6.

moderate commitment to the task or the employee

9.1 Authoritative Obedient Management, characterized by  
low commitment to people and high concern  
for productivity

9.9 Team Management, characterized by maximal concern  
for both the employee and the task.<sup>3</sup>

Since its origin, the Managerial Grid has been used extensively among other professions for the distinct purpose of fostering positive leadership styles. The Grid has been adopted, in the health field, for evaluating leadership styles of nurses and social workers. As applied to social workers, the Grid measures the degree of concern the case worker demonstrates for the client and his problem. The Grid has also been used in the organizational development of corporations. Corporate functions are defined in operational terms such as manufacturing, marketing, finance and barrier spanning roles. These activities can be plotted on the Grid as to how effectively they are performed by the corporation. The organization can then determine what strategies are required to

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<sup>3</sup> Paul Hersey and Kenneth H. Blanchard, Management of Organizational Behavior: Utilizing Human Resources (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1982), 90.

enhance these functions. The Blake-Mouton Managerial Grid remains a versatile instrument that coordinates managers' concern for people with organizational productivity. Because it is "an attitudinal model that measures the values and feelings of a manager,"<sup>4</sup> it is the instrument of choice in business or industrial situations where management is the role played by those at the top. It lends itself less readily to leadership although it has certainly been employed appropriately even in the arena of public education.

FIRO (Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation) is a collection of scales which aim to measure task and interpersonal effectiveness in people. The family of scales includes the FIRO-B which assesses behavior in the area of inclusion, affection, and control, and the FIRO-F which measures feelings of significance, competence, and lovability. The FIRO-F feelings are assumed to underlie the FIRO-B behaviors. The instrument scores the individual on the action or reaction he displays toward others and the behaviors and feelings he wants from them. The FIRO collection of scales is based on the fundamental hypothesis that

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<sup>4</sup> Ibid., 90.



every person has three interpersonal needs: (1) inclusion, (2) control, and (3) affection. If these needs can be accurately measured, they will enable a better comprehension of human behavior in many interpersonal situations. This theory proposes that personality factors such as dominance or gregariousness, social factors such as religion, and ethnic background and educational factors such as knowledge, intelligence, and ability should be considered when rating leadership styles and successes.

The FIRO scales compile and analyze data not just about the administrator, but about his work setting as well. A thorough evaluation of an administrator's total behavior includes the perceptions of all persons in a position to observe significant administrative behavior. Once this information is summarized and one's leadership style is determined in terms of task and interpersonal effectiveness, then programs for positive change or improvement can be initiated.

The literature reveals several applications of the FIRO scales. In the public arena, the FIRO-B is used to focus on the quality of honesty in such government groups as the Federal Bureau of Investigation and the Central Intelligence Agency. It is being used more frequently in determining the role of honesty and

feelings in effective human relations. Thus the aim of the FIRO scales is to promote a more humanistic view in the area in which it is applied.

Probably the most popular of inventories is the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator. Developed by Isabel Briggs Myers, the MBTI is based on Jung's theory of function types. Jung maintains that individuals have preferences for given ways of functioning and, since these preferences are characteristic, individuals can be typed by them. The MBTI can be and is used for purposes of personal growth, career counseling, and leadership development.

The MBTI consists of 166 forced choice items. Isabel Myers maintains that the questions are not important in themselves, but the scoring does indicate basic preferences that have far-reaching effects.<sup>5</sup> The scores indicate a preference on four continuums. An individual is not either/or on a given continuum, but has the flexibility and the ability to move from one end to the other depending on the situation. The preference is just that, the individual's preferred way of functioning, all things being equal.

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<sup>5</sup> Isabel Briggs Myers, Introduction to Type (Palo Alto, California: Consulting Psychologists Press, 1980), 1.

The first of the four pairs of dimensions is extroversion and introversion, reflecting personal interests. The extrovert likes the outer world of people, things, and actions. The introvert likes the inner world of concepts and ideas. The second pair indicates preference in perception and is referred to as sensing or intuition. A sensing type relies on his senses and on the immediate, real, solid facts of experience. The intuitive type sees meanings and relationships and possibilities that are beyond the reach of the senses. The third pair, thinking and feeling, refers to one's preference in decision-making. A thinking type is likely to predict the logical result of a particular action and then decide impersonally on the basis of cause and effect. The feeling type is likely to consider anything important to himself or others and then decide on the basis of personal values. The last pair, judgment and perception, reflects the individual's preferred way of dealing with the outer world. A judging type prefers living in a planned, decided, orderly way and likes to regulate and control events. A perceiving type likes to live in a flexible, spontaneous way, understanding and adapting to events.<sup>6</sup>

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<sup>6</sup> Ibid., 2-6.

From the preferences indicated on the four dimensions, personal types are determined. Myers categorizes them into sixteen types and describes the favorite and auxiliary processes for each. A generalized description of each type reveals what he likes, what his strength and weaknesses are, what gifts he possesses and what potential problems he might encounter. For each of the eight dimensions, Myers delineates the effects of the preference in work situations.<sup>7</sup>

This basic and important work of Myers has been expanded on and interpreted and adapted by many in efforts to apply it specifically to engineers, teachers, and managers, among others. Particularly for managers, adaptations have been made by the Center for Leadership Studies at Ohio State University and LEAD (Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description) Associates from the work of Myers and of David Keirseay and Marilyn Bates. From these sources, management styles have been derived. Both organizations describe four management styles, each of which encompasses four Myers-Briggs types. The four are visionary, traditionalist, catalyst, and troubleshooter. Each style is

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<sup>7</sup> Ibid., 17-18.

described in terms of values, strengths, and possible weaknesses, characteristic ways of dealing with colleagues and reinforcement patterns. LEAD adds teaming for effective management, and most effective position in an organization, use of organizational time and institutional deficits if this type is present. A look at these and the many other expansions on the adaptations of the MBTI indicates the degree to which it is considered important and relevant to the analysis of managers/leaders where a fusion of the two functions is necessary.

Fred E. Fiedler is another major contributor to the study of leadership. In 1967, in A Theory of Leadership Effectiveness, he summarized his fifteen years of research on leadership and presented a new theory of leadership effectiveness which he called the "contingency model." Fiedler's theory is an attempt to delineate specific circumstances under which various leadership styles are most appropriate. Integral to his research and the development of his theory are the Least Preferred Co-worker scale and the Assumed Similarity between Opposites scale, both of which assess leadership styles. In addition, he developed a group taxonomy and a method for analyzing groups with respect to what he calls their "favorableness."

To appreciate the impact of Fiedler's work, it is important to note that he starts with a rather narrow definition of leadership. His definition is one that emphasizes the control of others for the purpose of accomplishing a common task, in the style of a manager. He defines the leader as

The individual in the group given the task of directing and coordinating task-relevant group activities or who, in the absence of a designated leader, carries the primary responsibility for performing these functions in the group.<sup>8</sup>

It follows that leadership effectiveness is evaluated in terms of group performance on its primary assigned task. Fiedler chooses to view morale and member satisfaction as by-products rather than as measures of task-group performance.<sup>9</sup>

In developing his theory, Fiedler's first task was to develop a classification of groups and group tasks. He proposed a three-step taxonomy. The first step divides task groups from non-task groups. The second divides task groups into interacting, coacting, and counteracting groups on the basis of work relations. Fiedler deals only with interacting groups. The third step further

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<sup>8</sup> Fred E. Fiedler, A Theory of Leadership Effectiveness (New York: McGraw Hill, 1964), 8.

<sup>9</sup> Ibid., 9.

classifies interacting groups in terms of the influence the situation provides for the leader.<sup>10</sup> The three determinants of influence, or degree of favorableness, are the leader's positional power, the structure of the task, and the interpersonal relationships between the leader and the members. These determinants affect the leader's style and his ability to motivate, direct, and coordinate group efforts. They are critical in determining the degree to which the leader will have influence in the group. Fiedler developed a three-dimensional model to illustrate these influences. The model is a cube divided into octants, each of which contains a group rated as high or low on each of the three dimensions. These sections were the result of empirical studies of groups, from basketball teams to bomber crews, from farm supply cooperatives to creativity groups. The ratings on the three dimensions determine the favorableness of the situation for each octant, that is, the degree to which the situation enables the leader to exert influence over the group.

Fiedler's next task in developing his theory was to measure leadership styles, which he defines as "the underlying need-

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<sup>10</sup> Ibid., 17-18.

structure of the individual which motivates his behavior in various leadership situations.”<sup>11</sup> While leadership behavior may vary from situation to situation, Fiedler believes style to be generally constant. He measures style by means of personal perception scores which ask the leader to describe his most and least preferred co-worker.

To measure leadership style, Fiedler developed two instruments. The LPC (Least Preferred Co-worker) describes the person in his/her working life with whom the leader has been able to cooperate least well by using an eight-point semantic differential between bipolar adjectives. High scores are positive, and the leader is called a high-LPC leader. The other measure is the ASO (Assumed Similarity of Opposites), which is based on the similarity between the leader's most and least preferred co-worker. High ASO scores indicate that the two are very similar. According to Fiedler, leaders with high LPC scores are concerned with establishing good interpersonal relations. They are considerate, and group members are lower in anxiety, get along well, and are satisfied to be in the group. Leaders with low LPC

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<sup>11</sup> *Ibid.*, 36.



scores are more concerned with task. They are more punitive, efficient, and goal-oriented.<sup>12</sup> Group climate evokes different types of behavior in high LPC and low LPC leaders. Fiedler's initial research enabled him to develop these classifications of groups and leaders. Further analysis led to the development of the "contingency model" which states that the effectiveness of a group is contingent upon the relationship between leadership style and the degree to which the group situation enables the leader to exert influence: a task-oriented style is more effective in groups that are very favorable or very unfavorable for the leader, but a relationship-oriented style is more effective in situations where favorableness is intermediate. Therefore, leaders with low LPC or ASO scores perform best in situations that are highly favorable or relatively unfavorable. Leaders with high LPC or ASO scores perform best in situations in which they have only moderate influence, as when the task is unstructured or when they are not well accepted even though their positional power is high and the task is structured.<sup>13</sup>

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<sup>12</sup> Ibid., 45.

<sup>13</sup> Ibid., 146.

Fiedler and others devised a number of validation studies which utilized groups ranging from research chemists to supermarket meat departments. The theory established that it is meaningless to talk about the effective or the ineffective leader, terms meaningful only in the context of a particular situation.<sup>14</sup> Fiedler lists eleven different areas which need further study.

One of these areas, the effect of leader and member intelligence on group performance and situational favorableness, was explored by Louis Csoka, who found that the relationship between leader intelligence and performance depends on other factors. For example, the degree to which experience improves the favorableness of the situation depends on the leader's intelligence and motivational style. "The relative rated performance of high- and low-intelligence leaders changes depending on their least preferred co-worker, experience, and leader-member relations."<sup>15</sup>

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<sup>14</sup> Ibid., 261.

<sup>15</sup> Louis S. Csoka, "A Relationship Between Leader Intelligence and Leader Rater Effectiveness," Journal of Applied Psychology, 59 (1974): 46.

Others, instead of continuing Fiedler's work, have questioned the validity of it. John E. Stinson, for instance, questioned the use of the LPC as a measure of leadership style. He compared LPC scores to scores on the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ), which defines leader behavior as perceived by subordinates. Though both instruments measure task and relationship dimensions, he found no correlation between the two.<sup>16</sup>

While Fiedler's work is somewhat limited and elements of it subject to question, he remains an important figure in the developing study of leadership. His attention to leadership style and his work on group analysis are clearly contributions as well as is his contingency model. In his theory, especially his assertion that task and relationship styles work best with different kinds of groups, can be seen the germinal idea of a situational leadership model.

The Hersey-Blanchard model, implicit in Management of Organizational Behavior, addresses the theory of situational

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<sup>16</sup> John E. Stinson, "Least Preferred Coworker' as a Measure of Leadership Style, Psychological Reports, 30 (1972): 930.

leadership. The authors begin by addressing the difference between management and leadership, with leadership being the broader and less scientific concept. Essentially, management goes on inside an organization; leadership can happen whenever one person attempts to influence the actions of others.<sup>17</sup> The manager needs technical skill, human skill, and conceptual skill, with amounts of the first and last varying and the constant being human skill--the true leadership differential.<sup>18</sup> The true situational leader begins by assessing the maturity level of those he wishes to lead and proceeds to adopt the most appropriate leadership style, given the situation. If the maturity level is low (M1) with individuals being unable and unwilling, the appropriate leadership style is the S1 in which the leader manifests high task and low relationship behavior. Hersey and Blanchard refer to this style of the "telling" style. If the maturity level is low to moderate (M2) with individuals unable but willing or confident, the appropriate leadership style is S2 in which the leader manifests high task and high relationship behavior. Hersey and

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<sup>17</sup> Hersey and Blanchard, 3.

<sup>18</sup> Ibid., 5-6.

Blanchard call this style "selling." If the maturity level is moderate to high, (M3) with individuals able but unwilling or insecure, the appropriate leadership style is S3 in which the leader manifests high relationship and low task behavior. This style is called "participating" by Hersey and Blanchard. If the maturity level is high (M4) with individuals both able and competent and willing, the appropriate leadership style is S4 in which the leader manifests low relationship and low task behavior, the style called "delegating" by the authors.<sup>19</sup> Thus, the situation itself evokes the appropriate leadership style and the leader must be flexible and his followers must be able to understand and anticipate that different factors of their jobs may elicit quite different approaches by the leader.

The assumption on which the Hersey-Blanchard model is based is that human skills make or break opportunities for the acquisition of power--as it means ability to influence. The authors, therefore, go to some pains to define the sources of power and to distinguish between positional power and personal power. Their model may be employed from either perspective but

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<sup>19</sup> Ibid., 154-155.

one who attempts to function from positional power alone has missed the point that underlies: situational leadership is dynamic and personal. It is not a formula but an index by which one can first look, then learn, then lead. He cannot lead, however, without first having looked and learned. He could manage, but he could not lead.

Rensis Likert and his colleagues at the Institute for Social Research, University of Michigan, pointed out the necessity of considering both human resources and capital resources as assets needing proper management. Likert based his theory on extensive behavioral research and implemented programs designed to bring about organizational change in differing industrial settings. The prevailing management styles of organization, as depicted on a continuum from System 1 through System 4 can be described as follows.

System 1, the "Exploitive-Authoritative": Management has little confidence in subordinates as seen by the fact that they are seldom involved in the decision-making process. Management makes most decisions and passes them down the line, employing threats and coercion when necessary to get things done. Superiors and subordinates deal with each other in an atmosphere of

distrust. If an informal organization develops, it generally opposes the goals of the formal organization.

System 2, the "Benevolent-Authoritative": Management acts in a condescending manner toward the subordinates. Although there is some decision making at the lower levels, it occurs within a prescribed framework. Rewards and some actual punishment are used to motivate the workers. In superior-subordinate interaction, the management acts condescendingly and the subordinates appear cautious and fearful. Although an informal organization usually develops, it does not always oppose the goals of the formal organization.

System 3, the "Consultative-Democratic": Management has quite a bit of confidence and trust in the subordinates. Although major important decisions are made at the top, subordinates make specific decisions at the lower levels. Two-way communication is in evidence, and there is some confidence and trust between superiors and subordinates. If an informal organization develops, it will either support or offer only a slight resistance to the goals of the formal organization.

System 4, the "Participative-Democratic": Management has complete confidence and trust in the subordinates. Decision

making is highly decentralized. Communication not only flows up and down the organization but among peers as well. Superior-subordinate interaction takes place in a friendly environment characterized by mutual confidence and trust. The formal and informal organizations are often one and the same.<sup>20</sup> Likert identified high-producing supervisors as: (1) being person, rather than task, oriented, (2) investing more hours in their work, with most time given over to general and specific supervision of their subordinates, (3) receiving more general supervision from their own supervisors, and (4) liking the authority and responsibility of their jobs.<sup>21</sup> On the basis of his own research as well as his review of hundreds of other studies, Likert found both high and improved production likely in systems associated with leadership based on teamwork, trust, and participative decision making.<sup>22</sup>

Andrew W. Halpin, in a fairly early study of school superintendents using the Leader Behavior Description

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<sup>20</sup> Ibid., 63-65.

<sup>21</sup> William H. Roe and Theibert L. Drake, The Principalship (New York, New York: Macmillan Publishing Co., Inc., 1980), 96.

<sup>22</sup> Rensis Likert, "Management Styles and the Human Component," Management Review, (October 1977): 23.



Questionnaire (LBDQ), a self-report instrument, found the administrators in his study viewed Consideration (people orientation) and Initiating Structure (task orientation) to be mutually exclusive.<sup>23</sup> From observation, Halpin concluded that a leader "must contribute to both major group objectives: goal achievement and group maintenance, or he must facilitate cooperative group action that is both effective and efficient."<sup>24</sup>

In his 3-D Management Style Theory, William J. Reddin added, for the first time, an effectiveness dimension to the task and relationship concerns of earlier attitudinal models such as the Managerial Grid. Hersey and Blanchard followed the work of Reddin in developing their Tri-Dimensional Leader Effectiveness Model because they felt, as Reddin had, that the difference between effective and ineffective styles of leader behavior "is often not the actual behavior of the leader but the appropriateness of this behavior to the environment in which it is used."<sup>25</sup> The

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<sup>23</sup> Andrew W. Halpin, The Leadership Behavior of School Superintendents (Chicago: Midwest Administration Center, University of Chicago, 1959), 79.

<sup>24</sup> Ibid., 6.

<sup>25</sup> Hersey and Blanchard, 97.

four styles of leader behaviors identified by Hersey and Blanchard at the Center for Leadership Studies were high task and low relationship; high task and high relationship; high relationship and low task; and low relationship and low task.<sup>26</sup> Each style is represented on the Tri-Dimensional Leader Effectiveness model as potentially effective as well as potentially ineffective, depending upon how appropriate it is to a given situation.

In summary, the constructs, theories, models and instruments have moved from flat to rounded, from static to dynamic. Leadership has come to be seen as multi-dimensional in interpretation and application. What these models do not accomplish quite coherently is isolating and viewing the rather complex relationships between the leader's own perceptions and those of his followers. To achieve this end, multiple but related instruments had to be found.

### Instrumentation

The purpose of this study is to investigate the relationship between the high school principal's leadership style, particularly

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<sup>26</sup> Ibid., 95.

as it reflects gender-specific traits, and the leadership style as perceived and valued by the principal's followers. To avoid further limitation of the size of the available sample, no attempt will be made to rank the effectiveness of the schools selected. The major focus will be simply finding which blend of characteristic behavior traits both the leader and the followers agree is obvious and differentiating those patterns as gender specific regardless of the gender of the leader. There can be little question that the time has never been more right to emphasize and capitalize on the importance of the principalship in strengthening educational practice and reform. Recent suggestions include both increasing the principal's perceived positional power by increasing his salary nearly fifty percent over a four-year period and increasing the pressure on the principal to produce by the elimination of tenure for principals. The School Reform Act could hardly point more clearly to the primacy of the instructional leadership role which must be played out by the building principal in a cooperative and situational site-based leadership team. The current answer to the old dilemma of how to achieve greater effectiveness--whatever the definition of "effectiveness" is at any given moment--in school improvement

seems to be to tap all talents of all staff members in a joint effort to maximize the potential not only of students but also of staff, including but not limited to, the instructional staff. The relationships are more abundant and more complex between and among all constituencies involved than they have ever been before. No effort will be made to judge these relationships, but they must be analyzed as objectively as possible if the study of leadership in practice is to be advanced. To that end, Elias H. Porter's Strength Deployment Inventory,<sup>®</sup> his complementary Strength Deployment Inventory. Feedback Edition,<sup>®</sup> and the companion Job Interactions Inventory<sup>™</sup> were selected for use in this study.

Most human behavior models currently in use rely on observation alone. They assume that observation of consistencies in behavior patterns will reveal characteristic behaviors and/or temperament traits and can lead to accurate prediction of future behaviors in almost all situations. The Strength Deployment Inventory<sup>®</sup> is based instead on Relationship Awareness<sup>™</sup> Theory which is a purposive or motivational model. Relationship Awareness<sup>™</sup> Theory points to the role of goals in explanation and/or prediction of specific behaviors: all behavior patterns,

whether traits, temperaments, explorations, or defenses are means to an end, and that end is the goal which motivated the behavior in the first place.

Knowledge of a person's goals, what it is the person values, provides very important and more accurate insight into predicting the person's behavior in that it helps to clarify why the person might act one way in one situation yet act quite differently at another time in what would appear to be a very similar situation. When we understand what we want from others, we can often change our behaviors to more effective ways of getting what we want. When we understand what others want, as well as understanding what will appeal to them, what they will find rewarding and what they will find unrewarding or threatening, we can often change the way we relate to them so that we achieve 'win-win' relationships in which we get what we want and they get what they want.<sup>27</sup>

Relationship Awareness™ Theory, being a theory of interpersonal relationships rather than a theory of intrapsychic relationships, rests on four premises that focus directly on more-or-less traditional ways of viewing behavior, stimulants of behavior, behavior traits, and self discovery. The first premise is that behavior traits do not arise from but are our behavioral

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<sup>27</sup> Elias H. Porter, Strength Deployment Inventory (Pacific Palisades, California: Personal Strengths Publishing, Inc., 1985), 3.

consistencies that grow from what we find gratifying in our interpersonal relationships and in our perceptions of how best to deal with others to achieve gratification. In order to achieve a greater efficacy in seeking gratification, old patterns of behavior may be readily modified or even abandoned for more efficacious ones. A corollary is that awareness of these very tendencies in others may make for opportunities for mutual gratification and the elimination of conflict--at least of a confrontational manner--as one becomes more skilled in the use of the truths which the Theory (and the Porter instruments) measure and describe.

The second major premise of Relationship Awareness™ Theory is that there are always at least two different sets of forces which influence our patterns of behavior. The primary condition exists when we are in pursuit of gratification. The second condition exists when we encounter conflict and opposition. "We are predictably uniform in our behavior when we are free, and we are predictably variable as we meet with obstructing conditions in our stimulus worlds."<sup>28</sup>

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<sup>28</sup> Elias H. Porter, Strength Deployment Inventory: Manual of Administration and Interpretation (Pacific Palisades, California: Personal Strengths Publishing, Inc., 1985), v.

Porter attributes to Fromm his third premise: a personal weakness is merely a personal strength overdone. A behavior that stems from strength enhances the probability that interpersonal interactions will be mutually productive. A behavior that stems from weakness decreases that same probability.

The fourth premise is equally simple but perhaps even more profound: the more clearly a personality theory approximates how one experiences one's self, the more effective the theory as a device for self discovery. The utility of the theory is, therefore, enhanced through the joining of self report and feedback, the former providing the introspection necessary to self examination and the latter providing the verification necessary to coherent, purposive exploration and discovery. The names given to various behavior traits would, therefore, matter little, and thus the quibbling over how to define "nurturance," for example, pales in comparison to our ability to recognize and agree upon behaviors that reveal nurturance. It is in the clustering of consistent behaviors, both from self report and from feedback, that one finds both the impetus and the direction for healthy, positive change.

Each of the premises has produced a set of concepts. Stemming from the first premise, that behavior traits are

purposive strivings for gratification, is the concept that there are three distinguishably different but basic strivings in our relating to others. First is the striving to be nurturant of others and wanting to be genuinely helpful and to see others do well. Second is the striving to be in charge, to direct events by setting goals and being the leader. Third is the striving for autonomy, self-reliance, and self direction.

The second premise, that two differing sets of conditions affect patterns of behavior, finds expression in the second set of concepts: when one is unfettered in his pursuit of gratification, the nurturing motive results in actively seeking to be helpful to others, the directing motive results in self-assertion and seeking opportunity to provide leadership, and the autonomizing motive results in active seeking of logical orderliness and self-reliance. Under constraint, the nurturing motive results in efforts to preserve and/or restore harmony, the directing motive results in efforts to prevail over others, and the autonomizing motive results in efforts to conserve resources and assure independence.

The third set of concepts is based on the third premise, that a weakness is a strength overdone. The concepts are those of actual overdoing as opposed to perceived overdoing. Examples of



actual overdoing would include trusting to the point of being gullible, being self-confidence to the point of arrogance, or being cautious to the point of becoming suspicious. Perceived overdoing may, in fact, be overreacting to behavior in others that would be considered inappropriate for one's self, such as a high nurturer's typical response to a high director whose self-confidence, ambition, and directness the high nurturer may see as arrogant, aggressive, or even overbearing.

The fourth set of concepts is based on the fourth premise: the efficacy of a particular personality theory in self-discovery as well as in understanding others is a direct function of its relationship to how we experience ourselves. If one knows, for example, the specific gratifications that guide him and others, he may quickly assess whether a given conflict is real or not. Resultant actions may, in such a scheme, be carried forward with insight and without violating the integrity of either party and may, as a result, achieve the desired result: positive change.<sup>29</sup>

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<sup>29</sup> Elias H. Porter, "On the Development of Relationship Awareness Theory: A Personal Note," reprinted in Strength Deployment Inventory: Manual of Administration and Interpretation (Pacific Palisades, California: Personal Strengths Publishing, Inc., 1985), vii.

Relationship Awareness™ Theory teaches that behavior reveals four distinguishably different basic patterns of motivation in pursuit of rewards and/or gratifications and three different distinguishable blends of patterns. It is these four basic patterns of motivation and three blends of patterns that the Strength Deployment Inventory® seeks to measure in two sets of conditions: (1) when things are going well, and (2) when things are going wrong.

#### The Four Basic Patterns of Motivation

- (1) The Altruistic-Nurturing pattern of motivation has as its most distinguishing quality the seeking after gratification through a basic but personal concern for the protection, growth, and general welfare of others. There is little if any regard for material reward in return.
- (2) The Assertive-Directing pattern of motivation has as its most distinguishing quality the seeking after gratification through a basic concern for task accomplishment. The individual organizes people, money, time, opportunity, and any other resources toward the end of task completion with a clear sense of having earned the right to be rewarded for success.
- (3) The Analytic-Autonomizing pattern of motivation has as its most distinguishing quality the seeking after gratification through a basic concern for self-reliance, self-dependence and the assurance that things have been properly sorted out, put together, and thought through so that meaningful and logical order and action are achieved and maintained.

- (4) The Flexible-Cohering pattern of motivation has as its most distinguishing quality the seeking after gratification through a basic concern for the welfare of the group, membership in the group, and flexibility of behavior to the end of achieving unity and coherence in group goals and undertakings.

#### The Three Blends of Patterns

- (1) The Assertive-Nurturing blend has as its most distinguishing quality the seeking after gratification through actively and assertively promoting--in a leadership role--the welfare of others.
- (2) The Cautious-Supporting blend has as its most distinguishing quality the seeking after gratification through responding to others' needs in a controlled and orderly manner, always maintaining self-reliance and self-sufficiency.
- (3) The Judicious-Competing blend has as its most distinguishing quality the seeking after gratification through employing strategies in dealing with others. The emphasis is on winning, but the victory must be achieved through the use of wit.<sup>30</sup>

The Strength Deployment Inventory<sup>®</sup> attempts to measure patterns of behavior based on a personal value mix. It addresses the importance of situational leadership by measuring those patterns when things are going well as well as when they are going wrong. The inventory goes beyond the "people" or "task"

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<sup>30</sup> Elias H. Porter, Strength Deployment Inventory, 3.

orientation of the Myers Briggs Type Inventory to blends of the two. The complementary Strength Deployment Inventory: Feedback Edition<sup>®</sup> allows two views of the same individual, one through self-report and the other through feedback. The comparison of scores on the Strength Deployment Inventory<sup>®</sup> and the Strength Deployment Inventory: Feedback Edition<sup>®</sup> will round out the picture of each administrator. Also, administration of Porter's Job Interactions Inventory<sup>™</sup> will establish how the demands of the job shape the principal's style of interaction. The inventory was designed to measure the pattern of interactions required by a particular job. All three instruments reflect the situational nature of leadership by measuring motivational patterns when things are going well and when things are going badly. All three instruments also measure the previously identified four basic patterns of motivation and three blends of patterns.

By subtracting Strength Deployment Inventory<sup>®</sup> scores from Job Interactions Inventory<sup>™</sup> scores, an interpretation of differences will reveal whether the two sets of scores differ in interpersonal interaction areas. Interpretation of interpersonal

interaction scores on the Strength Deployment Inventory<sup>®</sup> and the Job Interactions Inventory<sup>™</sup> will reveal how each principal's motivational patterns match his perceived job requirements.

Interpretation of differences will be shown in:

- (1) nurturance (a primarily feminine pattern of traits)
  - (2) self assertion (a primarily masculine pattern)
  - (3) self-direction (a primarily masculine pattern)
- Amounts of difference will be interpreted as follows:
- (a) Differences of +5 to -5 indicate that the job appears to require about the same amount of nurturance, self assertion, or self-direction as an individual would be comfortable in providing when things are going well.
  - (b) Differences of 6 to 11 points indicate that the job appears to require more (for a plus) or less (for a negative) of nurturance, self-assertion , or self-direction than an individual would be comfortable giving when things are going well.
  - (c) Differences of 12 points indicate that the job clearly requires more (for the positive difference) or less (for a negative difference) of nurturance, self assertion, or self-direction than an individual would be comfortable providing when things are going well.
- (4) concern for harmony (a primarily feminine pattern)
  - (5) concern for production (a primarily masculine pattern)
  - (6) concern for orderliness (a primarily feminine pattern)
- Amounts of difference will be interpreted as follows:
- (a) Differences of +5 to -5 indicate that the job appears to require about the same response pace in the expression of concern for harmony, production, or orderliness as an individual would be comfortable providing in general.

- (b) Differences of 6 to 11 points indicate that the job appears to require a quicker (for a positive difference) or a slower (for a negative difference) response in expressing concern for harmony, production, or orderliness than an individual is most comfortable in providing when in a conflict situation.
- (c) Differences of 12 or more points indicate that the job clearly requires a quicker (for a positive difference) or a slower (for a negative difference) response in expressing concern for harmony, production, or orderliness than an individual is comfortable in providing when in a conflict situation.<sup>31</sup>

### Reliability and Validity

A basic assumption underlying the construction of the Strength Deployment Inventory<sup>®</sup> was that when things are going well for people, approximately one third will score highest on the Altruistic Nurturing scale, another one third will score highest on the Assertive-Directing scale, and the final third will score highest on the Analytic-Automizing scale. Items were, therefore, written tested, and rewritten until successive samples yielded

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<sup>31</sup> Elias H. Porter, Job Interactions Inventory (Pacific Palisades, California: Personal Strengths Publishing, Inc., 1985), 4.

approximately equal distributions of populations among the three scales. This brought the means for each scale to approximately  $33 \frac{1}{3}$ , the center of the Interpersonal Interaction Triangle,<sup>®</sup> under the conditions of “when things are going well.” Standard deviations for each scale were quite similar (Altruistic-Nurturing 12.33, Assertive-Directing 15.03 and Analytic-Automizing 11.88).

Over time, it became clear that the motivational orientation of persons scoring relatively equally on all three scales differed from the orientations of persons scoring higher on one of the Altruistic Nurturing, Assertive Directing, or Analytic Automizing scales. It therefore became necessary to establish a “boundary” to define the “Hub” area. The boundary is set at 11 points above and below the mean on each scale (i.e., approximately one Standard Deviation above and below the mean).

Since the handling of conflict is culturally determined, no assumptions were made as to where the means should be under conditions of conflict and opposition. As could have been predicted, there is a drop on the Altruistic-Nurturing scale (nine points) and increases on the other scales, with Assertive-Directing up six points and Analytic-Automizing up three points.

In order to establish test-retest reliability, one hundred subjects were retested within periods varying from six days to two weeks. Pearsonian coefficients of correlation between the test and retest scores were for each scale as follows: Altruistic-Nurturing,  $r = -.78$ ; Assertive-Directing,  $r = .78$ ; Analytic-Automizing,  $r = .76$ .

In regard to the matter of validity, the nature of the instrument must be remembered: the Strength Deployment Inventory<sup>®</sup> was never intended to be a test, even though it is in the traditional format of a test. It was, instead, designed to be an educational instrument. cursory examination of the format shows immediately that no effort was made to avoid any halo effect. The answers can be manipulated to achieve any profile desired. This says nothing, however, that would call into question the scores of a person who answers the items honestly. The greater the integrity of the individual completing the inventory, the greater the validity of the scores, as with any self-report instrument.

Each item on the inventory was analyzed to determine the extent to which it did, in fact, discriminate between high scorers



on a scale and low scorers on the same scale, using the Chi-square method (N = 100). The levels of confidence with which each item ending discriminated are listed below.

No.	A.N.	A.D.	A.A
01	.001	.001	.001
02	.001	.001	.001
03	.001	.001	.01
04	.001	.001	.001
05	.001	.001	.001
06	.001	.001	.05
07	.001	.001	.001
08	.001	.001	.001
09	.001	.001	.001
10	.001	.001	.01
11	.001	.001	.001
12	.001	.001	.001
13	.001	.001	.001
14	.001	.001	.001
15	.001	.001	.001
16	.001	.001	.001
17	.001	.001	.01
18	.001	.001	.001
19	.001	.001	.001
20	.01	.01	.001

From the chart above, the internal consistency is obvious: whatever each scale measures is being measured with a high degree of consistency.

The question of validity as congruence with external reality is both simpler and more complex to answer. The Strength Deployment Inventory<sup>®</sup> administered to a control group of nurses revealed the expected: the great majority scored highest on the Altruistic-Nurturing scale. When the control group consisted of social workers, again the Altruistic-Nurturing scores were mostly congruent with a helping profession. When the control group consisted of students majoring in Business Administration, the scores were congruent, i.e., tending toward the Assertive-Directing scale. Engineers clustered mainly on the Analytic-Autonomizing scale. Even if there is some argument about the naming of the motivational patterns, the patterns being measured are those that are identified with professions in which one could logically expect just those patterns to appear.<sup>32</sup>

#### Population and Sampling Procedures

There were, at the time of selection, only eleven female high school principals in North Carolina who had been in their

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<sup>32</sup> Elias H. Porter, Manual of Administration and Interpretation for the Strength Deployment Inventory, 48-55 (information for 98-100).

positions at least the previous year. Of these, one was under suspension pending a conflict-of-interest hearing and, therefore, unavailable as a subject. Two others were principals in schools that are not matchable in terms of size and location. The remaining eight female high school chief executive officers were contacted individually to elicit cooperation and support. All agreed to complete a Strength Deployment Inventory<sup>®</sup> and a Job Interactions Inventory<sup>™</sup> and to ask five instructional staff members chosen at random to complete a Strength Deployment Inventory. Feedback Edition<sup>®</sup>. Complete materials were returned by six of the eight. Their six schools were paired with six schools having male chief executive officers on the basis of size and general location (whether urban or rural, piedmont or coastal plain, generally affluent or needy). The male chief executive officers were contacted individually and completed inventories returned for comparison with those from matched schools.

### Expected Outcomes

Interpretation of the combined results gathered from the administration of paired sets of the Strength Deployment

Inventory.<sup>®</sup> Strength Deployment Inventory: Feedback Edition.<sup>®</sup>

and the Job Interactions Inventory<sup>™</sup> should reveal supportive data for each of the following questions which are addressed in this study:

1. Are there gender-specific perceptions of the chief executive officer's leadership style among instructional staff members?
2. Do the gender-specific perceptions of instructional staff match the gender-specific perceptions of the chief executive officers themselves?
3. Is there a higher instance of nurturance among female chief executive officers as contrasted with male chief executive officers?
4. Do female chief executive officers perceive their jobs to require fewer typically feminine traits than masculine or fewer masculine traits than feminine?
5. Do male chief executive officers perceive their jobs to require fewer typically feminine traits than masculine or fewer typically masculine traits than feminine?
6. Is there a "typical" leadership style for female chief

executive officers? Is there a "typical" leadership style for males? If there is a "typical" leadership style for female and male, how do they differ and how are they alike?

Chapter four will report specific data gathered from each of the principals who participated, along with the teachers selected at random from each school. Three graphs for each principal will illustrate the predominate motivational pattern measured on the Strength Deployment Inventory.<sup>®</sup> the Strength Deployment Inventory: Feedback Edition.<sup>®</sup> and the Job Interactions Inventory.<sup>™</sup> Analysis of this data will be used in answering the questions stated above.

## CHAPTER 4

### RESULTS

#### Introduction

This chapter presents the data and an analysis of the data obtained from administration of the Elias Porter instruments: the Strength Deployment Inventory.<sup>®</sup> the Strength Deployment Inventory: Feedback Edition.<sup>®</sup> and the Job Interactions Inventory.<sup>™</sup> The purpose of this study is to discover if there are different gender traits utilized by male high school chief executive officers and female high school chief executive officers as perceived by themselves and their subordinates. The Porter inventories acknowledge the significance of situational leadership but reflect patterns of motivational behavior through measuring behavioral patterns when things are going well, as well as when they are not.

Eight sets of the Strength Deployment.<sup>®</sup> battery were mailed to the eight female high school principals who had been in their positions at least one year previously and who had schools that were matchable in terms of general size and location factors. Six

of the eight packets, or seventy-five percent, were returned. Upon receipt of these six packets, six additional packets were mailed to male high school principals in matching schools. All six of the male principals returned their packets for a total of twelve principal respondents. Five randomly selected teachers in each of the twelve schools were asked to complete the Strength Deployment Inventory: Feedback Edition.<sup>®</sup> Five of the six female principals returned all five copies of the Strength Deployment Inventory: Feedback Edition.<sup>®</sup> but one returned four only. Of the male principals, three returned all five of the Feedback.<sup>®</sup> instruments, two returned four of the five, and one returned only three of the five.

For each of the participating principals, an individual profile has been prepared to reveal:

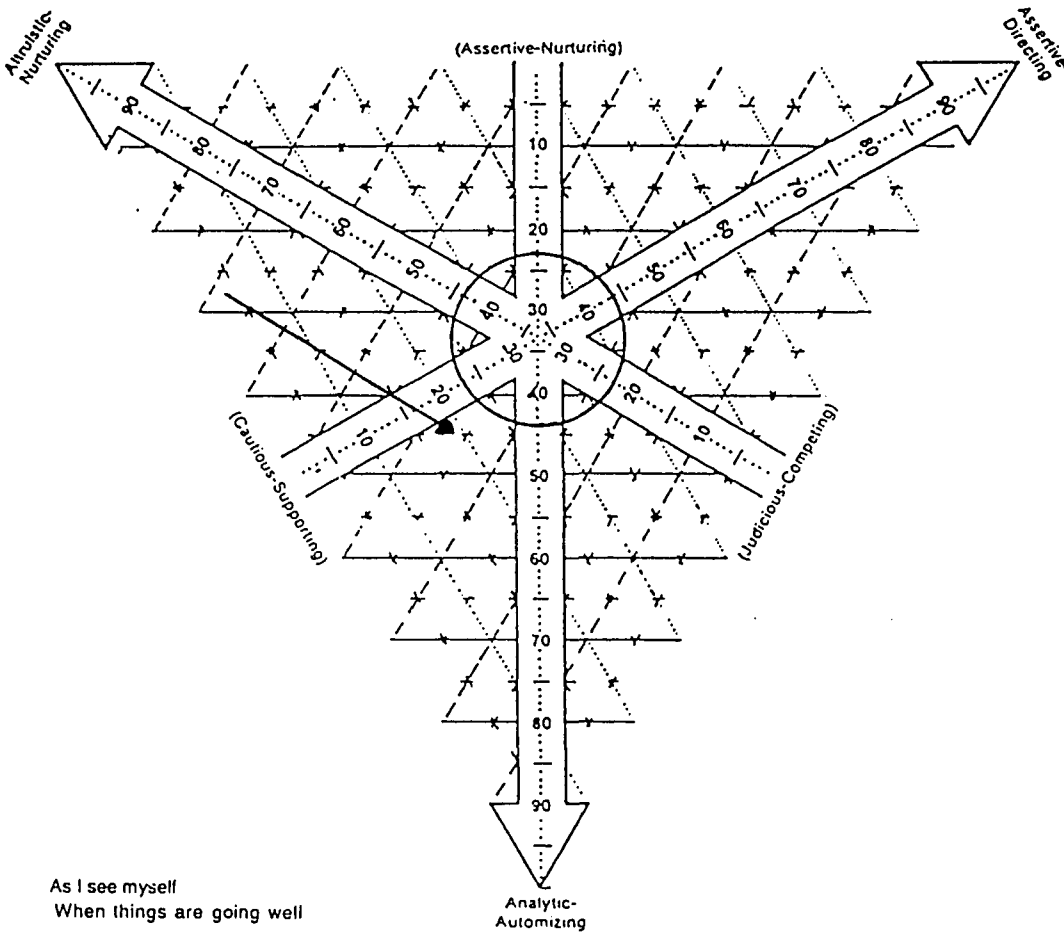
1. the principal's perception of his or her leadership style
  - (a) when things are going well,
  - (b) when things are not going well
2. teachers' perceptions of the principal's leadership style
  - (a) when things are going well,
  - (b) when things are not going well
3. the congruence of the principal's perception of his or her leadership style and perception of the job requirements.

Following the individual profiles, commonalities, contrasts, and their possible significances for enhancing leadership will be suggested from the twelve profiles. Obvious gender differences will be noted, and possible implications discussed. These differences are all the more meaningful because in the general population, research completed by Personal Strength Publishing™ has indicated a platykurtic distribution of the traits regardless of gender. That there should be marked differences in the sample at hand assumes differences not obvious in the general population. Specific findings are reported on the following pages using the Interpersonal Interaction Triangle® developed by Elias H. Porter (Copyrights by Elias H. Porter and Sara E. Maloney).



STRENGTH DEPLOYMENT INVENTORY®

PRINCIPAL: FEMALE A



As I see myself  
When things are going well

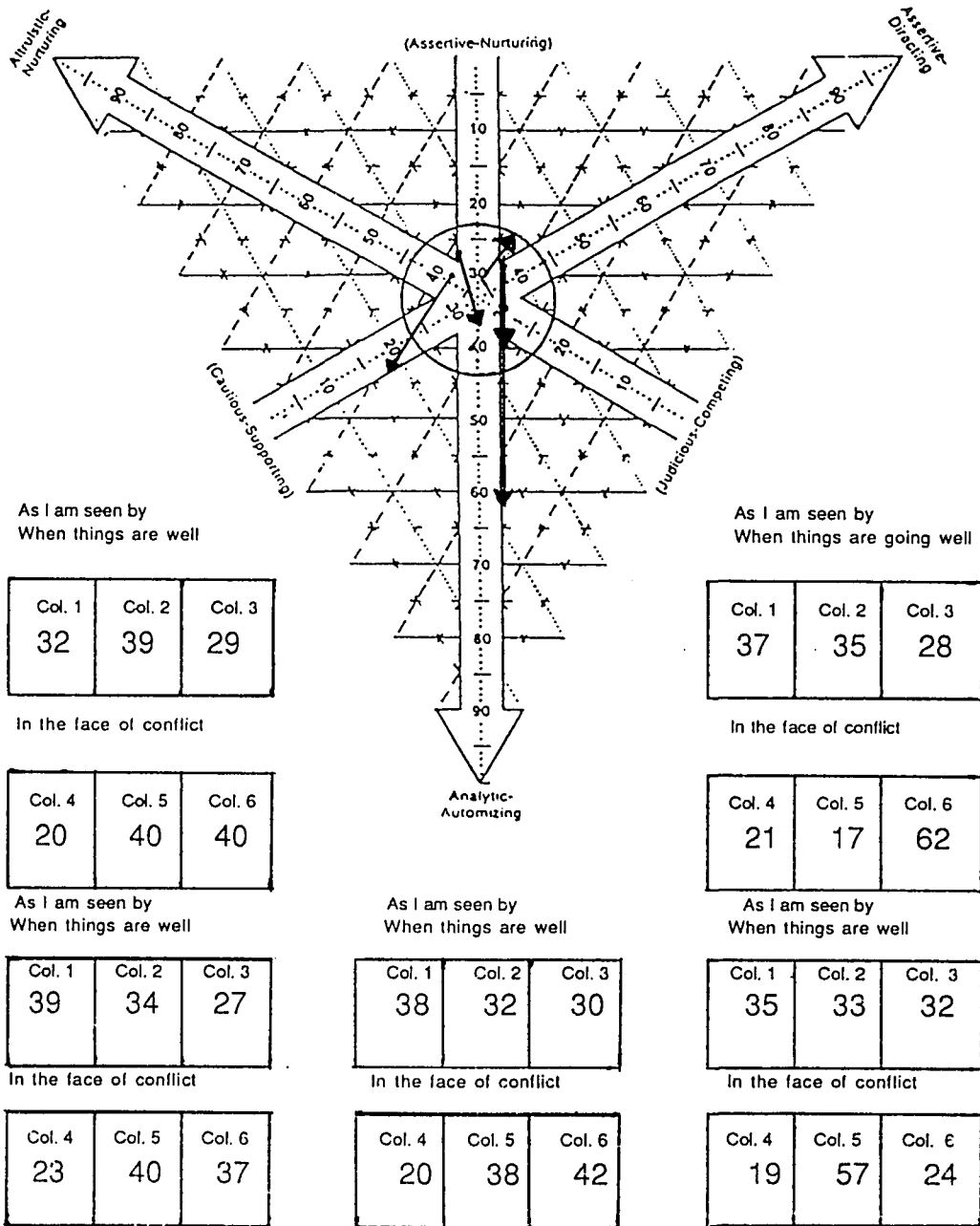
Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3
68	04	28

In the face of conflict

Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
39	17	44

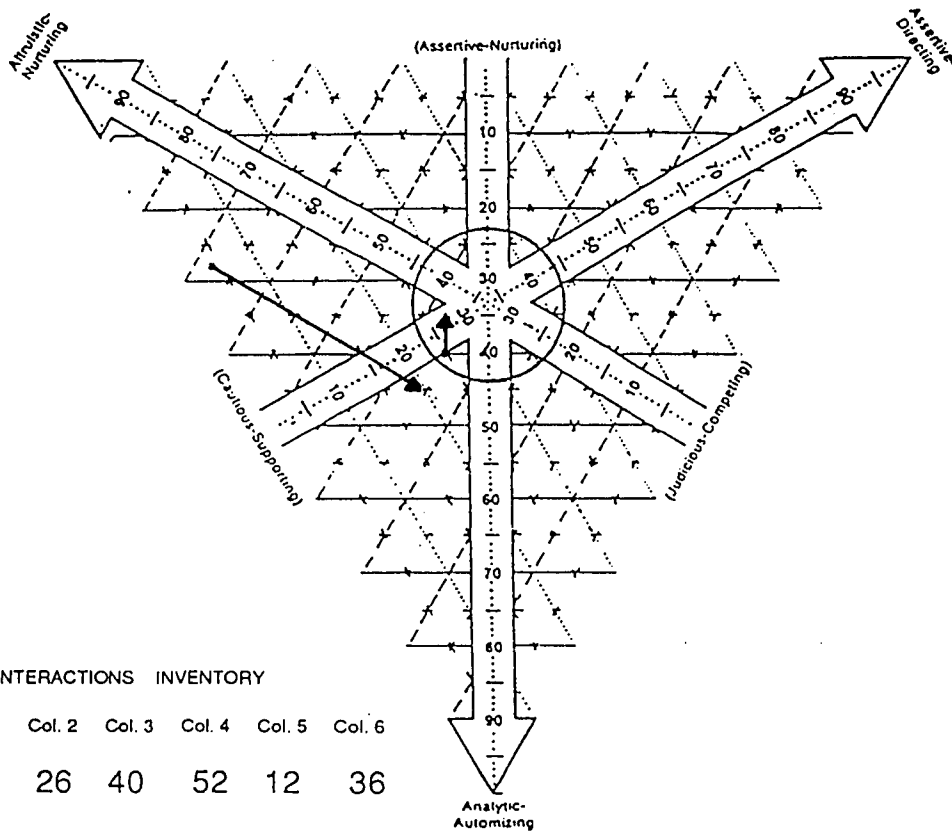
STRENGTH DEPLOYMENT INVENTORY, FEEDBACK EDITION<sup>®</sup>

PRINCIPAL: FEMALE A



# JOB INTERACTIONS INVENTORY™

PRINCIPAL: FEMALE A



**JOB INTERACTIONS INVENTORY**

Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3	Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
34	26	40	52	12	36

**STRENGTH DEPLOYMENT INVENTORY**

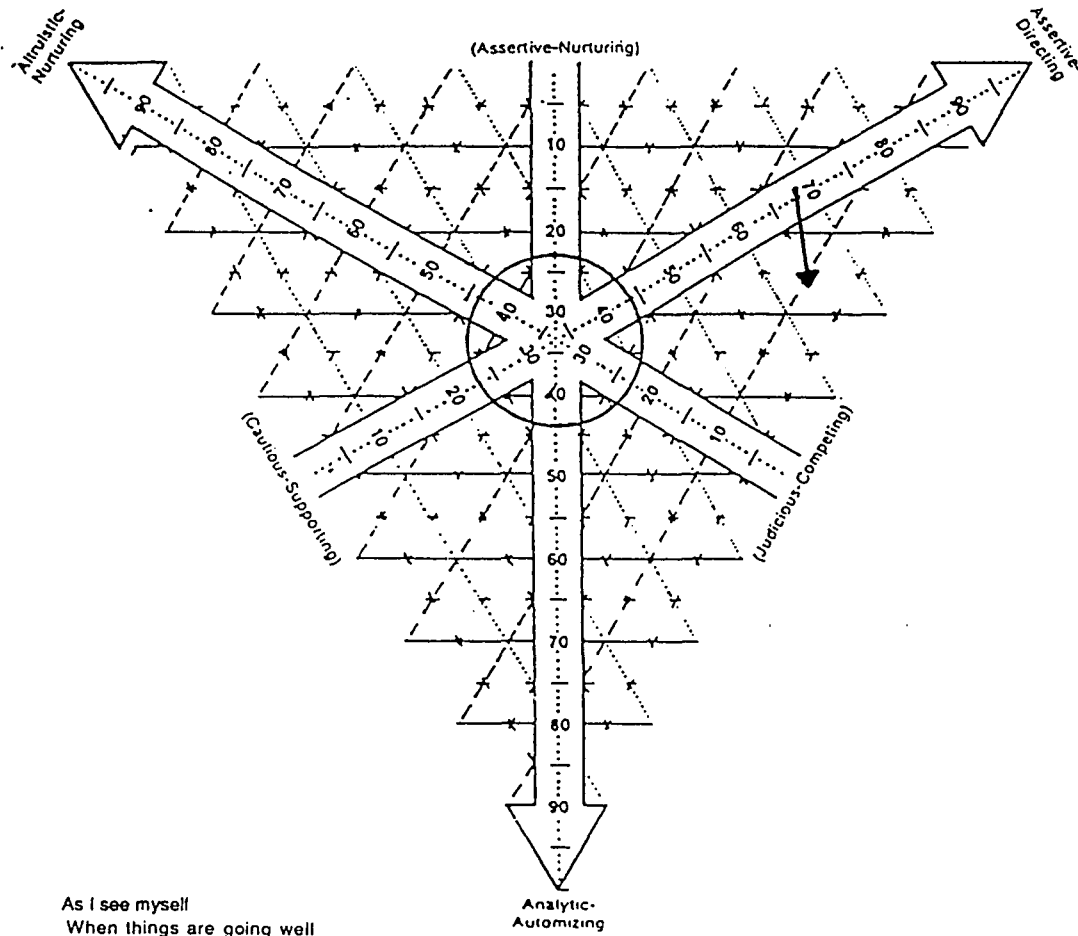
Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3	Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
68	04	28	39	17	44

**INTERPRETATION OF DIFFERENCES**

Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3	Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
-34	+22	+12	+13	-5	-8
Nurturance of others	Assertion of Self	Self- Direction	Concern for Harmony	Concern for Production	Concern for Orderliness

STRENGTH DEPLOYMENT INVENTORY <sup>®</sup>

PRINCIPAL: FEMALE B



As I see myself  
When things are going well

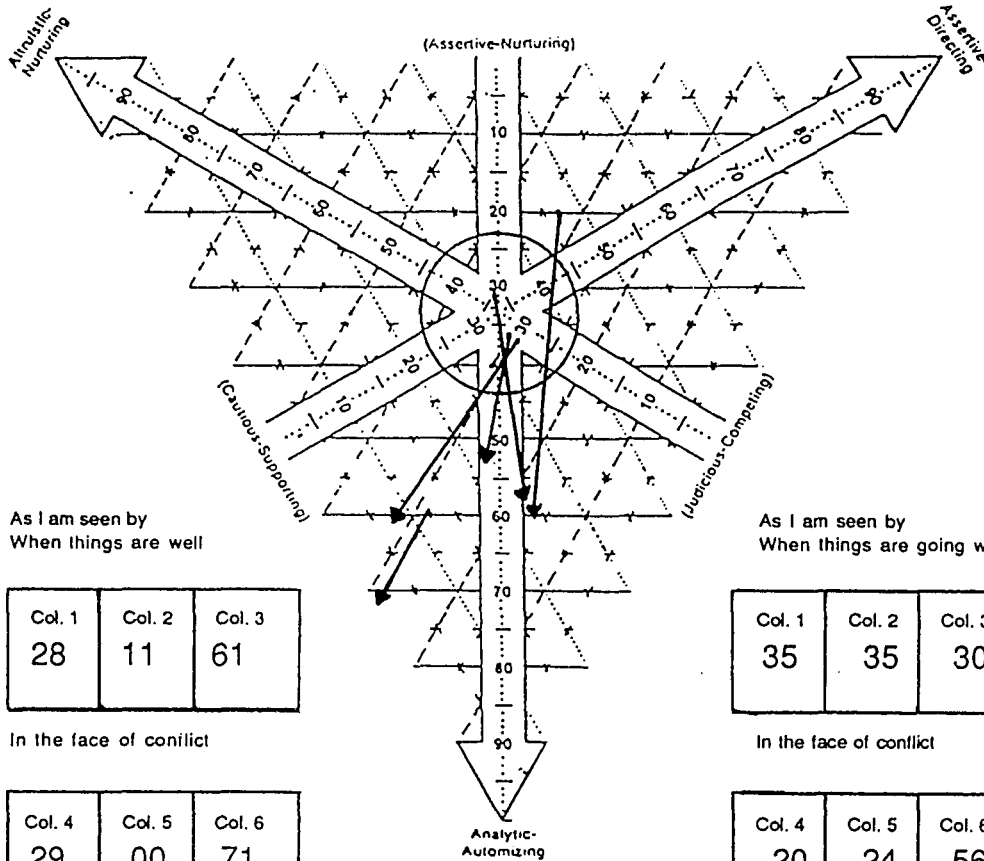
Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3
17	68	15

In the face of conflict

Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
10	64	26

STRENGTH DEPLOYMENT INVENTORY, FEEDBACK EDITION<sup>®</sup>

PRINCIPAL: FEMALE B



As I am seen by  
When things are well

Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3
28	11	61

In the face of conflict

Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
29	00	71

As I am seen by  
When things are well

Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3
31	32	37

In the face of conflict

Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
32	08	60

As I am seen by  
When things are going well

Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3
35	35	30

In the face of conflict

Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
20	24	56

As I am seen by  
When things are well

Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3
31	34	35

In the face of conflict

Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
23	20	57

As I am seen by  
When things are well

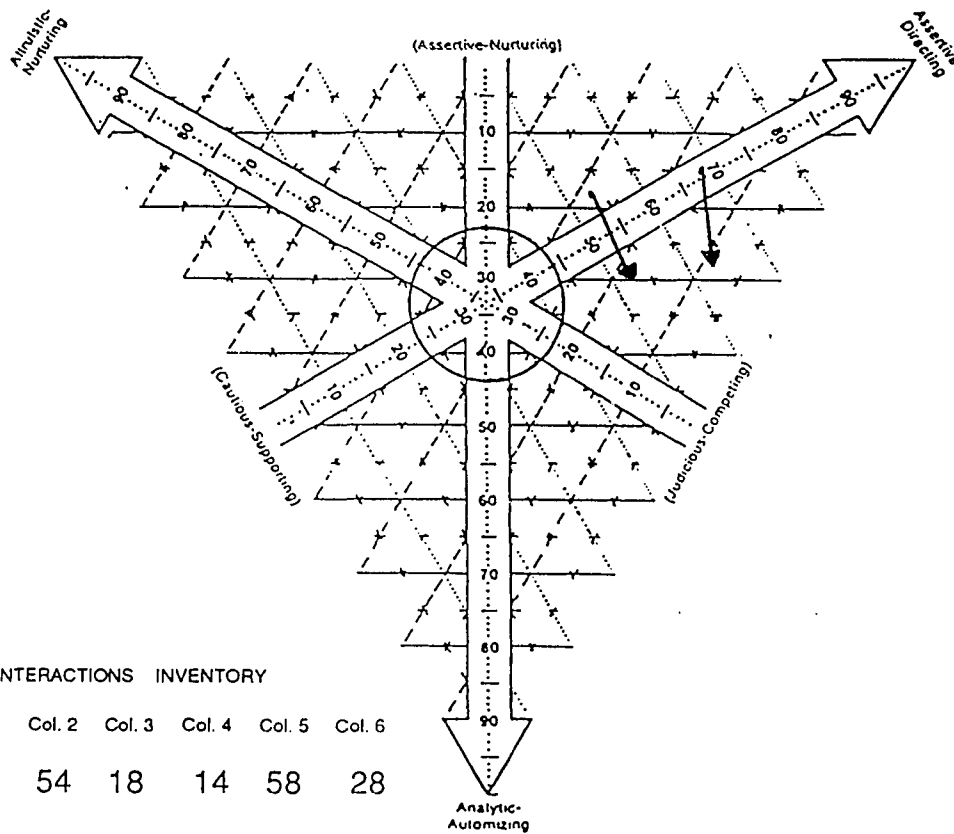
Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3
33	47	20

In the face of conflict

Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
19	22	59

# JOB INTERACTIONS INVENTORY™

PRINCIPAL: FEMALE B



**JOB INTERACTIONS INVENTORY**

Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3	Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
28	54	18	14	58	28

**STRENGTH DEPLOYMENT INVENTORY**

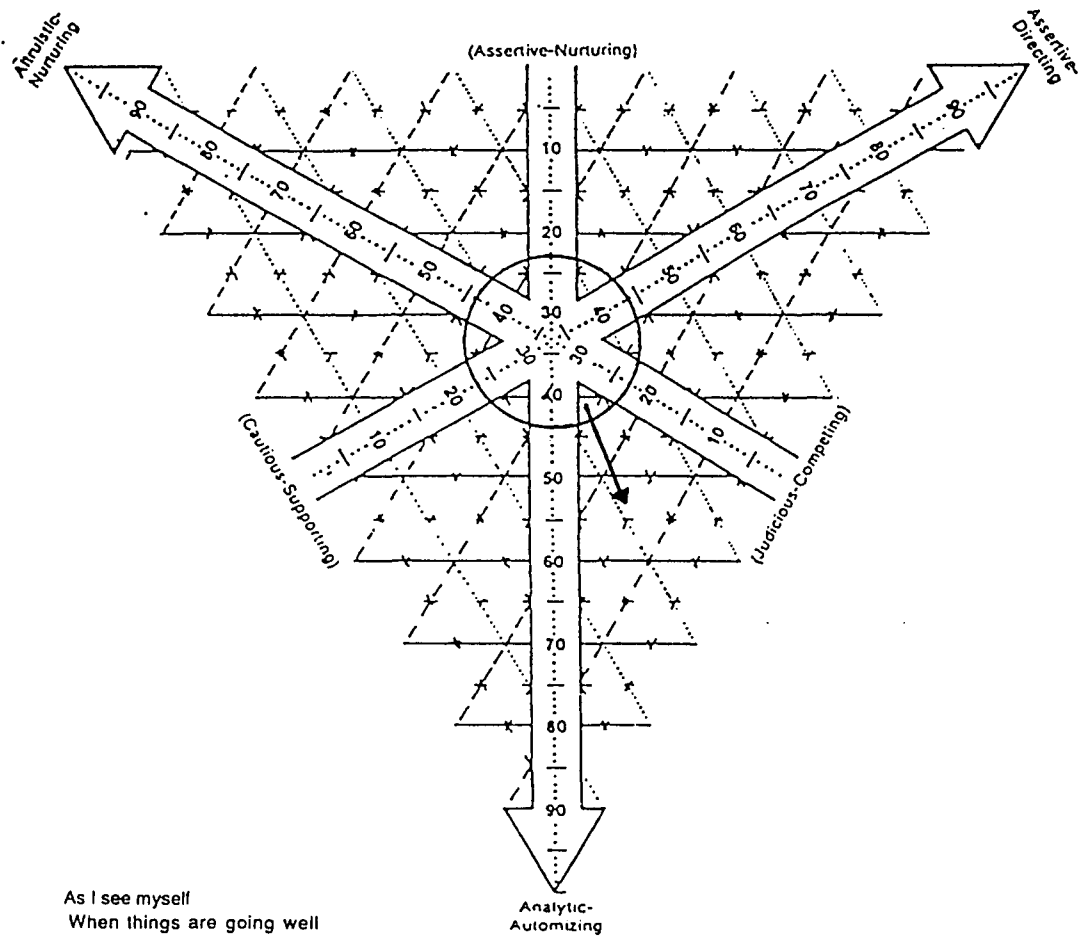
Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3	Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
17	68	15	10	64	26

**INTERPRETATION OF DIFFERENCES**

Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3	Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
+11	-14	+ 3	+ 4	- 6	+ 2
Nurturance of others	Assertion of Self	Self- Direction	Concern for Harmony	Concern for Production	Concern for Orderliness

STRENGTH DEPLOYMENT INVENTORY <sup>®</sup>

PRINCIPAL: FEMALE C



As I see myself  
When things are going well

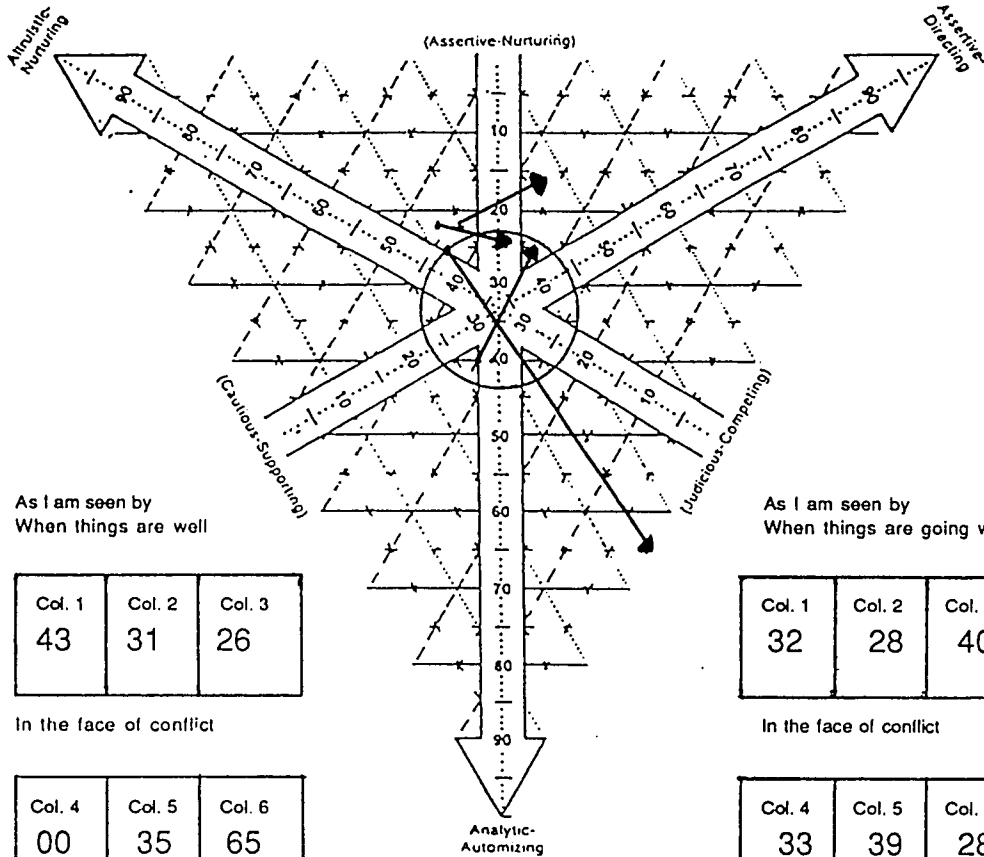
Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3
27	32	41

In the face of conflict

Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
16	30	54

STRENGTH DEPLOYMENT INVENTORY, FEEDBACK EDITION<sup>®</sup>

PRINCIPAL: FEMALE C



As I am seen by  
When things are well

Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3
43	31	26

In the face of conflict

Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
00	35	65

As I am seen by  
When things are well

Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3
43	34	23

In the face of conflict

Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
36	46	18

As I am seen by  
When things are going well

Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3
32	28	40

In the face of conflict

Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
33	39	28

As I am seen by  
When things are well

Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3
45	32	23

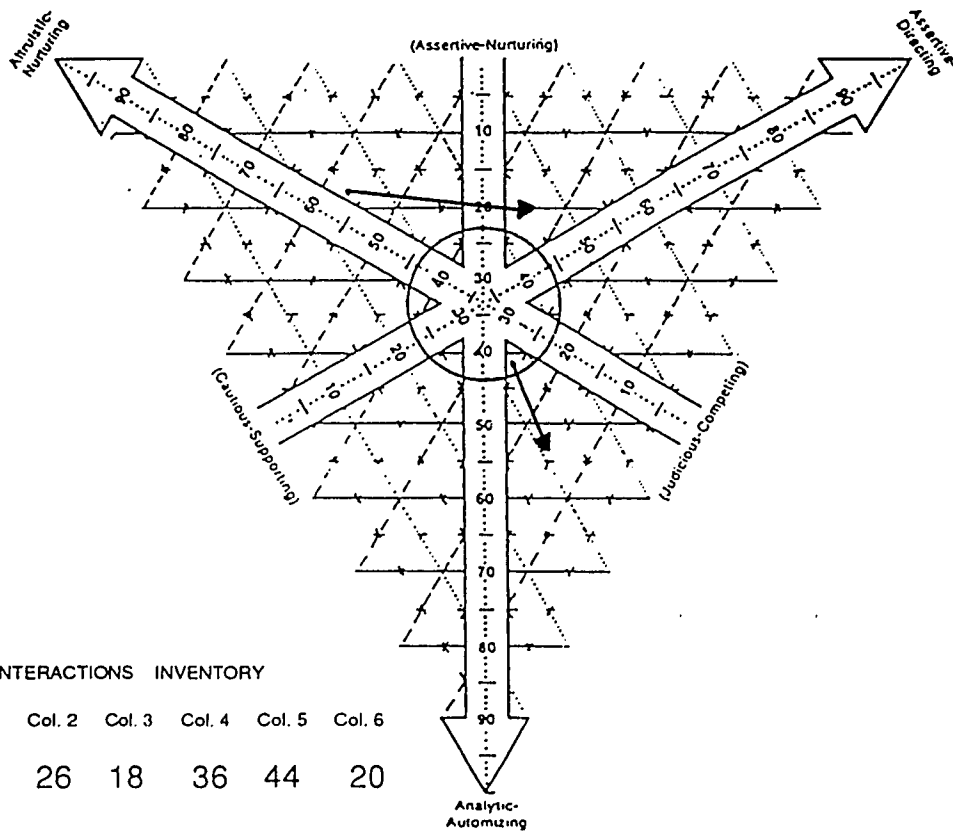
In the face of conflict

Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
37	39	24



JOB INTERACTIONS INVENTORY™

PRINCIPAL: FEMALE C



JOB INTERACTIONS INVENTORY

Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3	Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
56	26	18	36	44	20

STRENGTH DEPLOYMENT INVENTORY

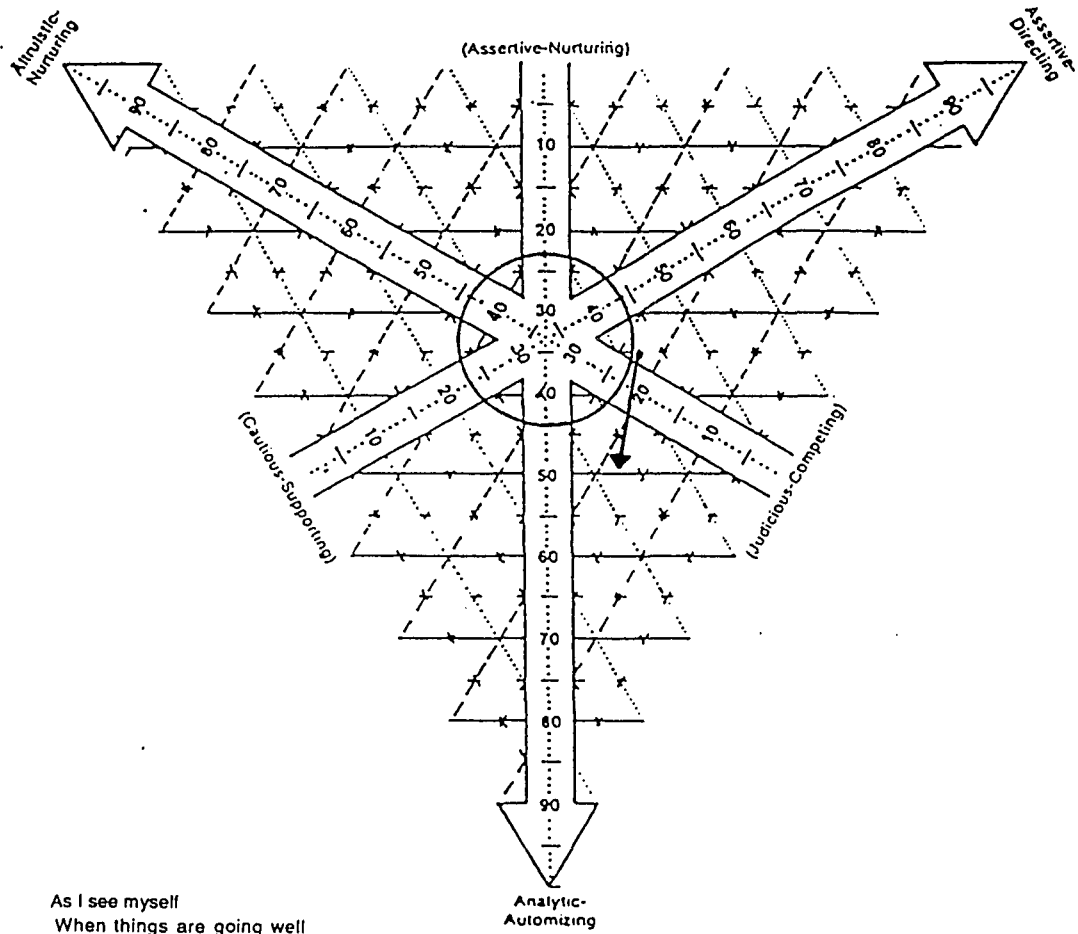
Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3	Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
27	32	41	16	30	54

INTERPRETATION OF DIFFERENCES

Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3	Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
+29	- 6	-23	+ 20	+14	-34
Nurturance of others	Assertion of Self	Self- Direction	Concern for Harmony	Concern for Production	Concern for Orderliness

STRENGTH DEPLOYMENT INVENTORY<sup>®</sup>

PRINCIPAL: FEMALE D



As I see myself  
When things are going well

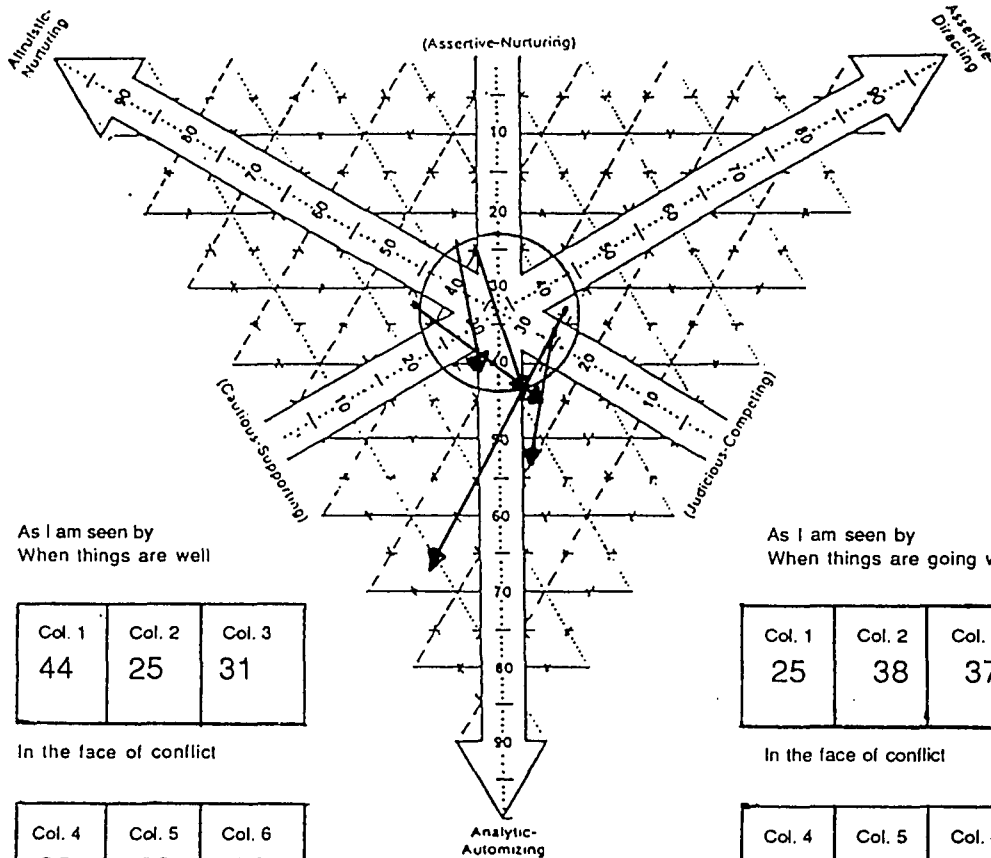
Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3
23	42	35

In the face of conflict

Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
19	33	48

STRENGTH DEPLOYMENT INVENTORY, FEEDBACK EDITION<sup>®</sup>

PRINCIPAL: FEMALE D



As I am seen by  
When things are well

Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3
44	25	31

In the face of conflict

Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
22	33	45

As I am seen by  
When things are well

Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3
41	36	23

In the face of conflict

Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
31	29	40

As I am seen by  
When things are well

Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3
40	35	25

In the face of conflict

Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
27	29	44

As I am seen by  
When things are going well

Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3
25	38	37

In the face of conflict

Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
20	27	53

As I am seen by  
When things are well

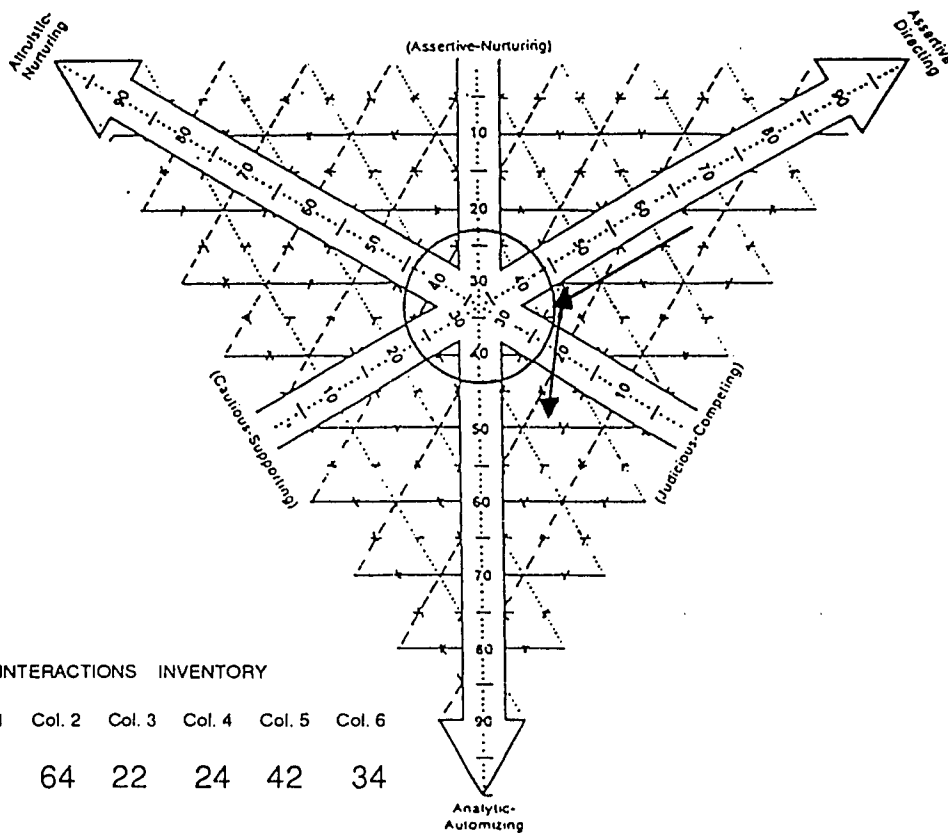
Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3
26	40	34

In the face of conflict

Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
25	08	67

JOB INTERACTIONS INVENTORY™

PRINCIPAL: FEMALE D



JOB INTERACTIONS INVENTORY

Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3	Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
14	64	22	24	42	34

STRENGTH DEPLOYMENT INVENTORY

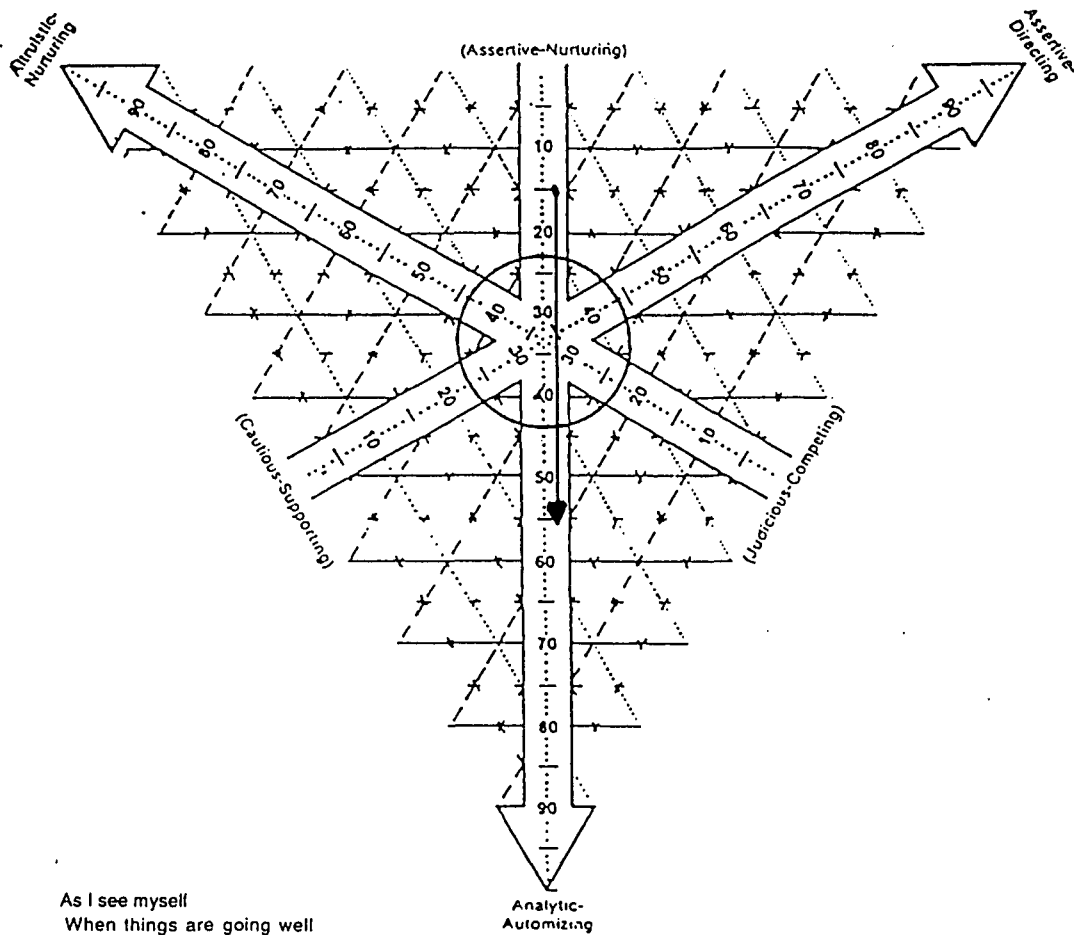
Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3	Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
23	42	35	19	33	48

INTERPRETATION OF DIFFERENCES

Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3	Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
- 9	+22	-13	+ 5	+9	-14
Nurturance of others	Assertion of Self	Self- Direction	Concern for Harmony	Concern for Production	Concern for Orderliness

STRENGTH DEPLOYMENT INVENTORY<sup>®</sup>

PRINCIPAL: FEMALE E



As I see myself  
When things are going well

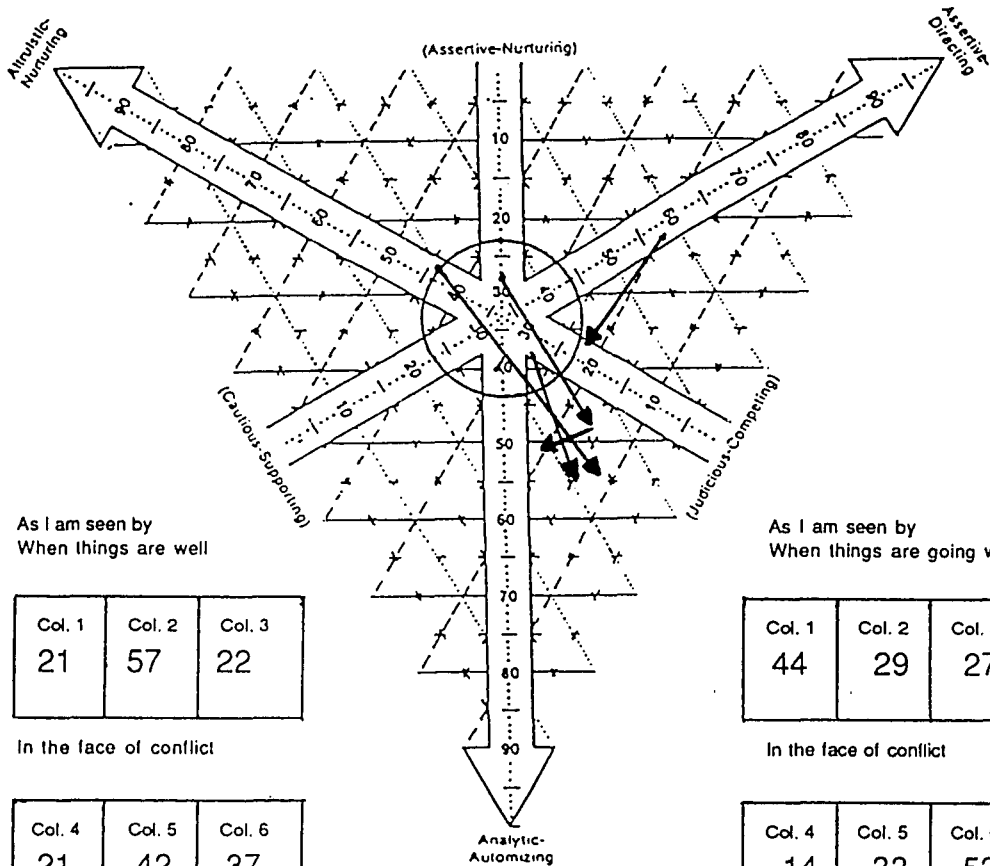
Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3
43	42	15

In the face of conflict

Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
21	24	55

STRENGTH DEPLOYMENT INVENTORY, FEEDBACK EDITION<sup>®</sup>

PRINCIPAL: FEMALE E



As I am seen by  
When things are well

Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3
21	57	22

In the face of conflict

Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
21	42	37

As I am seen by  
When things are well

Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3
35	37	28

In the face of conflict

Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
18	35	47

As I am seen by  
When things are well

Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3
28	34	38

In the face of conflict

Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
15	31	54

As I am seen by  
When things are going well

Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3
44	29	27

In the face of conflict

Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
14	33	53

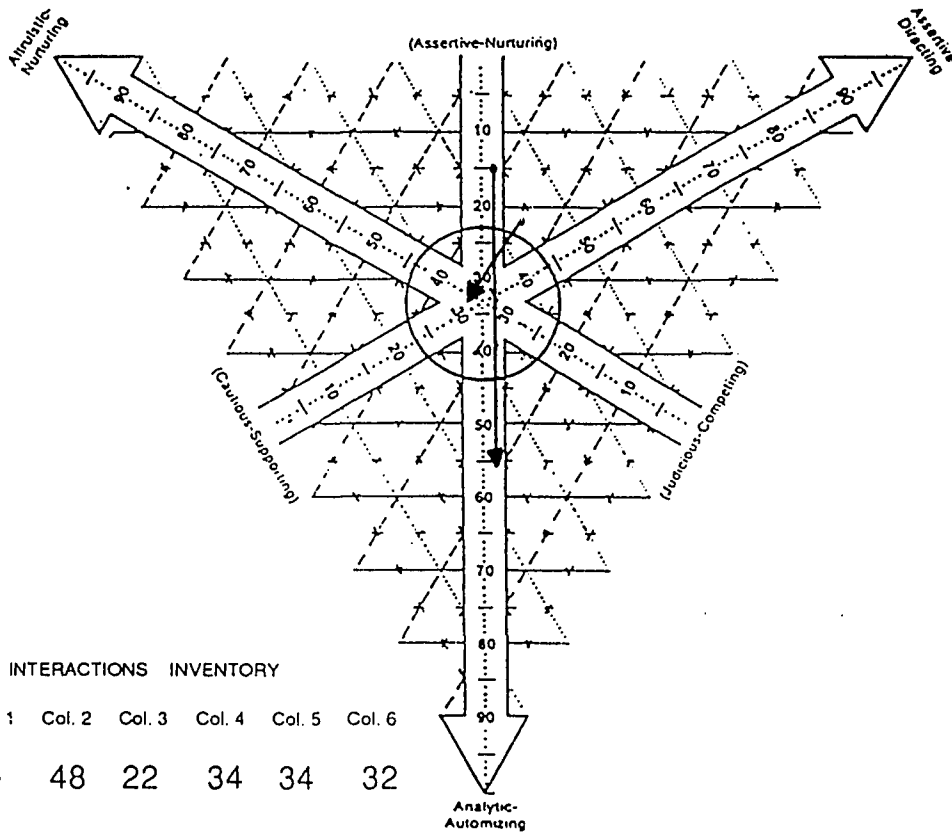
As I am seen by  
When things are well

Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3
18	34	48

In the face of conflict

Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
20	29	51

JOB INTERACTIONS INVENTORY™  
 PRINCIPAL: FEMALE E



JOB INTERACTIONS INVENTORY

Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3	Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
30	48	22	34	34	32

STRENGTH DEPLOYMENT INVENTORY

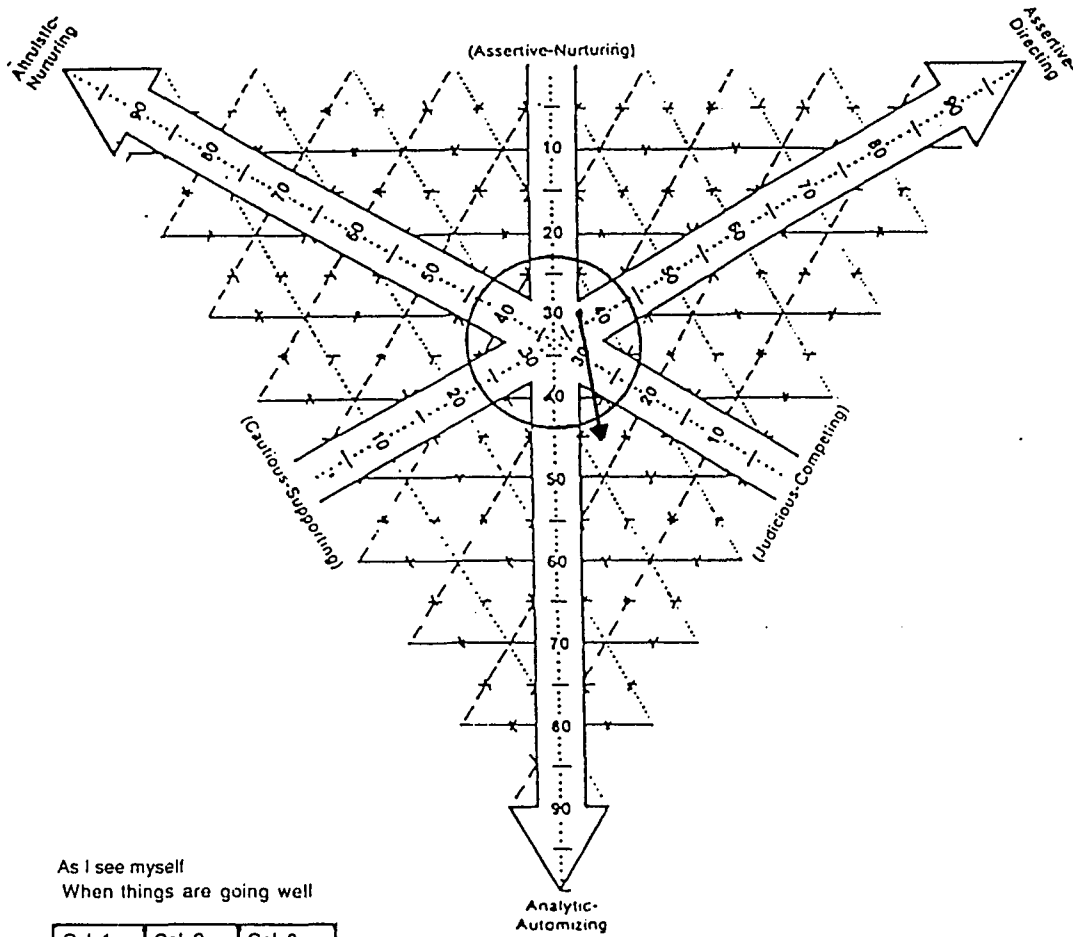
Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3	Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
43	42	15	21	24	55

INTERPRETATION OF DIFFERENCES

Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3	Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
-13	+ 6	+ 7	+13	+10	-23
Nurturance of others	Assertion of Self	Sell- Direction	Concern for Harmony	Concern for Production	Concern for Orderliness

STRENGTH DEPLOYMENT INVENTORY®

PRINCIPAL: FEMALE F



As I see myself  
When things are going well

Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3
32	38	30

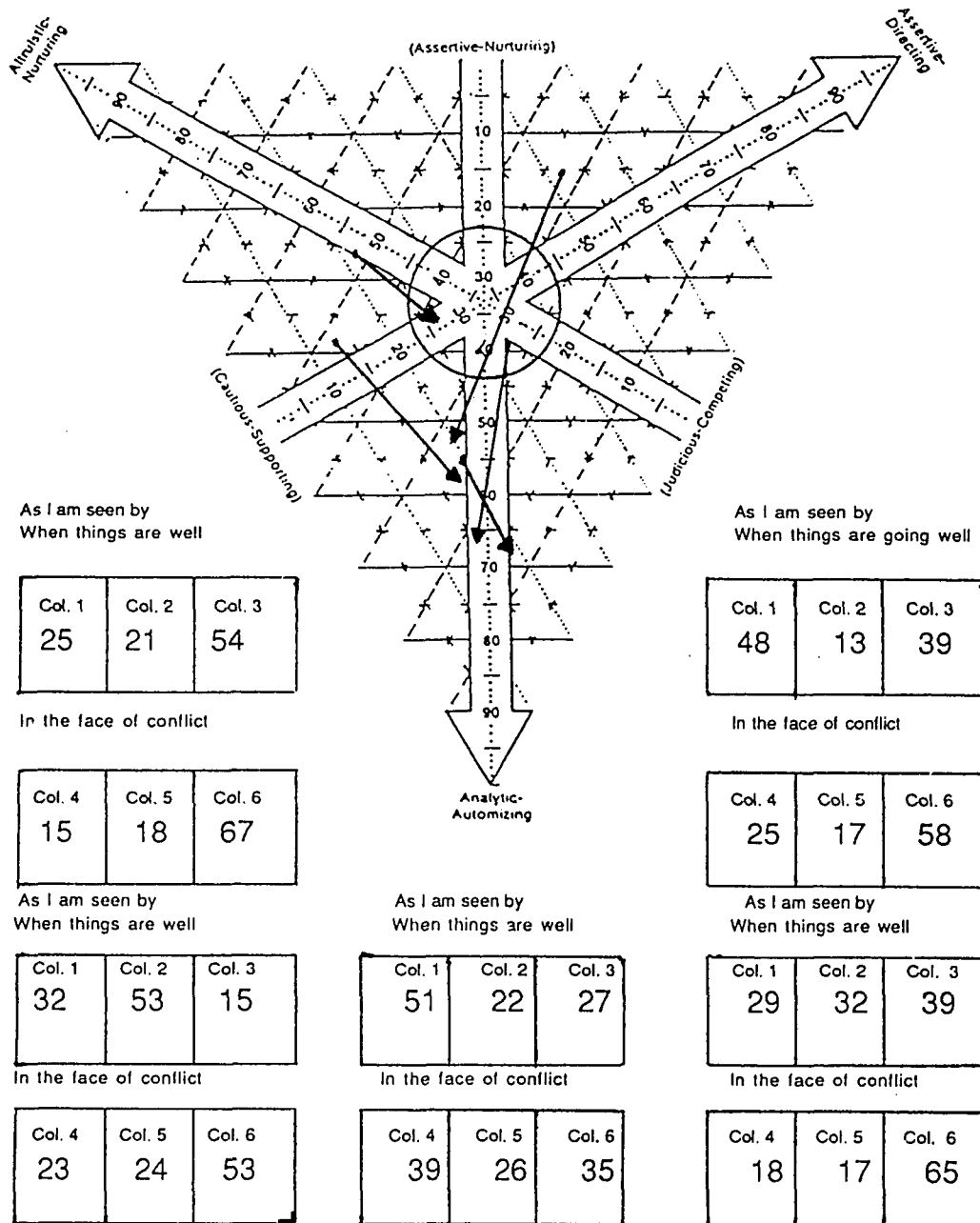
In the face of conflict

Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
24	31	45



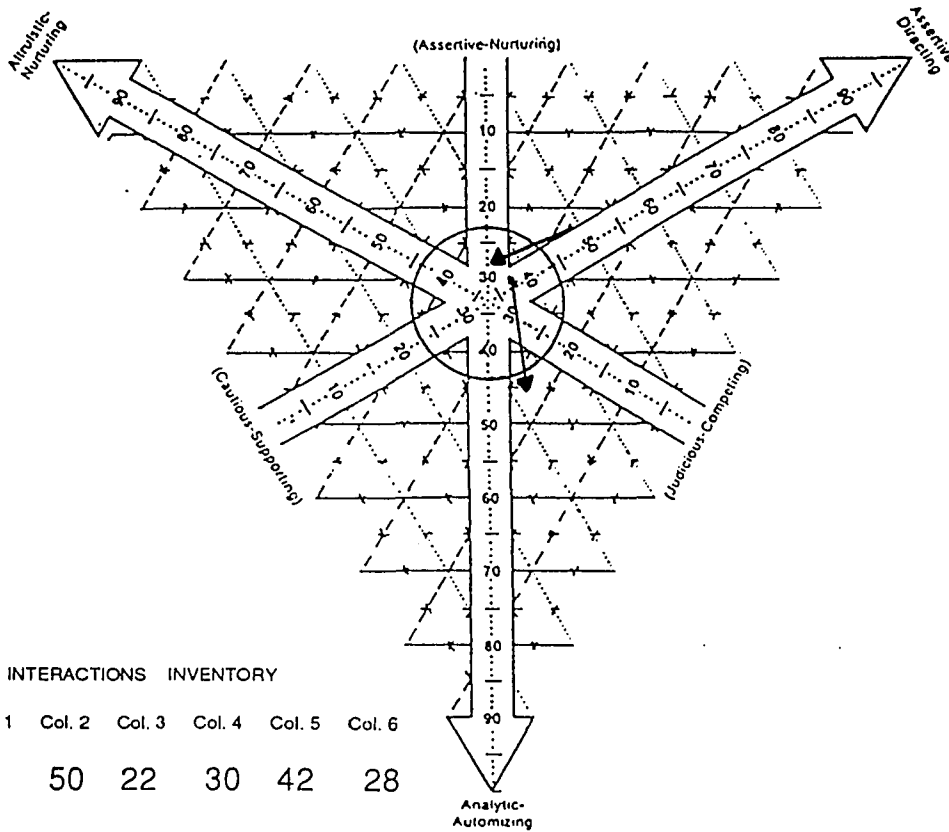
STRENGTH DEPLOYMENT INVENTORY, FEEDBACK EDITION<sup>®</sup>

PRINCIPAL: FEMALE F



# JOB INTERACTIONS INVENTORY™

PRINCIPAL: FEMALE F



JOB INTERACTIONS INVENTORY

Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3	Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
28	50	22	30	42	28

STRENGTH DEPLOYMENT INVENTORY

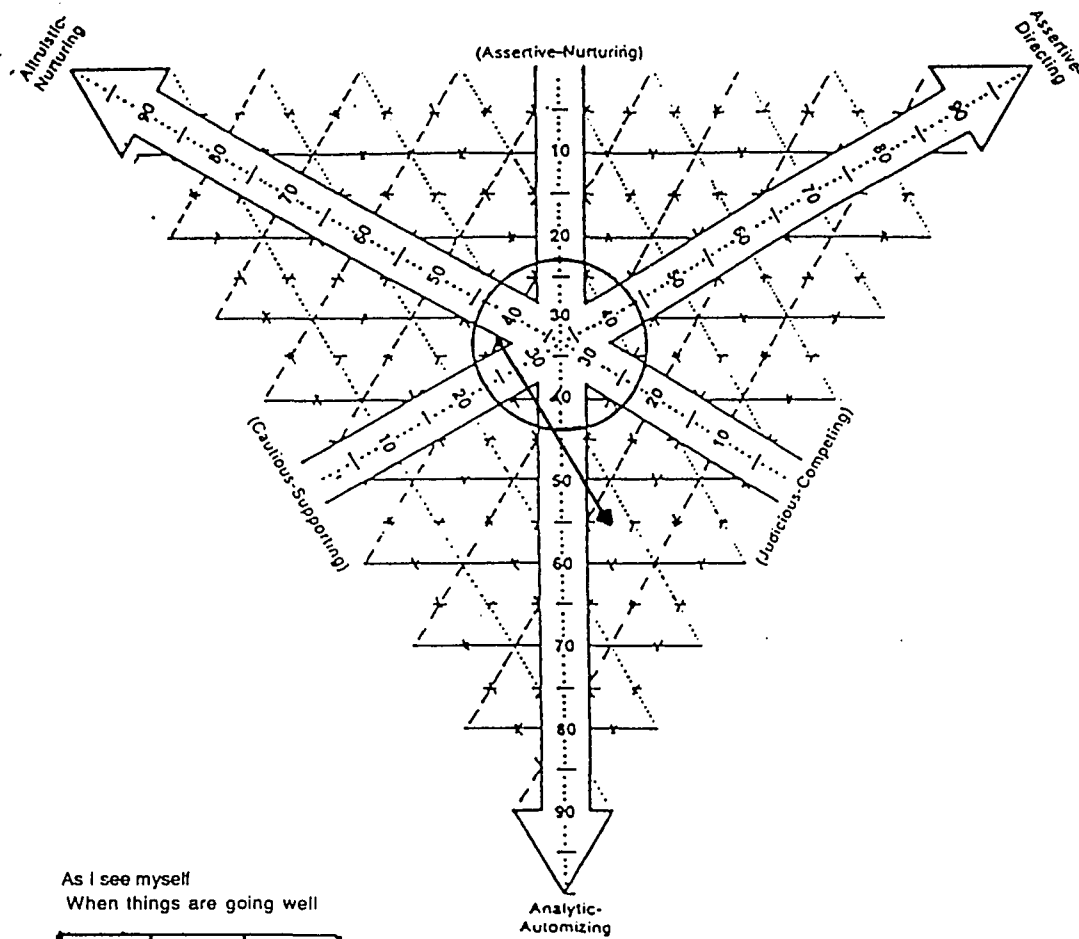
Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3	Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
32	38	30	24	31	45

INTERPRETATION OF DIFFERENCES

Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3	Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
- 4	+12	-8	+ 6	+11	-17
Nurturance of others	Assertion of Self	Sell- Direction	Concern for Harmony	Concern for Production	Concern for Orderliness

STRENGTH DEPLOYMENT INVENTORY®

PRINCIPAL: MALE A



As I see myself  
When things are going well

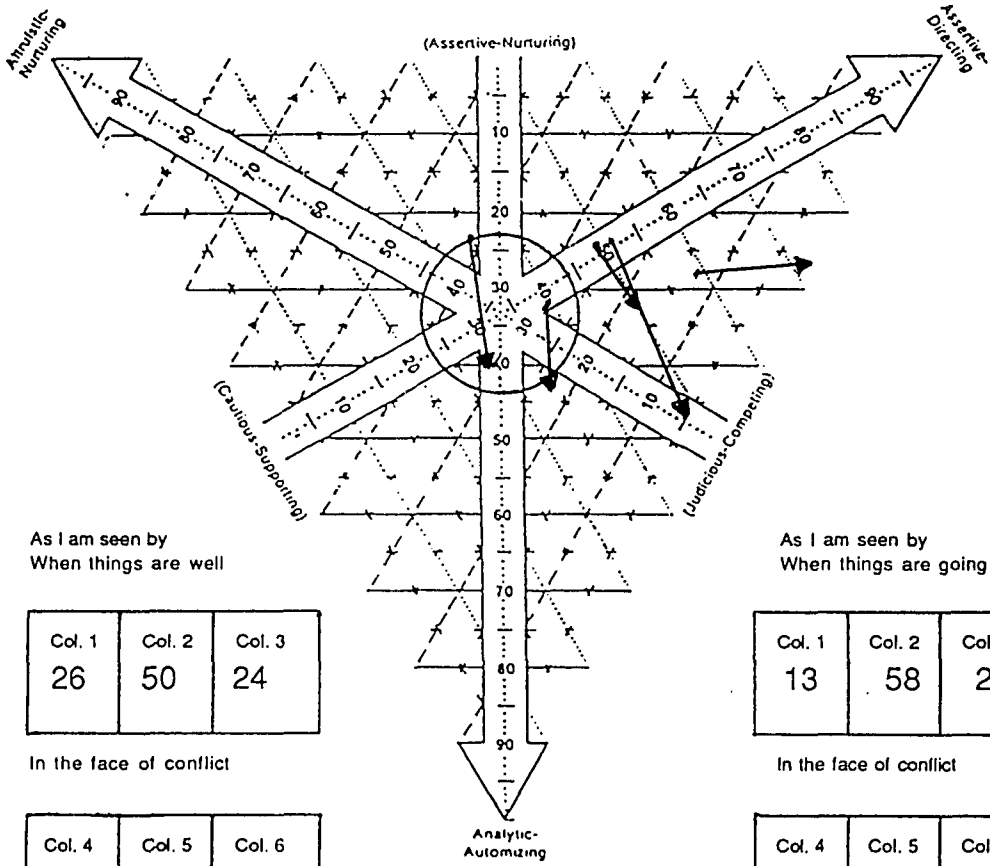
Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3
40	27	33

In the face of conflict

Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
18	27	55

STRENGTH DEPLOYMENT INVENTORY, FEEDBACK EDITION<sup>®</sup>

PRINCIPAL: MALE A



As I am seen by  
When things are well

Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3
26	50	24

In the face of conflict

Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
19	50	31

As I am seen by  
When things are well

Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3
27	49	24

In the face of conflict

Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
06	49	45

As I am seen by  
When things are going well

Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3
13	58	29

In the face of conflict

Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
00	67	32

As I am seen by  
When things are well

Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3
29	39	32

In the face of conflict

Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
24	34	42

As I am seen by  
When things are well

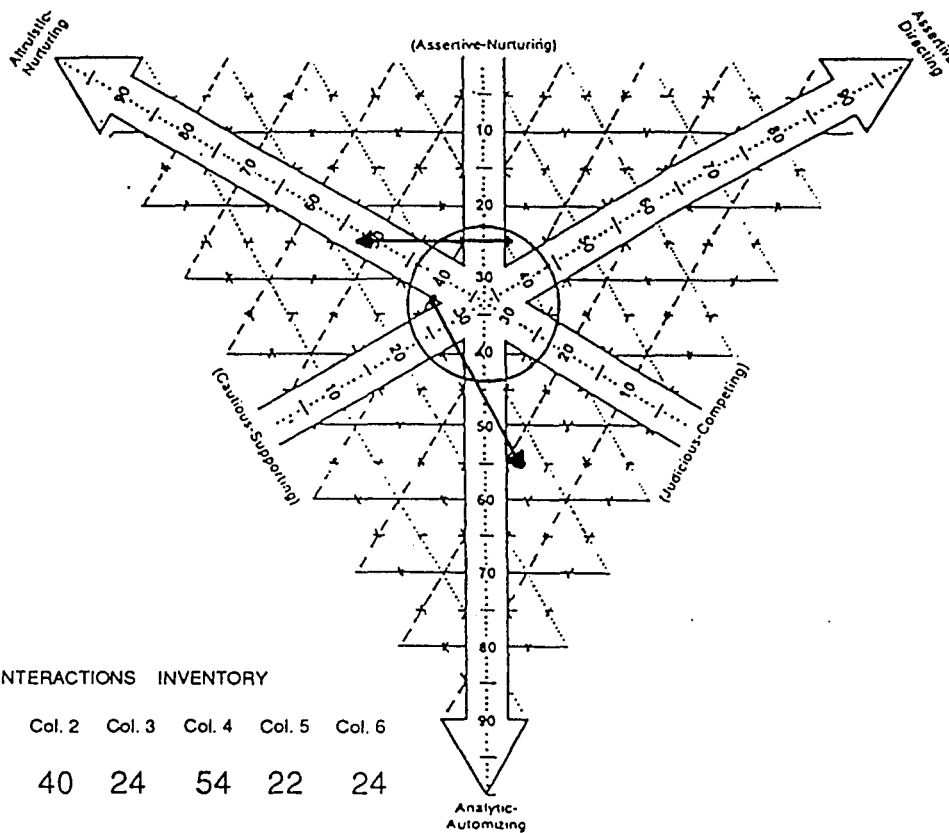
Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3
40	36	24

In the face of conflict

Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
32	30	38

# JOB INTERACTIONS INVENTORY™

PRINCIPAL: MALE A



## JOB INTERACTIONS INVENTORY

Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3	Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
36	40	24	54	22	24

## STRENGTH DEPLOYMENT INVENTORY

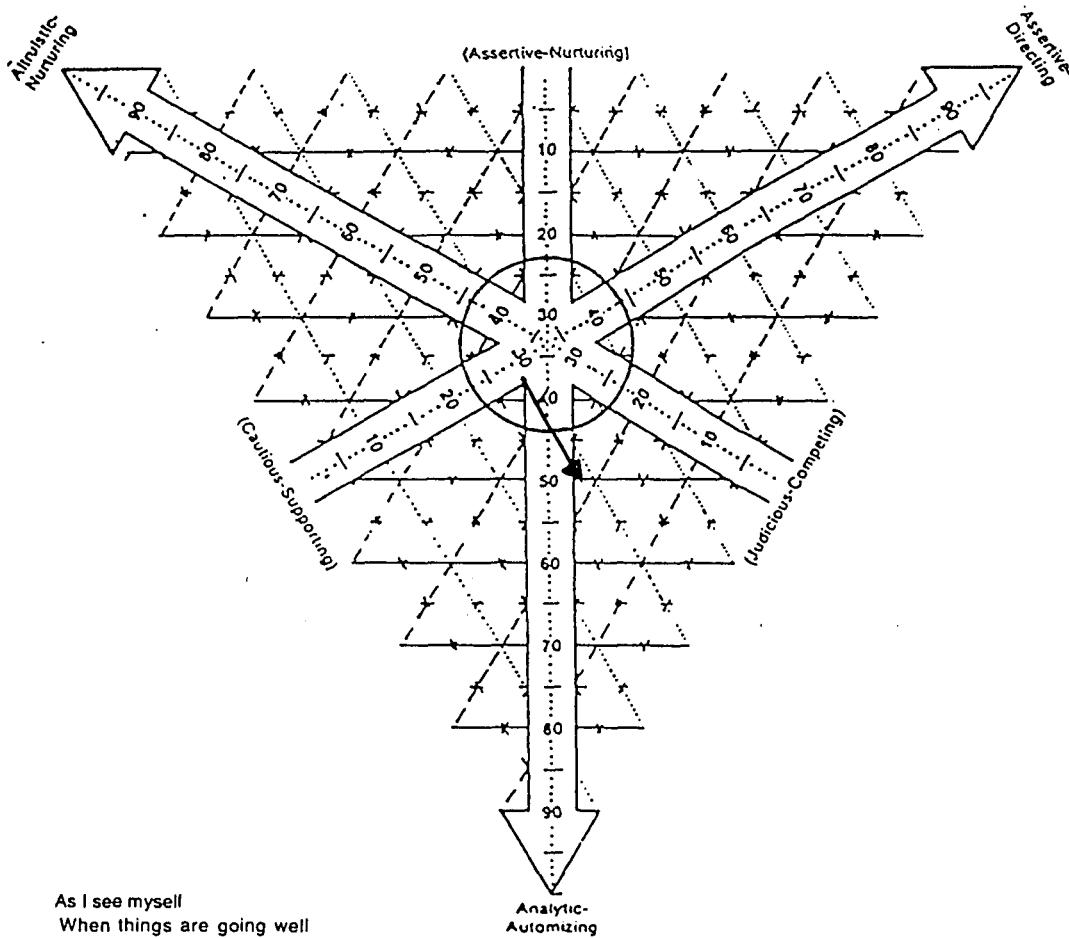
Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3	Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
40	27	33	18	27	55

## INTERPRETATION OF DIFFERENCES

Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3	Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
- 4	+13	-9	+ 36	- 5	-31
Nurturance of others	Assertion of Self	Self- Direction	Concern for Harmony	Concern for Production	Concern for Orderliness

STRENGTH DEPLOYMENT INVENTORY®

PRINCIPAL: MALE B



As I see myself  
When things are going well

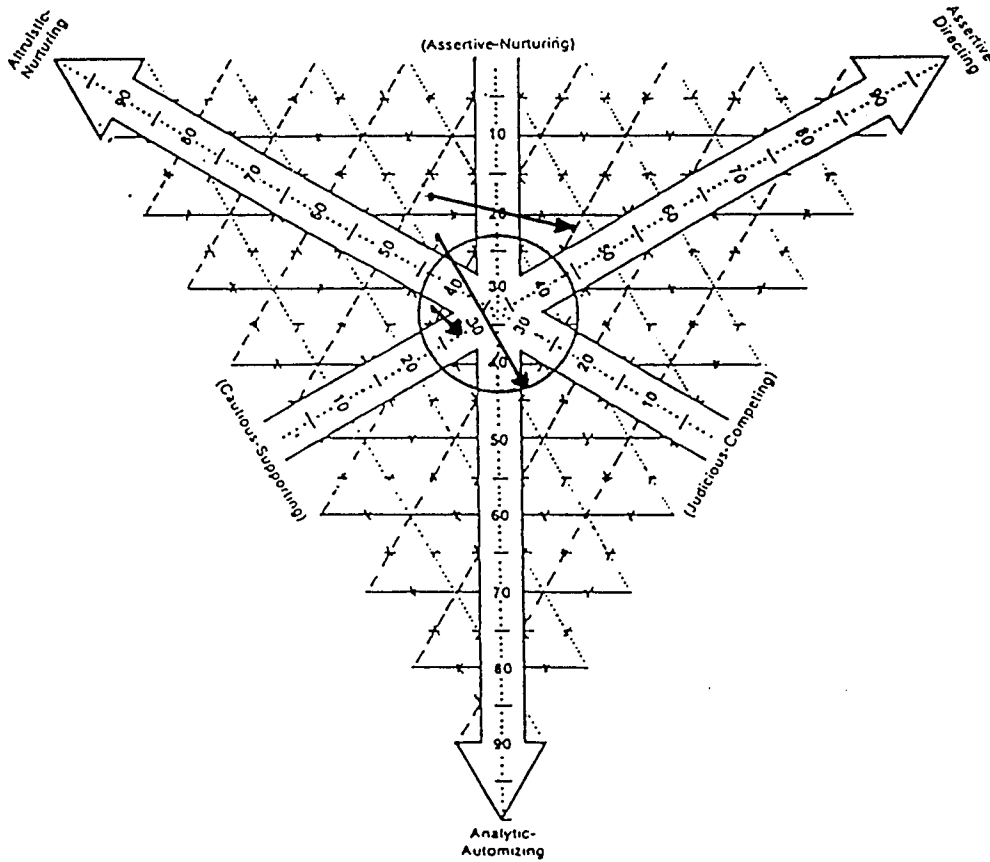
Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3
34	24	42

In the face of conflict

Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
24	27	49

STRENGTH DEPLOYMENT INVENTORY, FEEDBACK EDITION<sup>®</sup>

PRINCIPAL: MALE B



As I am seen by  
When things are well

Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3
41	27	32

In the face of conflict

Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
37	28	35

As I am seen by  
When things are well

Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3
45	31	24

In the face of conflict

Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
28	30	42

As I am seen by  
When things are well

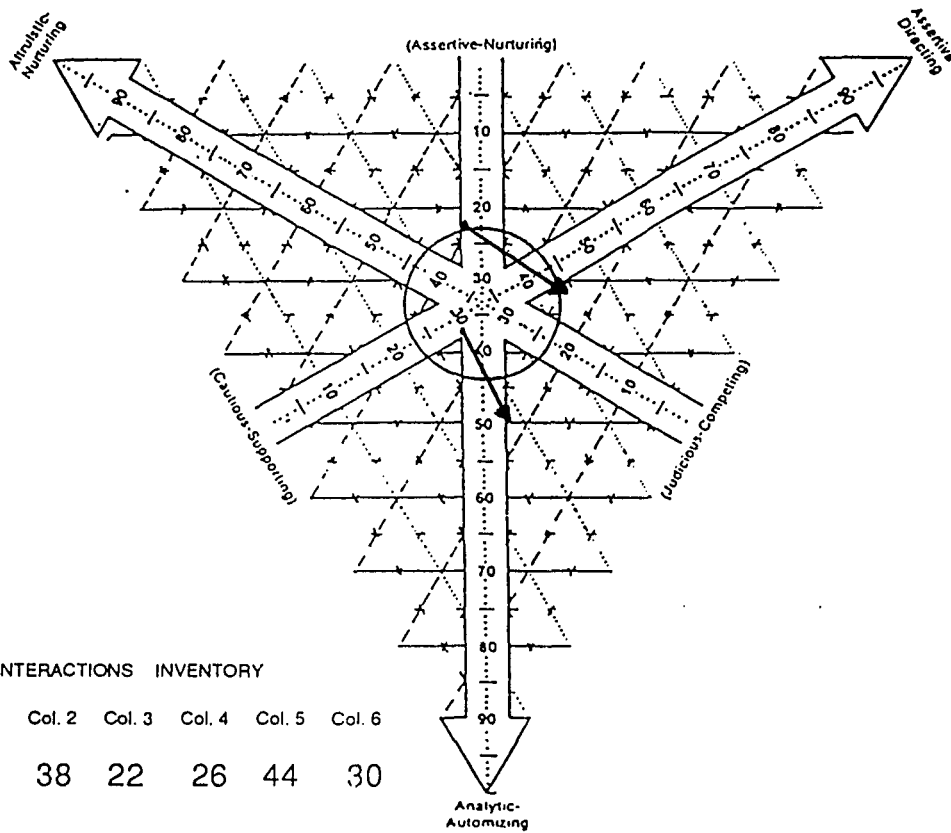
Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3
48	34	18

In the face of conflict

Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
26	53	21

# JOB INTERACTIONS INVENTORY™

PRINCIPAL: MALE B



JOB INTERACTIONS INVENTORY

Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3	Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
40	38	22	26	44	30

STRENGTH DEPLOYMENT INVENTORY

Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3	Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
34	24	42	24	27	49

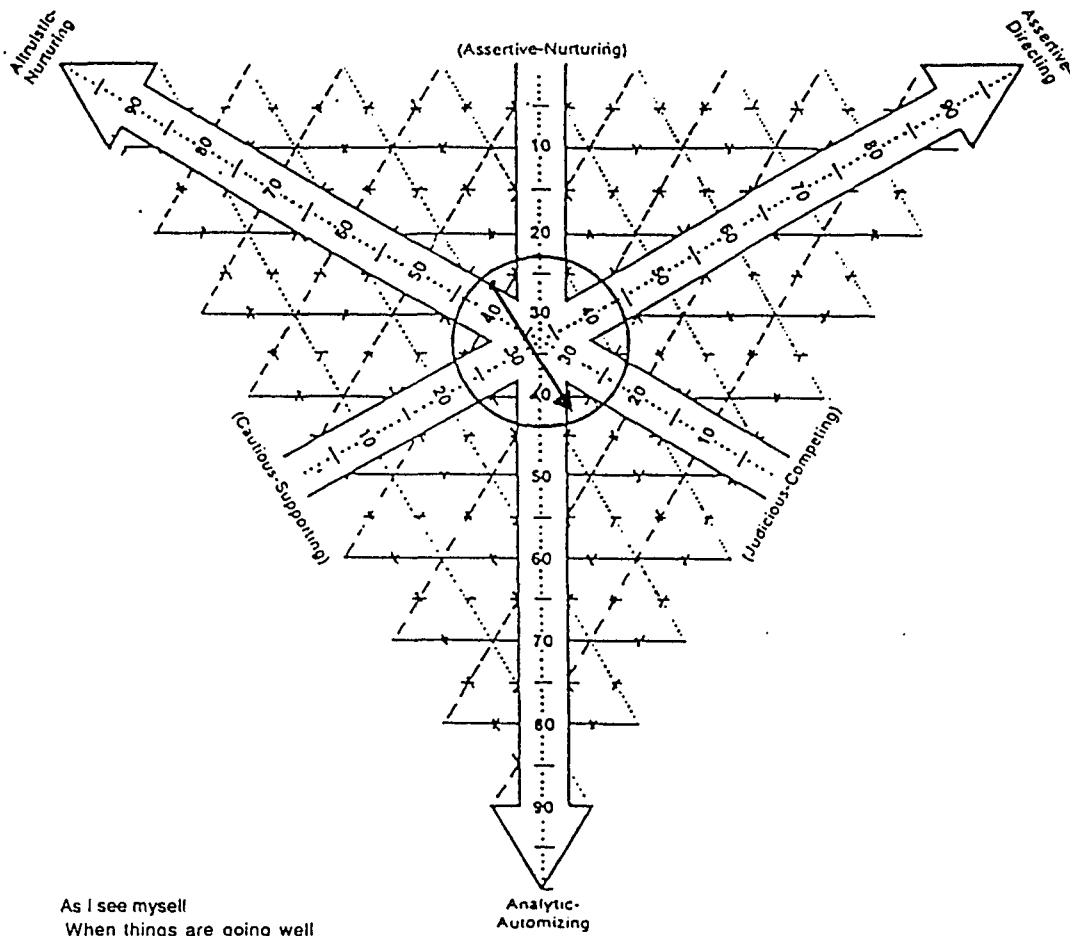
INTERPRETATION OF DIFFERENCES

Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3	Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
+ 6	+14	-20	+2	+17	-19
Nurturance of others	Assertion of Self	Sell- Direction	Concern for Harmony	Concern for Production	Concern for Orderliness



STRENGTH DEPLOYMENT INVENTORY<sup>®</sup>

PRINCIPAL: MALE C



As I see myself  
When things are going well

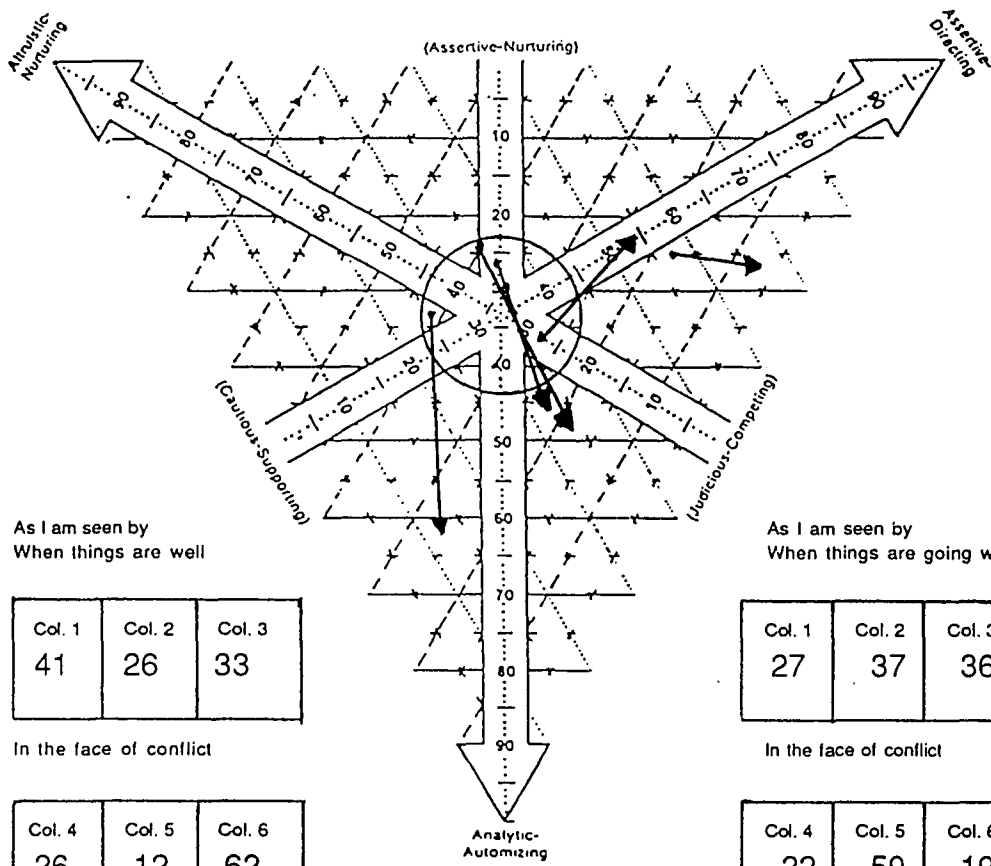
Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3
42	32	26

In the face of conflict

Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
28	32	40

STRENGTH DEPLOYMENT INVENTORY, FEEDBACK EDITION<sup>®</sup>

PRINCIPAL: MALE C



As I am seen by  
When things are well

Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3
41	26	33

In the face of conflict

Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
26	12	62

As I am seen by  
When things are well

Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3
18	56	26

In the face of conflict

Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
06	67	27

As I am seen by  
When things are well

Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3
37	36	27

In the face of conflict

Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
18	33	49

As I am seen by  
When things are going well

Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3
27	37	36

In the face of conflict

Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
22	59	19

As I am seen by  
When things are well

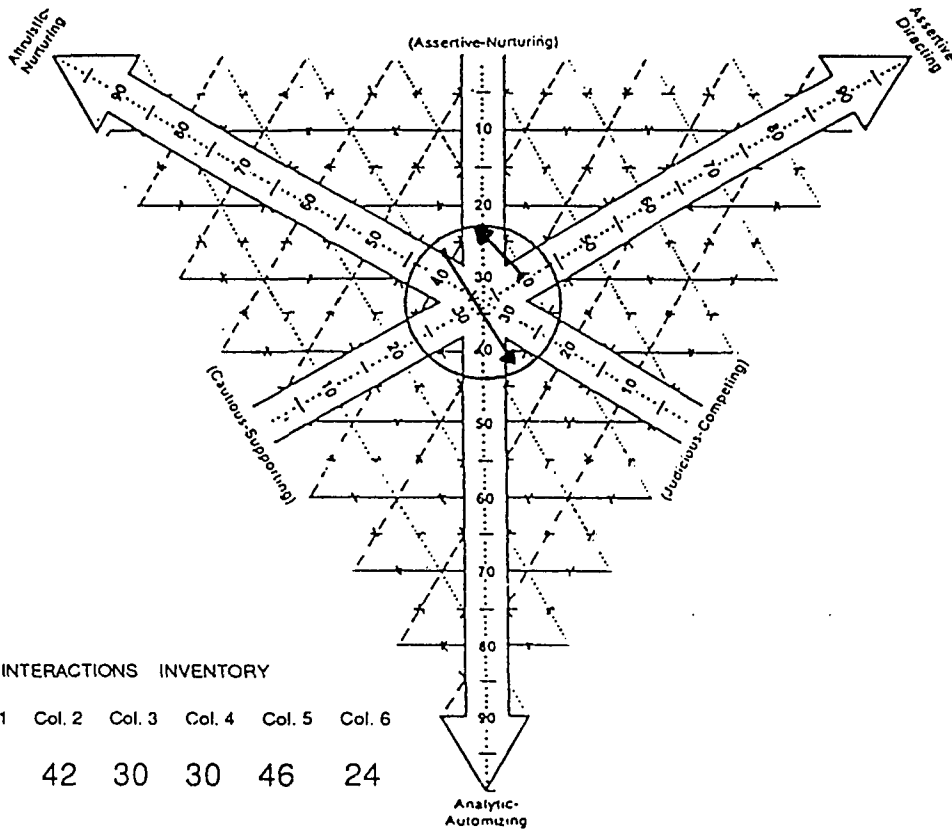
Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3
36	40	24

In the face of conflict

Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
21	33	46

# JOB INTERACTIONS INVENTORY™

PRINCIPAL: MALE C



**JOB INTERACTIONS INVENTORY**

Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3	Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
28	42	30	30	46	24

**STRENGTH DEPLOYMENT INVENTORY**

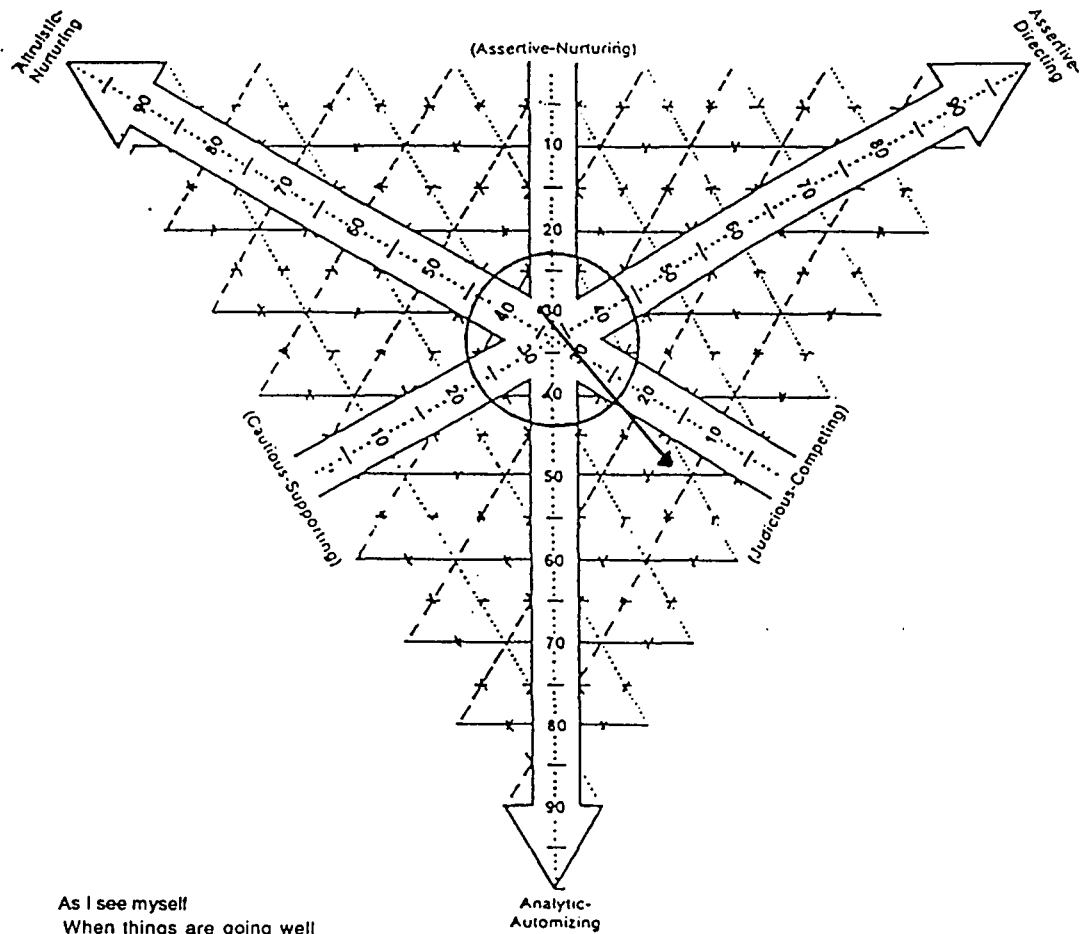
Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3	Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
42	32	26	28	32	40

**INTERPRETATION OF DIFFERENCES**

Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3	Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
-14	+10	+ 4	+ 2	+14	-16
Nurturance of others	Assertion of Self	Self- Direction	Concern for Harmony	Concern for Production	Concern for Orderliness

# STRENGTH DEPLOYMENT INVENTORY®

PRINCIPAL: MALE D



As I see myself  
When things are going well

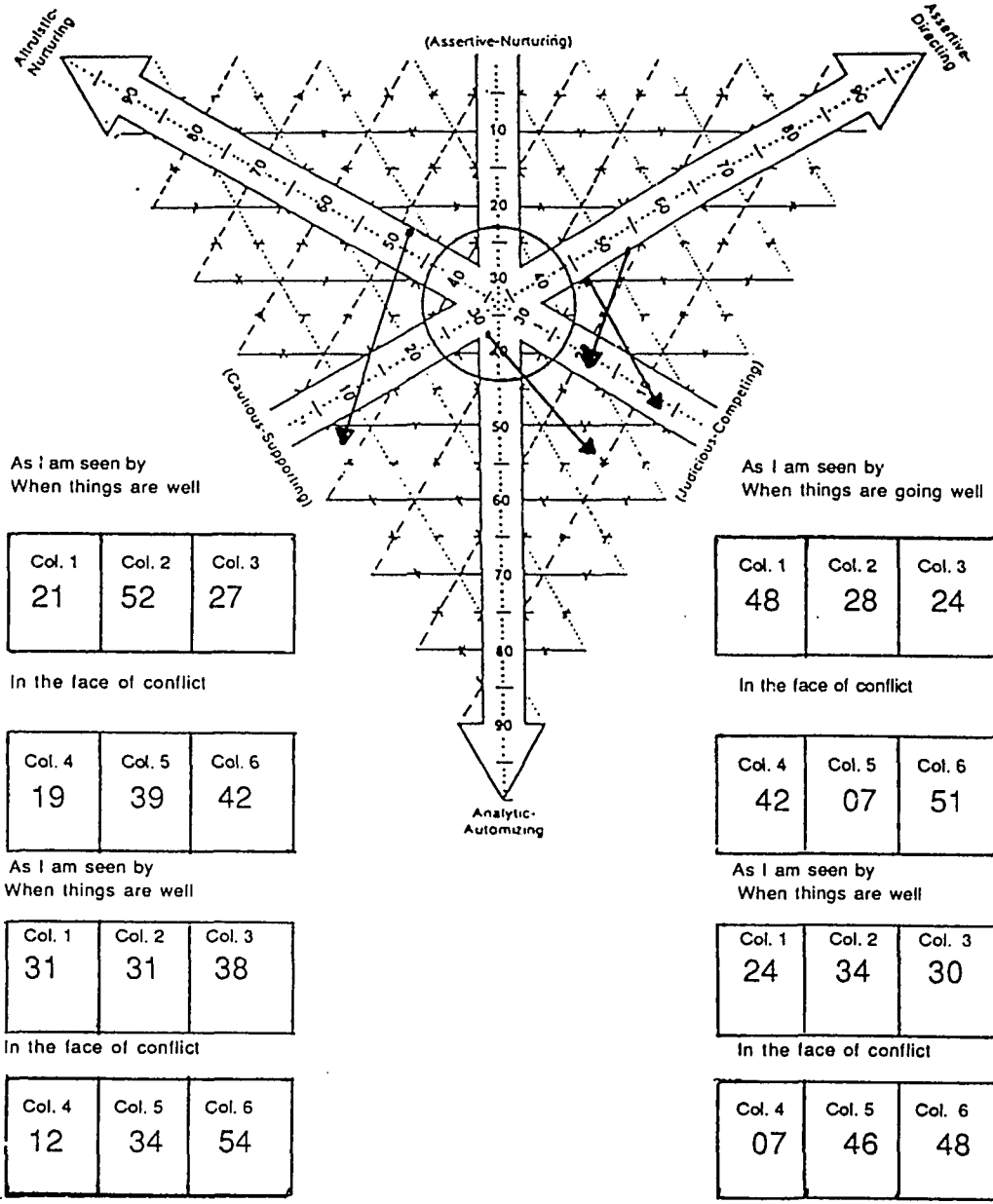
Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3
31	39	30

In the face of conflict

Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
14	37	49

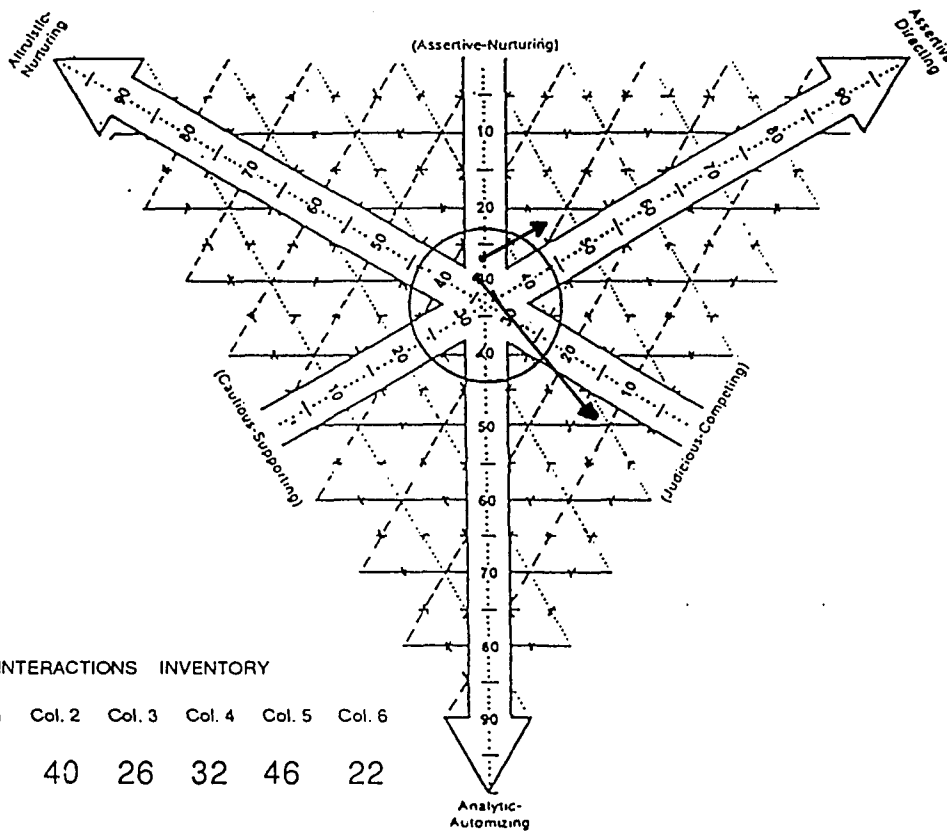
STRENGTH DEPLOYMENT INVENTORY, FEEDBACK EDITION<sup>®</sup>

PRINCIPAL: MALE D



JOB INTERACTIONS INVENTORY™

PRINCIPAL: MALE D



JOB INTERACTIONS INVENTORY

Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3	Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
34	40	26	32	46	22

STRENGTH DEPLOYMENT INVENTORY

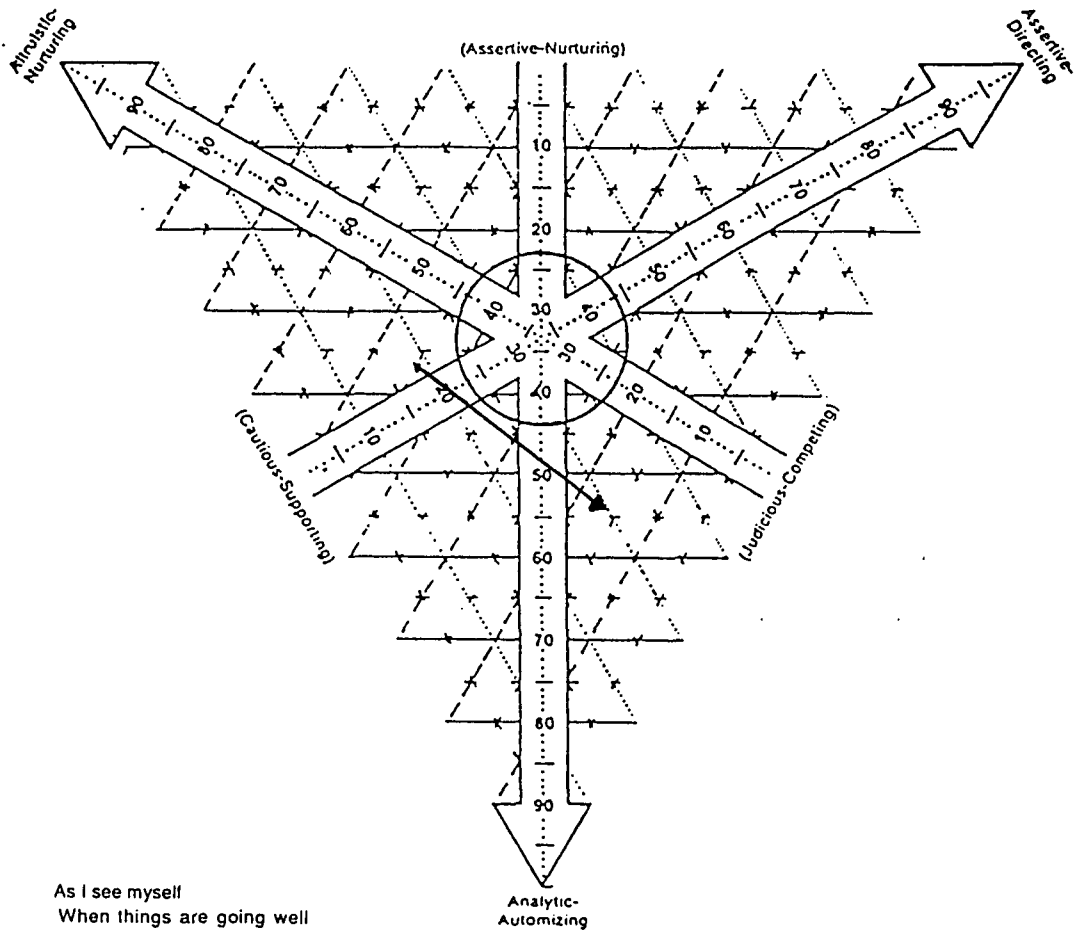
Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3	Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
31	39	30	14	37	49

INTERPRETATION OF DIFFERENCES

Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3	Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
+ 3	+1	- 4	+18	+9	-27
Nurture of others	Assertion of Self	Self- Direction	Concern for Harmony	Concern for Production	Concern for Orderliness

# STRENGTH DEPLOYMENT INVENTORY®

PRINCIPAL: MALE E



As I see myself  
When things are going well

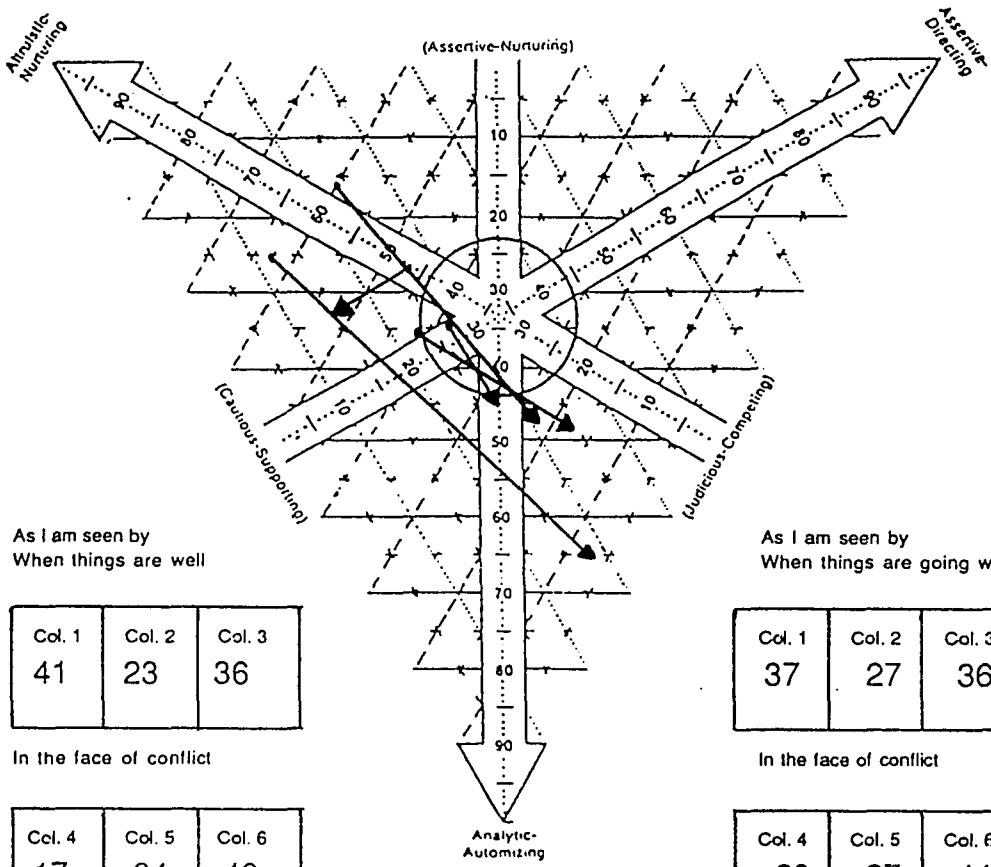
Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3
45	19	36

In the face of conflict

Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
17	29	54

STRENGTH DEPLOYMENT INVENTORY, FEEDBACK EDITION<sup>®</sup>

PRINCIPAL: MALE E



As I am seen by  
When things are well

Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3
41	23	36

In the face of conflict

Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
17	34	49

As I am seen by  
When things are well

Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3
46	26	27

In the face of conflict

Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
51	17	32

As I am seen by  
When things are going well

Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3
37	27	36

In the face of conflict

Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
29	27	44

As I am seen by  
When things are well

As I am seen by  
When things are well

Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3
61	14	25

in the face of conflict

Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
09	28	63

Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3
60	24	16

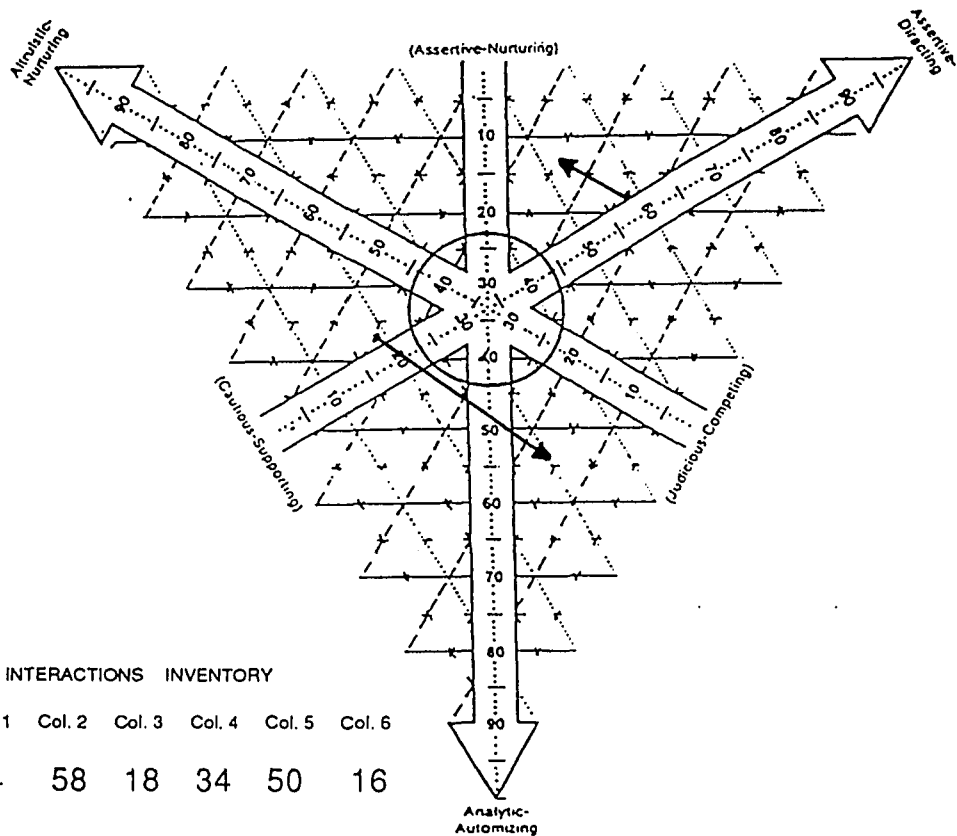
In the face of conflict

Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
23	31	46



# JOB INTERACTIONS INVENTORY™

PRINCIPAL: MALE E



JOB INTERACTIONS INVENTORY

Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3	Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
24	58	18	34	50	16

STRENGTH DEPLOYMENT INVENTORY

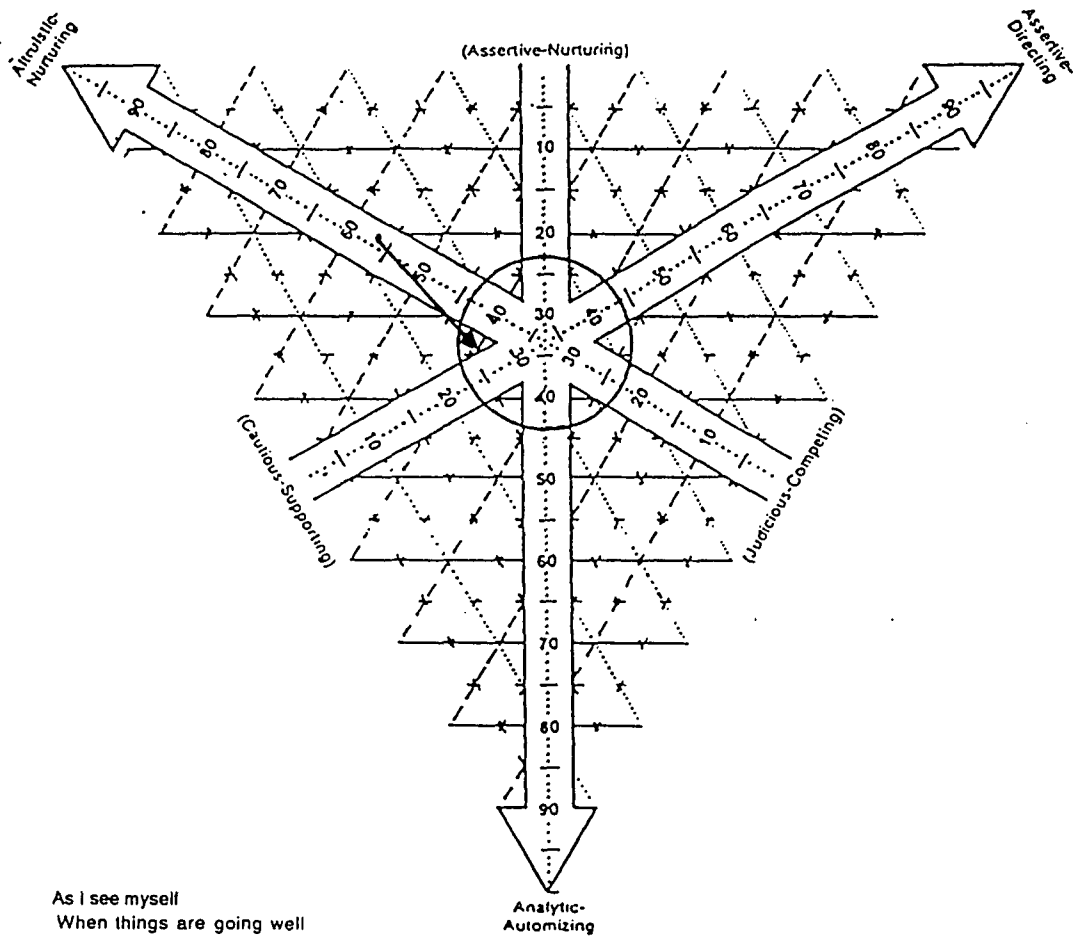
Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3	Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
45	19	36	17	29	54

INTERPRETATION OF DIFFERENCES

Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3	Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
-21	+39	-18	+17	+21	-38
Nurturance of others	Assertion of Self	Self-Direction	Concern for Harmony	Concern for Production	Concern for Orderliness

STRENGTH DEPLOYMENT INVENTORY®

PRINCIPAL: MALE F



As I see myself  
When things are going well

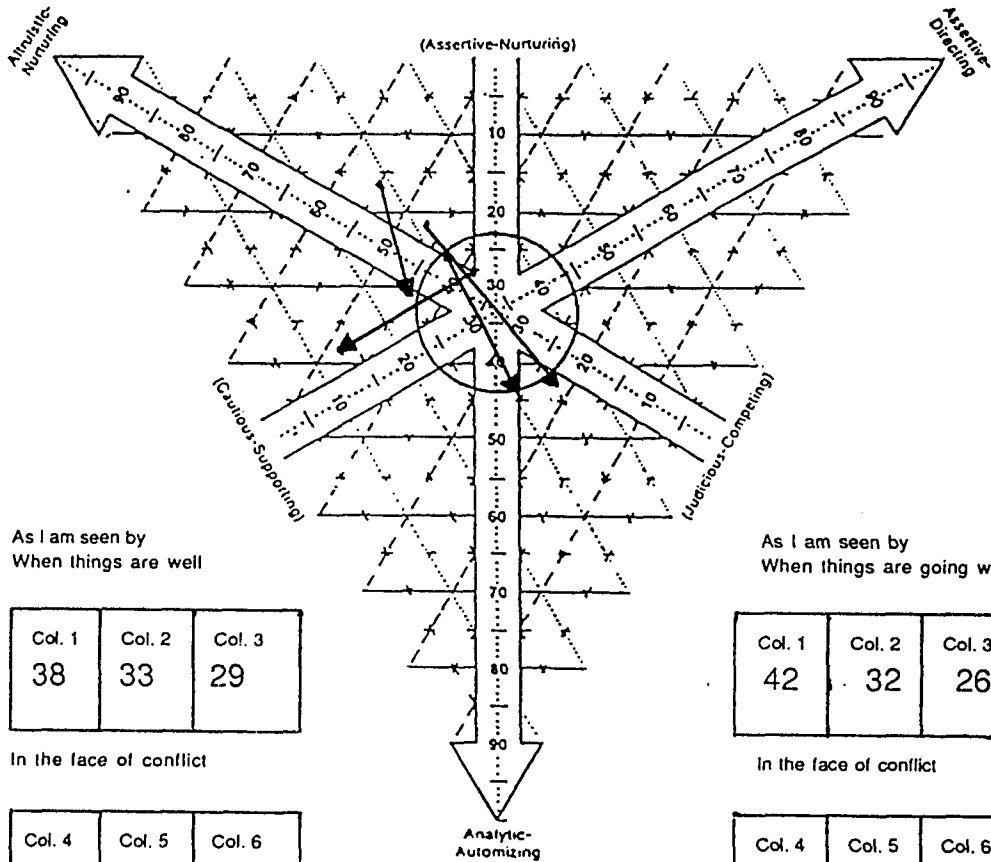
Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3
56	23	21

In the face of conflict

Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
41	26	33

STRENGTH DEPLOYMENT INVENTORY, FEEDBACK EDITION<sup>®</sup>

PRINCIPAL: MALE F



As I am seen by  
When things are well

Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3
38	33	29

In the face of conflict

Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
49	13	38

As I am seen by  
When things are well

Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3
47	34	19

In the face of conflict

Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
23	36	41

As I am seen by  
When things are going well

Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3
42	32	26

In the face of conflict

Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
27	29	42

As I am seen by  
When things are well

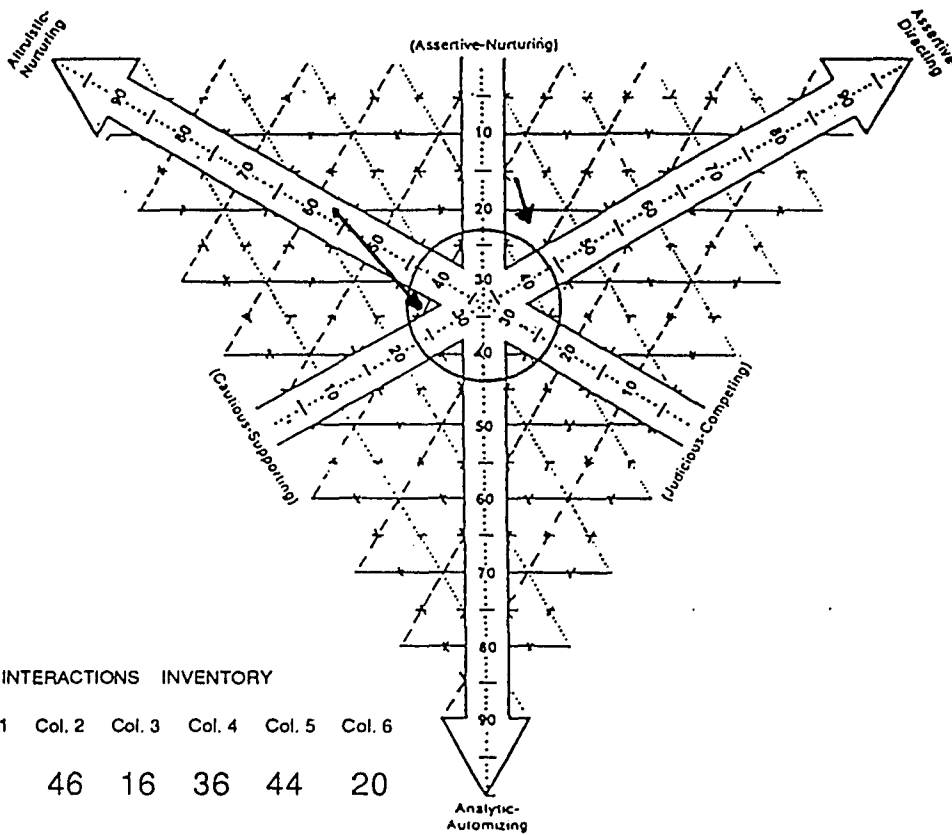
Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3
55	29	16

In the face of conflict

Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
45	25	30

# JOB INTERACTIONS INVENTORY™

PRINCIPAL: MALE F



**JOB INTERACTIONS INVENTORY**

Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3	Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
38	46	16	36	44	20

**STRENGTH DEPLOYMENT INVENTORY**

Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3	Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
56	23	21	41	26	33

**INTERPRETATION OF DIFFERENCES**

Col. 1	Col. 2	Col. 3	Col. 4	Col. 5	Col. 6
-18	+23	- 5	- 5	+18	-13
Nurturance of others	Assertion of Self	Self- Direction	Concern for Harmony	Concern for Production	Concern for Orderliness

### Findings

When all is going well, female Principal A perceives herself to score very high on the Altruistic-Nurturing scale. When all is not going well, she perceives herself to fall in the average range on the Cautious-Supporting scale. Under favorable conditions, she is open and responsive to the needs of others, looking for ways to be helpful and trying to make life easier for others. Under less favorable conditions, she may respond to the needs of others in a controlled and orderly manner while maintaining self-reliance and self-sufficiency.

Her subordinates apparently agree with her personal assessment, mainly seeing her--when all is going well--as a Flexible-Cohering (or Hub) blend which has as its most distinguishing characteristic a basic concern for the welfare of the group, membership in the group, and flexibility of behavior to the end of achieving unity and coherence in group goals and undertakings. Three of five subordinates believe she stays within the Hub even when things are not going well. One of the five subordinates report Female Principal A to be Flexible-Cohering when things are going well and, otherwise, Cautious-Supporting, a

blend with which she identifies herself. The last of the five identified her also as Flexible-Cohering when things are going well but otherwise as high on the Analytic-Automizing scale which takes as its most distinguishing quality the seeking of gratification through concern for self-reliance, self-dependence and the assurance that things have been properly sorted out, put together and thought through so that meaningful, logical order is achieved and maintained. Female Principal A reported her style of relating with great accuracy, judged by subordinate responses.

Her perceptions of her job expectations, as measured by the Job Interactions Inventory<sup>™</sup> and the computation of differences from the Strength Deployment Inventory<sup>®</sup> reveal her belief that the job actually requires far less nurturance of others and far more assertion of self as well as more self-direction than are natural to her. She likewise perceives the job to require a quicker response to concern for harmony than is natural to her, but her scores indicate that she believes her response to concern for production is within the compatible range and that her response to concern for orderliness is somewhat slower than it needs to be. She believes herself, in short, to be too nurturant and not

assertive or self-directed enough with a too-quick response to concerns of harmony and a not-quick-enough response to concerns or orderliness. Only in her concern for production, a trait viewed as basically masculine, does she perceive herself to be "right" for her job. Her area of greatest incompatibility is nurturance of others, a feminine trait.

Female Principal B perceives herself to be, under favorable conditions, high on the Assertive-Directing scale. Under these conditions, she would naturally reflect mainly concern for task accomplishment and the organization of people, money, time and any other resources toward that end. Under less favorable conditions, she perceives herself to fall low on the Judicious-Competing scale, a blend which has as its most distinguishing quality the seeking of gratification through the employment of strategies in dealing with others, the smart player who wins through intelligence and even manipulation rather than through force.

Three of her five subordinates report her to be, under favorable conditions, Flexible-Cohering, showing concern for the welfare of the group, the members of the group and membership in the group. Other subordinates report her to be, under favorable

circumstances, either Assertive-Nurturing (one who actively and assertively promotes the welfare of others in a leadership role) or Cautious-Supporting, responding to others' needs in controlled and orderly manner while maintaining self-reliance and self-sufficiency. Under less favorable circumstances, three of the five see Female Principal B as above average on the Analytic Automizing scale, or self-reliant, self-dependent, assured and logical, while the remaining two see her as Cautious-Supporting, responding to the needs of others in an orderly manner while maintaining self-reliance and self-sufficiency. Her subordinates see her in a kinder light than that in which she views herself.

Her interpretation of differences, from the Job Interactions Inventory<sup>™</sup> and the Strength Deployment Inventory<sup>®</sup> may reveal why. Female Principal B perceives herself to be somewhat less nurturant of others than the job requires and definitely more assertive than the job requires, but her score on the self-direction sector is clearly compatible. She perceives herself to have mastered the appropriate response pace in concern for harmony and in concern for orderliness as well but to be somewhat too quick in her response to concern for production.



She rates herself as compatible on two of the three fundamentally feminine behavior clusters and as compatible on one of the three fundamentally masculine behavior clusters. In only one area--assertion of self (a masculine cluster)--does she rate herself as clearly incompatible.

Female Principal C perceives herself to be, when all is going well, within the average range on the Analytic-Automizing scale, basically self-reliant, assured, and logical. But when things are not going well, she falls to the low Judicious-Competing scale, functioning primarily as a strategist.

Her employees see her, when all is well, either as Altruistic-Nurturing, concerned with the protection, growth and general welfare of others with little regard for material reward in return, or as Flexible-Cohering, concerned for the welfare of the group, the members of the group and membership in the group. When all is not going well, two of the four employees still see Female Principal C as Flexible-Cohering, but one reports she falls on the Assertive-Nurturing scale, which actively and assertively promotes the welfare of others in a leadership role, and one reports that she falls on the Judicious-Competing scale, becoming a strategist in order to win.

The interpretation of differences on the Job Interactions Inventory<sup>™</sup> and the Strength Deployment Inventory<sup>®</sup> reveals little perceived compatibility between personal traits and job demands. Female Principal C sees herself as clearly less nurturant than the job demands, somewhat more assertive than the job demands, and clearly more self-directed than the job demands. Additionally, she perceives herself to be clearly too slow to respond to concern for harmony and to concern for production as well but too quick to respond to concern for orderliness. Only in self assertion (essentially a masculine trait) is she close to compatibility on her self-reports. Her area of greatest incompatibility is concern for orderliness, a feminine trait.

Female Principal D perceives herself to be, under favorable circumstances, a Judicious-Competing blend, a strategist. Under less than favorable circumstances, however, she perceives herself to fall closer to the Analytic-Automizing scale, or to be self-reliant, self-dependent and assured when logical order and action is achieved and maintained.

Her employees see her, under favorable circumstances, as Flexible-Cohering, concerned for the welfare of the group, the

members of the group and membership in the group. Even under less favorable circumstances, two report Female Principal D to be Flexible-Cohering; one places her on the Judicious-Competing (or strategist) scale; the remaining two see her as Analytic-Automizing (or self-reliant, self-dependent, and logical). Her comparison scores indicate that she believes her nurturance of others somewhat exceeds job demands, her assertion of self falls clearly short of job demands, and her self direction clearly exceeds job demands. In the area of concern for harmony, a feminine trait, her scores are compatible. However, in concern for production, her scores indicate that she believes she typically responds somewhat too slowly to these concerns while in the area of concern for orderliness, her scores indicate a clearly too-slow response. Female Principal D's sole area of compatibility on comparison of the two sets of scores yielded by the Job Interactions Inventory<sup>™</sup> and the Strength Deployment Inventory<sup>®</sup> is concern for harmony, typically a feminine trait. Her area of greatest incompatibility is assertion of self, a masculine trait.

Female Principal E, under favorable circumstances, falls on the Assertive-Nurturing scale. She is happiest when actively and

assertively promoting the welfare of others in a leadership role. Under less favorable circumstances, she falls in the above average area of the Analytic-Automizing scale, a motivational pattern which finds expression in self-reliance, self-dependence and the proper and logical sorting out of all things.

Under favorable circumstances, three of her five employees perceive her to be Flexible-Cohering, concerned with achieving unity and coherence, while one perceives her to be Assertive-Directing, concerned with achievement and organization, and another perceives her to be Judicious-Competing, concerned with winning through strategy. Under less than favorable circumstances, four of her employees report her to be Judicious-Competing, a strategist, while one reports her to be Analytic-Automizing, a logician and organizer. Her comparison scores indicate that she perceives herself to be clearly more nurturant than the job demands, somewhat less assertive of self than the job demands and somewhat less self-directed than the job demands. Her response to concern for harmony, in her opinion, is clearly too slow, her response to concern for production somewhat too slow, and her concern for orderliness clearly too quick. This principal's most nearly compatible scores are in the

areas of assertion of self (a masculine trait) and self-direction (also a masculine trait). Her area of greatest incompatibility is concern for orderliness, a feminine trait.

Female Principal F perceives herself to be, under favorable circumstances, a Hub, or Flexible-Cohering, concerned primarily for the welfare of the group, membership in the group and achieving unity and coherence in group goals and undertakings. Under less favorable circumstances, she perceives herself to be somewhat Analytic-Automizing, depending on logic and organization with her score falling barely outside the Hub area.

Her employees report widely variant interpretations of this principal. When all is going well, one perceives her to be Assertive-Nurturing, concerned for promoting the welfare of others in a leadership role, one perceives her to be Altruistic-Nurturing, concerned for the protection, growth and general welfare of others with little regard for material reward in return, one perceives her to be Cautious-Supporting, generally responding to the needs of others in a controlled and orderly manner while maintaining self-reliance and self-sufficiency, one perceives her to be Analytic-Automizing, concerned with achieving and maintaining meaningful and logical order and action, and one

perceives her to be a Hub, or Flexible-Cohering, concerned for the welfare of the group to the end of achieving unity and coherence in group goals and undertakings. Under less than favorable circumstances, their perceptions are less variant: four of the five report her to be at, or very near to, the Analytic-Automizing range, concerned with self-reliance, self-dependence and assurance through meaningful and logical order while one reports her to be in the Hub, or Flexible-Cohering, concerned with unity and coherence.

Her comparison scores indicate that she believes herself to fall within the compatible range on the nurturance scale but to be clearly not assertive enough and only somewhat too self directed. In the areas of concern for harmony and for concern for production as well, she perceives herself to be somewhat too slow to respond, but in the area of concern for orderliness, she perceives herself to be clearly too quick to respond. This principal falls within the compatible range only in nurturance of others (a feminine trait) but is nearly compatible in concern for harmony (a feminine trait) and clearly incompatible only in the areas of assertion of self (a masculine trait) and concern for orderliness (a feminine trait).

Male Principal A reports himself to be, under favorable circumstances, a Hub, or Flexible-Cohering, concerned for the welfare of the group, membership in the group, and flexibility to the end of achieving unity and coherence. Under less than favorable circumstances, he believes himself to be fairly high on the Analytic-Automizing scale, self reliant and concerned with meaningful and logical order and action.

His employees report him differently. Under favorable conditions, two of the five believe that he is Flexible-Cohering, concerned for the welfare of the group and for unity and coherence within the group; two more believe him to fall on the Assertive-Directing scale, concerned with task accomplishment and with organization, and one believes that he is somewhat Judicious-Competing, one who seeks to win through strategy. Under less favorable circumstances, one reports him to be Flexible-Cohering, one reports him to be Analytic-Automizing, self-reliant and depending on meaningful and logical order and action, two report him to be Judicious-Competing, using strategy to win, and one reports him to lean toward Assertive-Directing, or a task directed organizer who expects to be rewarded in due course for his success.

His comparison scores show him to fall within the compatible range on the nurturance of others scale, clearly below job demands on assertion of self, and somewhat above job demands on self-direction. On his concern for harmony scale, his scores reveals that in his own opinion his response to this concern is very clearly too slow, but his response pace falls within the compatible range on concern for production while it is quite clearly too quick in his concern for orderliness. His areas of compatibility are in nurturance of others, a feminine trait, and concern for production, a masculine trait while his areas of greatest variance from compatibility are concern for harmony, a feminine pattern, and concern for orderliness, a feminine pattern.

Male Principal B reports himself to be, when all is going well, a Hub, or Flexible-Cohering whose concerns are for the welfare of the group and for the unity and coherence of the group. Under less favorable circumstances, he sees himself as Analytic-Automizing, relying on his own efforts to achieve and maintain meaningful and logical order and action.

Only three of these employees returned materials. Under favorable circumstances, one of the three sees Male Principal B as Flexible-Cohering. Another reports him to be Altruistic-



Nurturing, concerned for the protection, growth and general welfare of others with little regard for material reward in return, and yet another reports him to be on the boundary between Altruistic Nurturing and Assertive-Nurturing which actively and assertively promotes the welfare of others in a leadership role. Under less favorable circumstances, two of the three report him to be Flexible-Cohering while one places him on the Assertive-Directing scale, concerned for the accomplishment of tasks and for the organization of people, money, time, opportunity and any other resources with a clear sense of having earned the right to be rewarded for success.

His comparison scores reveal that in his opinion, he believes himself to exhibit somewhat too little nurturance of others, clearly too little assertion of self, and clearly too much self-direction. His response pace is compatible in the area of concern for harmony, but clearly too slow in the area of concern for production and clearly too fast in concern for orderliness. His sole area of compatibility is concern for harmony, a feminine trait, but he is nearly compatible in the area of nurturance of others, also a feminine trait. His area of greatest incompatibility is concern for orderliness, a feminine trait.

Male Principal C perceives himself to be, under favorable circumstances, a Flexible-Cohering, concerned for the welfare of the group and for unity and coherence within the group. Under less than favorable circumstances, his scores remain within the Flexible-Cohering range; at least in his own perception, his basic pattern of motivation does not change.

His employees agree to a point. Four of the five report him, under favorable circumstances, to be, indeed, Flexible-Cohering. Another reports him to be, under favorable circumstances, somewhat Judicious-Competing, or concerned with winning through strategy. Under less than favorable circumstances, one reports him to be Analytic-Automizing, self-reliant, logical, and assured. Two more report him to be somewhat Judicious-Competing, using his head to win. Another reports him to be Assertive-Directing, with a basic concern for the accomplishment of tasks by the organization of people, money, time, opportunity and resources with a clear sense of having earned the right to be rewarded for his own success. Yet another reports him to be someplace between Judicious-Competing and Assertive-Directing.

His comparison scores indicate that he sees himself as having clearly more nurturance of others than the job demands,

and clearly less assertion of self than the job demands, but his scores on self-direction reveal him to be within the compatible range as far as job demands are concerned. His response pace is compatible with job demands on the concern for harmony scale, but he perceives himself as having clearly too slow a response to concern for production and clearly too fast a response to concern for orderliness. His areas of compatibility are self-direction, a masculine trait, and concern for harmony, a feminine trait and his area of greatest incompatibility is concern for orderliness, a feminine trait.

Male Principal D reports himself, under favorable conditions, to be Flexible-Cohering, concerned with the welfare of the group and with unity and coherence within the group. Under less than favorable conditions, he believes himself to function in a Judicious-Competing manner, concerned primarily about winning through the employment of strategies.

Only one of this employees agrees that he functions, under favorable circumstances as a Flexible-Cohering. Two others place him on the Assertive-Directing scale, concerned for the accomplishment of tasks and for organization and with a clear sense of having earned the right to be rewarded for his own

successes. The fourth, and last, places him on the Altruistic-Nurturing scale, concerned for the protection, growth, and general welfare of others with little regard for material reward in return. Under less than favorable circumstances, two place him clearly on the Judicious-Competing scale, concerned with winning through strategies, and one placed him near it. Another places him on the Cautious-Supporting scale, responding to the needs of others in a controlled and orderly manner while maintaining self-reliance and self-sufficiency.

His comparison scores reveal that in his own opinion, his behaviors and the job demands are compatible in the areas of nurturance of others, assertion of self, and self-direction. He perceives himself to have a clearly too slow response pace to concern for harmony, a somewhat too slow response pace to concern for production, and a clearly too fast response pace to concern for orderliness. His areas of compatibility are nurturance of others, a feminine trait, assertion of self, a masculine trait, and self-direction, a masculine trait. His greatest area of incompatibility is concern for orderliness, a feminine trait.

Male Principal E perceives himself to be, under favorable circumstances, Cautious-Supporting, responding to the needs of

others in a controlled and orderly manner while maintaining self-reliance and self-sufficiency. Under less favorable circumstances, he would most likely be Judicious-Competing, intent on winning through strategy.

Three of his five employees see him, under favorable circumstances, as falling on the Altruistic-Nurturing scale, concerned for the protection, growth, and general welfare of others with little regard for material reward in return. One reports him to be more nearly Cautious-Supporting, responding to the needs of others in a controlled and orderly manner while maintaining self-reliance and self-sufficiency, while the last reports him to be Flexible-Cohering, concerned for the welfare of the group and for unity and coherence within the group. Under less than favorable circumstances, one reports him to be Cautious-Supporting while four of the five report him to be at or near the Analytic-Automizing scale, concerned for self-reliance, self-dependence and the assurance that things have been properly sorted out, put together and thought through so that meaningful and logical order and action can be achieved and maintained.

His comparison scores reveal him to be, in his own opinion, clearly too little nurturant of others, clearly too assertive of

self, and clearly too little self-directed. His response pace, in his opinion, is clearly too slow in the area of concern for harmony, clearly too slow in the area of concern for production, and clearly too fast in the area of concern for orderliness. None of his comparison scores fall within the compatible range. Further, not one of this principal's scores falls within the nearly compatible range. He sees himself as deficient in every single reported regard with the greatest deficiencies in the areas of assertion of self, a masculine trait, and concern for orderliness, a feminine trait.

Male Principal F reports himself to be, when all is well, high on the Altruistic-Nurturing scale, concerned for the protection, growth, and general welfare of others with little regard for material reward in return. Under less favorable circumstances, he perceives himself to fall within the Hub, or Flexible-Cohering pattern, concerned with the welfare of the group and with the unity and coherence of the group.

Under favorable circumstances, two of the four reporting employees agree with Male Principal F's self assessment and place him near the Altruistic-Nurturing scale. The other two place him within the Hub, or Flexible-Cohering scale. Under less

than favorable circumstances, two place him on the Cautious-Supporting scale, responding to the needs of others in a controlled and orderly manner while maintaining self-reliance and self-sufficiency, while one places him with the Hub, or Flexible-Cohering, and one places him close to the Judicious-Competing scale, using strategies in dealing with others in order to win.

His comparison scores reveal him to believe that he clearly exceeds the job demands in nurturance of others but falls clearly short of the job demands in assertion of self. He believes his behavior patterns to be compatible with job demands in self-direction and in concern for harmony. However, he reports his response pace as being clearly too slow in the area of concern for production and clearly too fast in the area of concern for orderliness. His areas of compatibility are self direction, a masculine trait, and concern for harmony, a feminine trait, and his area of greatest incompatibility is assertion of self, a masculine trait.

### Conclusions

The number of principals participating in this study is, of necessity, small. Therefore, only limited efforts have been made

to find statistical significance in commonalities or contrasts, but overall differences are noted. Chi-squares were computed for the frequencies of masculine and feminine attributes reported by condition by principals. Those results may be found graphically displayed in appendix C as well as being discussed in Chapter 5 where general conclusions are drawn.

The first apparent difference is that female principals are more thorough in returning materials. Five females returned all Feedback<sup>®</sup> instruments and the sixth returned all but one. Of the males, only three returned all instruments, with two more returning four only and one returning three only. No reason could be ascertained for this difference and none is suggested. (The males were unaware that they were participating in a gender comparison; they were told only that they were participating in a study of leadership styles among high school principals.)

Comparison of the Strength Deployment Inventory<sup>®</sup> completed by each principal and the Strength Deployment Inventory, Feedback Edition<sup>®</sup> completed by each subordinate yields what seems to be a difference, although not a large one, in the extent to which employees selected verify their principal's styles. Among the



female principals, there are more subordinates who agree with the principal's self assessment of smoothly running times than of the less favorable circumstances. Of the 29 subordinates reporting, ten (slightly more than a third) agree with the female principal's assessment of her style under favorable circumstances and nine agree with the female principal's assessment of her style under less favorable circumstances. For the male principals, only 26 subordinates reported, but of those 26, ten agree with the males' reporting of smoothly running times and 12 (nearly half of those reporting) agree with their assessments of less favorable circumstances. At least in this sample, the subordinates of female principals are more likely to verify the female's self report of favorable times than of unfavorable times while the subordinates of male principals are more likely to verify the male's self report of unfavorable than of favorable times. There is a higher instance of verification in all areas for the male principals. Again, no reason could be ascertained for this difference nor is one suggested.

There are several obvious differences, however, in the ways that female principals perceive themselves and their job demands when compared to their male counterparts. At least in this

sample, the largest sample it was possible to obtain in the State of North Carolina, the female principals perceive themselves and their job demands as somewhat less compatible than do the male principals. The Porter instruments make possible comparison of self and job demands in six areas, three of which represent essentially female traits and three of which represent essentially male traits. In those six areas, one female principal reports herself and her job as compatible in three of the six areas (and nearly compatible in one more), three female principals report themselves and their jobs as compatible in one area only, and two female principals report themselves and their jobs as compatible in no areas (but nearly compatible in one area each). In comparison, one male principal reports himself and his job to be compatible in three of the six areas, three more male principals report themselves and their jobs compatible in two of the six areas, one more reports himself compatible in one area (and nearly compatible in one more), and one reported himself compatible in no areas. For whatever reason, the males in this sample believe themselves to be more in tune, in more areas, with their job demands. The females are more reticent about claiming compatibility or are less sure of themselves.

Not only do the males report themselves as compatible in more areas, but they also report themselves to be more at variance with those areas in which they report themselves to be the least compatible. The average differences score in the area of most incompatibility among the females is 23.5. Among the males, the average differences score in the area of most incompatibility is 27.

There is also a difference in the areas most likely to be reported as compatible by males and females. Among the females, the most frequently reported area of compatibility is concern for harmony, followed by concern for production and assertion of self. The areas of nurturance, self-direction, and concern for orderliness are all mentioned as compatible but in a three-way tie for least frequency. Among the males, the order of most to least compatible is different. The most frequently compatible area is the same for both genders. The males report most compatibility in the area of concern for harmony. Male principals then report, in order, self-direction, and nurturance of others as areas of compatibility. The next most frequent position is shared by the areas of assertion of self and concern for production. Concern for orderliness is not scored as an area of

compatibility by any of the reporting male principals. Thus, it would appear that all the principals in this sample agree that concern for harmony is the area in which they do and must concentrate much of their efforts. Areas of compatibility for the female principals, in order, are concern for harmony (a feminine trait), assertion of self (a masculine trait), concern for production (a masculine trait), assertion of self (a masculine trait), and a three-way tie among nurturance of others (a feminine trait), self-direction (a masculine trait), and concern for orderliness (a feminine trait). The females are thus more at home in one essentially feminine area and two essentially masculine areas. The males, on the other hand, report areas of compatibility, in order, as concern for harmony (a feminine trait), self-direction (a masculine trait), nurturance of others (a feminine trait), a two-way tie between assertion of self (a masculine trait) and concern for production (a masculine trait) with no compatibility at all in the area of concern for orderliness (a feminine trait). If the top three areas of compatibility are isolated, it becomes apparent that all of these principals regardless of gender feel themselves most compatible in the feminine area (concern for harmony) and that these females feel

themselves secondarily more compatible in the masculine areas (concern for production and assertion of self) and these males feel themselves secondarily more compatible in one feminine areas (nurturance of others) and one masculine area (self-direction). For females the top three positions are one feminine and two masculine, while for males, the top three positions are one masculine and two feminine areas. Apparently, each gender has learned to operate on the androgynous level.

Similarly, there are differences in the areas in which principals report themselves to be most incompatible. Among the females, two name as their areas of least compatibility nurturance of others, two name as their areas of least compatibility concern for orderliness, and two name as their areas of least compatibility assertion of self. Of the three areas named, only assertion of self is normally seen as a masculine trait. The females are fairly consistent as seeing themselves as deficient in feminine areas. Among the males, one names as his area of least compatibility concern for harmony, one names self-direction, two name concern for orderliness, and two name assertion of self. Concern for harmony and concern for orderliness are generally seen as feminine traits. The males are

equally divided in their perceptions of deficiencies in gender-specific areas. If the female principals feel themselves pressured to measure up in the male context, and to be measured by the male model, this could account for their being uncomfortable about their own femaleness. It is also puzzling that of the six areas included in the inventories, perhaps nurturance of others is most clearly associated with femininity but two women list this as their area of least compatibility and two men list it as an area of compatibility and another man's score is nearly within the compatible range. Nothing in this study, however, isolated any factors which could explain this difference definitively.

From these findings, it is obvious that female principals and male principals perceive their own strengths and weaknesses differently. Whether this results from the well-documented lack of mentors for female principals or from some inherent gender difference is not clear, but the former would appear to be more likely. It is also obvious that their subordinates verify their own perceptions of themselves differently, with an apparently greater agreement between male principals and their subordinates than between female principals and their subordinates. This, too, may

be an extension of the general lack of confidence and comfort which comes from the lack of mentorship or sponsorship generally experienced by women in educational administration. It may also accrue from the general lack of comfort in business and society at large when the chief executive officer is a woman and not a man, the cultural expectation still, even near the end of the twentieth century.

## CHAPTER 5

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### Introduction

Research in the area of leadership reveals that more is known today than has ever been known before about the ways in which effective leaders function. The study of leadership, however, will likely never be definitive and there remains a great area of potential growth in both the knowledge about the craft and the practice of the art of leadership. The history of educational leadership, specifically in the principalship, is a reflection of the painfully slow but at some times regular growth of civility and humanitarianism. The modern leader is more likely to be democratic and androgynous than was his--or her--predecessor. The modern leader is more likely to be as concerned with relationships as with tasks than was his--or her--predecessor. And the modern leader is more likely to enjoy enhanced personal empowerment reaped through the power s/he has sown than was his--or her--predecessor. While much has been achieved, however, there is yet much to be achieved if individual



capabilities, the human capital of education and industry alike, are to be utilized maximally, and if studies of the current practices of leadership are to accommodate personal growth among all potential and practicing leaders as have some of those of the past.

Gender and group leadership studies in particular have attempted with conflicting results to point to a blend of traits or behaviors that would enhance all leadership styles. In many cases, the results of such studies were skewed as much by the sexual stereotypes held as beliefs by the groups in which leadership was being exercised as by the behaviors of the leaders themselves. In no case was it as easy for women to lead as it was for men to do so, the social expectation (even in fairly sophisticated groups) being that men would lead and women would follow--unless there were no man available to accept the leadership role. Even then, the phenomenon of women exercising leadership skill was unexpected and thought an aberration.

The gentle irony inherent in such circumstances is that the men who lead today in what is considered to be more effective fashion than that in which their ancestors led do so from a blend of traits incorporating more feminine characteristics than their

fathers would have dared admit. A strong man loses none of his strength today by accepting a nurturing role; in fact, he may well enhance his power to lead by doing so. A strong woman, on the other hand, still loses some of her credibility as a woman in either professing the desire or exhibiting the ability to accept and executive leadership responsibilities. While it has become perfectly acceptable for a man to manifest some feminine characteristics, it is yet considered reprehensible for a woman to exhibit male strength or force of character. This is a great misfortune, for it robs both the race of Man of the potentially settling influence of a large number of potential leaders and those potential leaders who form the majority of the race of Man of their opportunity to lead. For generations, women have suffered limitations imposed by social expectations associated with their gender alone. For equally as long, the students served and the professional staffs who served have suffered limitations imposed by the exclusion of effective administrators who happened to be female.

This study, while limited by the very limitations imposed upon female administrators in this state, seeks to incorporate other gender and group leadership studies into specific

examination of female high school principals and their male peers in North Carolina. Selection of sample has proven especially disheartening because there are so few female high school principals to be studied. The purpose of the study is to examine the female high school principals that can be matched with male counterparts to see if there are differences in leadership styles that spring from differences in gender. This examination, completed through the Porter instruments ( Strength Deployment Inventory.<sup>®</sup> Strength Deployment Inventory: Feedback Edition.<sup>®</sup> and Job Interactions Inventory<sup>™</sup>), is intended to help in future analyses of leadership styles, especially as they are gender differentiated.

### Summary

Chapter 1 introduces key concepts and poses the questions to be answered in the current study. The major objective is to uncover the specific ways in which female high school principals differ from male high school principals in their leadership styles as perceived both by themselves and by their staffs.

Chapter 2 reviews both the history of leadership theory as it has developed and the current thinking in leadership theory.

Gender and group leadership studies are included in both a general and an educational light, followed by a review of woman's place in the history of educational leadership. Educational gender studies complete the picture. Limited answers to the questions posed in Chapter 1 are suggested by the literature review in Chapter 2.

Chapter 3 includes a rationale for the instruments of choice and a discussion of other instruments available, showing why they will not accomplish the desired goal. Validation information is offered in support of the Porter instruments and specific uses of the instruments discussed.

Chapter 4 includes the specific profiles of the twelve principals studied and detailed analysis of the information gathered. These profiles are used to offer specific insights so that the questions of Chapter 1 can be answered.

The first question posed in Chapter 1 is: Are there gender-specific perceptions of the chief executive officer's leadership style among instructional staff members? The analysis yielded by comparison of the Porter instruments shows four basic patterns of motivation which seem to fall within social and sexual-role expectations as follows: Altruistic-Nurturing is an essentially feminine pattern, Assertive-Directing is an

essentially masculine pattern, Analytic-Automizing is an essentially masculine pattern, and Flexible-Cohering is an essentially feminine pattern. Of the blends, Assertive-Nurturing is essentially androgynous, Cautious-Supporting is essentially masculine, and Judicious-Competing is essentially masculine.

Given this division of patterns and blends of patterns, under favorable conditions, Female Principals A, C, and D, are perceived by their employees in exclusively feminine terms, Female Principal B is perceived by four of her five employees in feminine terms, Female Principal E is perceived by three of her five employees in feminine terms, and Female Principal F is perceived by two of her five employees in feminine terms and by another one in androgynous terms. Thus, of the 29 reports, 23 are cast in terms of the gender of the principal, one is cast in androgynous terms, and five are cast in terms which contradict the gender of the principal. Under unfavorable circumstances, dramatic differences are obvious. Each lady is perceived in fewer feminine terms. Female Principal A is perceived by three of her five employees in feminine terms but by two in masculine ones. Female Principal B is perceived by all five employees in masculine terms. Female Principal C is perceived by three of four employees

in feminine terms and by one in masculine terms. Female Principal D is perceived by two employees in feminine terms but by three in masculine terms. Female Principal E is perceived by all five employees in masculine terms. Female Principal F is perceived by four of five employees in masculine terms but by one in feminine terms. Of the 29 responses, under unfavorable conditions, 20 report in masculine terms and only nine report in feminine terms. It seems clear that the employee's perceptions under favorable conditions are much more closely linked to the gender of the female principals while under unfavorable conditions, the reverse is true. Chi-square analysis of these specific data reveal them to be significant at the .001 level. (A table is available in Appendix C.)

For the male principals, the picture is different. Under favorable conditions, Male Principals B and F are perceived in exclusively feminine terms. Male Principal A is perceived by two of his five employees in feminine terms but by three others in masculine terms. Male Principal C is perceived by four of his five employees in feminine terms but by one in masculine terms. Male Principal D is perceived by two of four employees in feminine terms and by two more in masculine terms. Male Principal E is

perceived by four of five employees in feminine terms and by only one in masculine terms. Thus, under favorable conditions, 17 of the 26 respondents--over half--use feminine terms to describe the leadership styles of their male principals. Only nine use masculine descriptions. However, under unfavorable conditions, Male Principals C, D, and E are perceived in exclusively masculine terms. Male Principal A is perceived by four of his five employees in masculine terms and only one in feminine terms. Male Principal B is perceived by one of his three employees in masculine terms and by two in feminine terms. Male Principal F is perceived by three of his four employees in masculine terms and only one in feminine terms. Thus, under unfavorable conditions, only four of 26 respondents use feminine terms to describe the leadership styles of their male principals while 22 of the 26 respondents use masculine terms to describe the styles of these same male principals. For male principals, employee perceptions under favorable conditions are likely to contradict sex-role expectations of the principals, but under unfavorable conditions the reverse is true. Application of Chi-squares also reveal these data to be significant at the .001 level. (A table is available in Appendix C.) For both groups, perceptions under favorable

conditions are more likely to be couched in feminine terms and under unfavorable conditions in masculine ones. This is not a startling finding. Under favorable conditions, all principals have the luxury of a thoughtful, considered response which shows greater relationship value than task value. Under unfavorable conditions, no such luxury exists and attention must be riveted on the task. What is also true, apparently, is that societal expectations which surround the thoughtful, considered response are linked with femaleness while societal expectations which surround unfavorable conditions which may require emergency reactions are linked with maleness. The "wait-until-your-father-gets-home" gender expectations of the Beaver Cleaver era are apparently still alive and well in society at large.

The second question posed in Chapter 1 is: Do the gender-specific perceptions of instructional staff that do exist match the gender-specific perceptions of the chief executive officers themselves? Using the same gender identification as explained previously, no female principals perceive their typical behaviors in exclusively feminine terms whether conditions are favorable or unfavorable. Female principals A, E, and F perceive themselves to be performing in feminine ways under favorable conditions but in



masculine ways under unfavorable conditions. Female Principals B, C, and D perceive themselves to be performing in masculine ways under either favorable or unfavorable conditions. This perception is clearly at odds with the perceptions of their followers who report their perceptions under favorable conditions as overwhelmingly feminine and under unfavorable conditions as roughly two-thirds masculine as compared to the female principals who consistently reported themselves to function in masculine terms under unfavorable conditions. Differences in the perceptions of the female principals and of their subordinates may stem from the cultural tendency to perceive women as womanly even when they are performing essentially masculine tasks or in essentially masculine ways rather than identifying them with the task itself. A woman in the principal's office will likely be identified as a woman. A man in the principal's office, however, will be identified as the principal. Even the female principals themselves apparently have difficulty seeing June Cleaver in the role of anyone other than Ward Cleaver when she removes her apron.

For the male principals, again, the story is quite different. Under favorable conditions, five of the six male principals

perceive themselves to be functioning in an essentially feminine manner and only one perceives himself to be functioning in an essentially masculine manner. Under unfavorable conditions, four of the six perceive themselves to be functioning in an essentially masculine manner and two perceive themselves to be functioning in an essentially feminine manner. Male Principals C and F perceive themselves to be functioning in an exclusively feminine manner, and Male Principal E perceives himself to be functioning in an exclusively masculine manner, but Male Principals A, B, and D perceive themselves to function, under favorable conditions, in an essentially feminine manner but, under unfavorable conditions, in an essentially masculine manner. Here is clearly the same tendency as shown in the female principals to perceive of behaviors under favorable conditions being feminine but under unfavorable conditions being masculine. Here, however, employee perceptions bear out the perceptions of the male principals. Subordinates agree that under favorable conditions, behavior patterns in the male principals are essentially feminine (by a 17 to 9 margin) and under unfavorable conditions, behavior patterns in the male principals are essentially masculine (by a 22 to 4 margin). Whether the male principals see themselves more

clearly or more nearly as their subordinates see them is not clear. For whatever reason, whether because of social expectations or self-induced pressure to measure up in an essentially masculine world, there is a dichotomy between self-perception and the perceptions of subordinates for the female principals only.

The third question in Chapter 1 was: Is there a higher instance of nurturance among female chief executive officers as contrasted with male chief executive officers? In the present study, nurturance of others is more obvious in the male principals than in the female principals, as the principals themselves report. Only one of the six female principals reports compatibility between her typical behavior pattern and job demands in this area while one more lists this area as her area of least compatibility. Among the male principals, two report compatibility in the area of nurturance and one more reports near compatibility. There is nothing in the study which would explain this occurrence. There is, however, in our culture, the belief that women who show feminine characteristics exclusively and do not establish the authority of their positions will be taken advantage of. Nurturance may be underreported by women--or even relegated by women--in an effort to gain and exercise authority. It would be

terribly ironic if females in educational administration responded to the pressure to make strides in a man's world by relinquishing their potential feminine strengths.

The fourth question in Chapter 1 is: Do female chief executive officers perceive their jobs to require fewer typically feminine traits than masculine or fewer typically masculine traits than feminine? Using the self-report scores from each principal's Job Interactions Inventory,™ it is obvious that this group of female chief executive officers perceive their jobs to require a fairly even mixture of traits. Female principal A perceives the job to require a feminine blend of traits whether conditions are favorable or unfavorable. Female Principal B perceives the job to require a masculine blend of traits whether conditions are favorable or unfavorable. Female Principal C perceives the job to require a feminine blend of traits under favorable conditions and a masculine blend under unfavorable conditions. Female Principal D perceives the job to require a masculine blend of traits under favorable conditions and a feminine blend under unfavorable conditions. Female Principal E perceives the job to require an androgynous blend of traits under favorable conditions and a feminine blend under unfavorable

conditions. Female Principal F perceives the job to require a masculine blend of traits under favorable conditions and a feminine blend under unfavorable conditions. Thus, these female principals give only a slight edge to feminine traits. They perceive them as necessary in six of twelve cases, the androgynous blend as necessary in one case and the masculine blend in only five cases.

The fifth question in Chapter 1 is: Do male chief executive officers perceive their jobs to require fewer typically feminine traits than masculine or fewer typically masculine traits than feminine? Using the same method to answer this question as to answer the previous one, pronounced differences can be discovered. The male principals report, in three of six cases, that the job requires a feminine blend of traits whether conditions are favorable or unfavorable. Male Principals A, B, and C perceive the job to require female traits in either case. Male Principal D perceives the job to require female traits under favorable conditions but masculine traits under unfavorable conditions. Male Principal E perceives the job to require masculine traits under favorable conditions but an androgynous blend of traits under unfavorable conditions. Male Principal F perceives the job

to require an androgynous blend of traits under both favorable and unfavorable conditions. Thus the male principals perceive the job to require essentially feminine traits in seven of twelve cases, an androgynous blend in three of twelve case, and masculine traits in only two of twelve cases.

The sixth question posed in Chapter 1 was: Is there a "typical" leadership style for female chief executive officers? Is there a "typical" leadership style for males? If there is a "typical" leadership style for each, how do they differ and how are they alike? Using each principal's Strength Deployment Inventory.<sup>®</sup> it is obvious the female principals do not perceive themselves to be functioning similarly under favorable conditions. Only under unfavorable conditions do similarities emerge. Under unfavorable conditions, one reports that she becomes Cautious-Supporting, two report that they become Judicious-Competing, and three of the six report that they become Analytic-Automizing. In order, the behavior patterns depend on order, strategy, and logic. While there is diversity in favorable times, the female principals all resort to ritual and/or logic in times of stress. The male principals are more similar to each other. Four of the six

perceive themselves to be functioning in the same fashion under favorable circumstances. Under favorable circumstances, four perceive themselves to be Flexible-Cohering, one perceives himself to be Cautious-Supporting, and one perceives himself to be Altruistic-Nurturing. Under unfavorable conditions, two report that they resort to the Analytic-Automizing pattern, two report Flexible-Cohering, and two report Judicious-Competing. The male principals are more similar to each other than were the female principals, functioning in four of six cases in the same Flexible-Cohering manner under favorable conditions. Under unfavorable conditions, there are clusters of similarity but they are not as pronounced as were the women's convergence in three of six cases. While there is little similarity in the functioning of female and male principals under favorable conditions, under unfavorable conditions two of the female and two of the male principals perceive themselves to function as Judicious-Competing types, and all of the women and four of the six men rely on behaviors which incorporate and depend on logic, order, and strategy. It would appear, then, that the females in this study have no "typical" style of leadership behavior except in times of stress when they resort to manipulation through logic and/or

strategy. The males, however, seem to cluster in favorable times around the essentially feminine quality of concern for the welfare of the group and achieving unity and coherence within the group and to resort, in unfavorable times, to manipulation through logic and/or strategy, also, but with less frequency than do the females.

### Conclusions

Leadership is dynamic and organic. Although there appears to be no such entity as an ideal leadership style, the body of knowledge surrounding leadership activity is growing and insight into effective leadership is more available today than it has ever been in the past. Gender and group behavior studies may bring to light the impact of dynamics not previously considered. Based on a review of literature and on the twelve profiles prepared for high school principals participating in the current study, the following conclusions can be drawn concerning the importance of gender in leadership style:

1. Leadership as it is currently practiced by high school principals in North Carolina is highly divergent, markedly situational, and more likely to be



androgynous among male principals than among female principals.

2. The particular blend of behavior patterns and traits employed by female and male principals alike is more likely to be feminine during favorable conditions and masculine during unfavorable conditions.
3. Female principals frequently perceive themselves to be functioning in masculine ways even when subordinates perceive them to be functioning in feminine ways.
4. Female principals appear to see themselves differently than do their subordinates more often than do male principals.
5. Male principals appear to be more often nurturant of others than are female principals who appear to suppress nurturance as a form of defense of their authority.
6. Male principals appear to be more at ease with their roles as principal than do female principals who report fewer areas of compatibility.
7. Male principals appear to be more at ease with their

divergence from compatibility, reporting greater variance than do female principals in their areas of incompatibility.

8. Male principals appear to function more like other male principals and female principals appear to function more unlike other female principals under normal conditions.
9. Male and female principals alike are more concerned with establishing and maintaining harmony in their schools than they are with either production or orderliness or than they are with any other concern measured in this study.

#### Recommendations for Further Study

A review of the literature in the area of leadership emphasizes the evolving nature of leadership itself. It also points to the primacy of the role played by the building level principal. In addition, the gender and group behavior studies underscore the underutilization of women in all aspects of leadership, emphasizing the loss to education itself as well as to women individually. This study has presented a summary of the

literature related to the development of leadership theory, gender and group behavior studies, and the role of women in educational administration as well as leadership profiles of twelve North Carolina high school principals. The need for further study is pronounced. Therefore, the following urgent recommendations are made:

1. There must be established a mechanism for monitoring both the numbers of women who attain high school principalships and their longevity in their positions. It is, even today, difficult to secure statistics because they have been for so long hidden or considered of so little importance that they were not reported.
2. There must be established a formal network for integrating new female administrators into the profession, providing the same support and assistance to which men have ready access but from which women are systematically excluded not only in this state but apparently across the nation.
3. There must be established a mechanism for tracking female secondary principals to discover if, in fact, their tenure in their positions is similar to or

different from their male counterparts'. Too often have women been placed in positions in which they could not survive and been left to fail without support or encouragement.

4. There must be undertaken longitudinal studies among female administrators on every level to assure that, indeed, they are not mere tokens appointed under duress and not allowed to function productively or to endure.
5. Leadership institutions must be established as a part of the academic preparation for administrative positions regardless of gender, and local systems must invest at least an in-service commitment to these programs in an effort to build and enhance leadership skills regardless of gender.
6. Specific training programs must be established for women who are entering educational administration to avoid role confusion and the abnegation of inherent strength which could accrue from the feminine blends. To this end, more female role models must be secured at every level, from the university departments of

educational administration to the local upper eschelons. No woman should have to deny her femininity to be thought worthy of competing for a position in administration or to function within even a traditional network. And education itself cannot continue to be denied the influence which women have been denied the opportunity or the mechanism to exercise.

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## APPENDIX A

## LETTER TO FEMALE PRINCIPALS

Dear \_\_\_\_\_,

Thank you for speaking with me by phone yesterday and for agreeing to assist in the collection of data for my dissertation on gender differentiation in leadership styles.

You will find enclosed single copies of the Strength Deployment Inventory<sup>®</sup> and the Job Interactions Inventory<sup>™</sup> which should be completed by you. I have also enclosed five copies of the Strength Deployment Inventory. Feedback Edition<sup>®</sup> to be completed by five members of your instructional staff, chosen at random. I am also enclosing a stamped, addressed envelope for your use in returning these materials. As we discussed, I will be pleased to share with you the results from your own staff and from the entire sample as well. I will be able to return to you the individual results much more quickly, of course, as I am asking that these be returned to me within two weeks.

Again, let me thank you for agreeing to assist in this matter. I hope that the testing results will be of use to you as well as to me.

Very truly yours,

Gayle Brookbank



## APPENDIX B

## LETTER TO MALE PRINCIPALS

Dear \_\_\_\_\_,

Thank you for speaking with me yesterday and for agreeing to assist in the collection of data for my dissertation on leadership styles among high school principals in our state.

You will find enclosed single copies of the Strength Deployment Inventory<sup>®</sup> and the Job Interactions Inventory<sup>™</sup> which should be completed by you. I have also enclosed five copies of the Strength Deployment Inventory, Feedback Edition<sup>®</sup> to be completed by five members of your instructional staff, chosen at random. I am also enclosing a stamped, addressed envelop for your use in returning these materials. As we discussed, I will be pleased to share with you the results from your own staff if you wish. I will be able to return these quickly as I am asking that they be returned to me within two weeks.

Again, let me thank you for agreeing to assist in this matter. I hope that the testing results will be of use to you as well as to me.

Very truly yours,

Gayle Brookbank

**APPENDIX C**  
**FREQUENCIES OF MASCULINE AND FEMININE**  
**ATTRIBUTES BY CONDITION**

	Favorable	Unfavorable
<b>Males</b>		
<b>Masculine</b>	9	22
<b>Feminine</b>	17	4
<b>Females</b>		
<b>Masculine</b>	6	20
<b>Feminine</b>	23	9