CHAPTER 2

The Review of the Literature

Discussing the effects of school leadership in relation to school effectiveness requires a

review of the effective schools research, and the theoretical constructs of leadership, especially

in relation to the school as an organization. Therefore the literature is divided into three sections.

The first section looks at aspects of the effective schools research and discusses the correlates of

school effectiveness. The second section examines the issue of leadership through a focus on the

theory and the various leadership styles. The final section addresses the principal as leader and

his or her role in the overall effectiveness of the school

School Effectiveness

Despite almost 30 years of effective schools research, it would appear that present day

studies to a large extent continue to confirm the findings of Coleman et al. (1966) and Jencks et

al. (1972). According to Henderson and Berla (1994), the major difference between high

achieving schools and low achieving schools remains not the school and the instructional

program on offer, but a home environment that "encourages learning," and families

"expectations for their children's achievement and future careers" (p.1).

Such findings in today's literature are discomforting. While on the one hand they attest to

the complex nature of schooling and consequently to the complexity of the task in making all

schools effective, of critical importance, they also maintain the "popularity of that belief … that

family background is the chief cause of the quality of pupil performance" thus "absolving

educators of their professional responsibility to be instructionally effective" (Edmonds, 1979,

p.21).

There is ample evidence that schools can be effective in teaching most children the basic

skills that are necessary for them to proceed to the next grade. The fact that schools have been identified that have been consistently effective in teaching poor children disproves the belief that socio-economic status is the overriding influence on student academic achievement. As Edmonds declared, the fact that some schools fail to teach some children has less to do with family background variables and more to do with the acceptance of the responsibility to so do (Edmonds, 1979). Therefore the challenge is in the ability or willingness of the school to utilize its resources in ways that would impact positively on student learning (Brookover, Beady, Flood, Shweitzer and Wisenbaker (1977), Brookover and Lezotte (1979), Edmonds (1979), Levine and Lezotte (1990), Rutter et al. (1979)

The search to identify effective schools was a direct challenge to the implied assumptions of the 1966 Coleman Report which declared that family background was the primary determinant of children's performance in school. The corollary to this statement was obvious, that schools had little impact on student learning. For the inner city and rural schools, the schools that traditionally cater to the poor and minority populations, this assumption was devastating. It suggested that it was futile to expect poor children to ever succeed for low achievement "derived principally from inherent disabilities characterizing the poor" (Edmonds, p. 16)

The effort to refute this assumption launched the effective schools research which continues to date. Weber, (1971) conducted one of the first major studies to determine the effectiveness of schools. He looked at the reading achievement in four instructionally effective inner-city elementary schools. His focus was to determine the characteristics that contributed to their effectiveness. He found that common to the four schools was strong leadership embodied in the principalship. The principal was instrumental in setting the tone of the school, helping decide on instructional strategies, and organizing and distributing the school's resources. The principals

and staffs held high expectations for student success. The atmosphere of the schools was orderly, quiet and pleasant, and all four schools emphasized the acquisition of reading skills, which was reinforced by careful and frequent assessment, and evaluations of pupil progress (Edmonds, 1979; Good and Brophy, 1986).

In 1977, in response to a request from the Michigan Department of Education, Brookover and Lezotte studied eight elementary schools, six characterized by consistent pupil performance improvement, and two by consistent decline. They found that, accounting for the variations in student performance between the two sets of schools were variables within the control of the school. Similar to Weber's (1971) conclusions, the improving schools placed greater emphasis on the acquisition of the basic reading and mathematics skills. They had a clear and strong belief in their students' abilities to achieve the learning objectives and held the expectation that they would achieve the goal. The principals and staffs saw student learning as their responsibility and consequently spent more time on teaching. The principals were more inclined to be assertive and assume responsibility for the evaluation of the students' progress.

Brookover et al. (1979); Edmonds, (1979), Purkey and Smith, (1983); Rutter, Maughan, Mortimore, Ouston and Smith, (1979) are just some of the researchers who came to similar conclusions. The analysis of these various studies led to the identification of the common characteristics that were found to be integral to the fabric of the schools. These common characteristics were: clear school mission, high expectations for all students, effective leadership, regular assessment and evaluation of student progress, the amount of structured teaching and student time on task, a school climate that facilitates learning, and the home-school relationship.

These characteristics constitute the correlates of effective schools. They comprise a necessary but not sufficient condition for school effectiveness. As articulated by Chrispeels and

Meaney (1985), school effectiveness results from the interaction among the correlates. It is an example of the whole being greater than the sum of its separate parts. Therefore, although the characteristics can be individualized and defined, a maximization of the school's effectiveness demands that to some degree, all must be present.

Chubb (1987) in his review of factors that affect school performance suggested that the inter-correlation among the various components that comprise the school defies separation into organization and structure. The total school working in tandem contributes to the level of effectiveness. Thus effectiveness is affected by the organization, as well as the quality of the teaching and the instructional program that all form part of the overall school climate (Chrispeels & Meaney, 1985).

There is no total agreement on what constitutes school effectiveness or how effective should be measured. Most studies on school effectiveness have used test scores, particularly on math and language, as the principal source of evidence of the effectiveness of the school. This, Leithwood and Jantzi (1999) argued, was "not because they are the only, or always most suitable measures, but because they are available for research at little or no cost to the researcher." (p.458). However, Hallinger, Bickman and Davis (1996) explained that the use of standardized test scores should not be surprising and they do serve a purpose. The public's interest is in the academic achievement of the students, therefore, any interest in the principal's impact on the school and class level variables is with the ultimate purpose of improving the student academic outcomes.

Despite Hallinger et al.'s (1996) rationalization, most educators would agree with Cuban (1984), and Leithwood, Begley, and Cousins (1990) when they concluded that conceptualizing effectiveness in terms of standardized achievement test scores was too narrow for it ignored all

the effects of schooling, and the wider range of cognitive and affective variables that were essential outcomes of school effectiveness but could not be reflected by a test score.

While the above observation is true, the reality of the politics of schooling demands a tangible measure that can be looked at comparatively. Until more currency is ascribed to other desirable outcomes of schooling, and measures are developed that can assess the psychometric properties of those outcomes, students performance on a plethora of achievement tests would remain the yardstick by which schools are judged effective.

Leadership

"Anytime we try to influence the behavior of another human being, we are engaging in an act of leadership" (Blanchard, Zigarmi, & Zigarmi, 1987, p.13).

The world has always been fascinated by leadership. As evidenced in the great books of religion for example the Bible, the Quoran, the Bagavad Gita, all the great religions have had their share of leaders who have been able to galvanize their people and hold their trust and commitment to their beliefs. The world has had, and will always have, its Churchill's, Gandhi's, Roosevelt's and Mandela's, some operating on the world's stage, others in their communities, and still others within their organizations.

The evolution of leadership can be explored through an examination of the major theories that have informed the various conceptualizations of leadership over the years. Some scholars have traced this development through a review of the approaches or movements that dominated a particular time period. Others looked at the theories while others adopted a more pragmatic approach by using the various definitions of leadership as a means of understanding its conceptualization in a given period.

Brown cited in Tsend (2000), documented the changing conceptualization of leadership

through an analysis of the various definitions by decade from 1900 to 1990. What he observed was a clear trend moving away from defining leadership as a controlling and centralized power in the 1930s, to a focus in the 1940s on team and collective efforts. The trend continued through the1950s with an emphasis on visioning and goal sharing which in the 1960s incorporated the use of behavioral techniques as a means of influence. From the 1970s, increased attention was accorded to human relations and accordingly, this aspect of leadership gained prominence. This trend has continued in the 1980s and 1990s where the emphasis is on leadership as a facilitating and transformational activity.

Another approach to the study of leadership is through the organizational ideologies: the scientific management movement; the human relations movement; the bureaucratic movement and the open systems movement (Stogdill, 1974**)**

Dominating the early 1900s was the scientific management approach which emphasized order and the efficiency of production (Stogdill, 1974). In congruence with Brown's interpretation of the definition of leadership during this time period, Hersey and Blanchard (1982) characterized the period as emphasizing the needs of the organization. The role of the leader was to establish performance criteria to ensure the attainment of the organizational goals. The individual was simply a tool of production.

In contrast with the scientific management approach's lack of concern for the individual, the human relations movement heavily influenced by the work of Follet and Mayo (Heresy & Blanchard, 1982) placed greater emphasis on the human element side of the organization. There was still an emphasis on efficiency and productivity, however, the focus of attention was now the individual. His growth and development assumed new importance and was linked to the development and effectiveness of the organization.

The human relation approach to organizational leadership was followed by the bureaucratic approach which was based on the theoretical concepts of organization structure and rules of bureaucracy postulated by Max Weber (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982). The rationale behind the introduction of the bureaucratic administration was to depersonalize the role of the leader by freeing the organization from the effects of any one individual ruler. The functioning of the organization thus relied on systems that were supposed to ensure effectiveness in its operation.

Succeeding the bureaucratic approach was the open system. This view of organizational leadership once again placed the individual at the center of the organization. As explained by Hersey and Blanchard, the motivation to change was external to the organization. The changes were in response to the civil rights and women movements, and the growth of teachers' unions and collective bargaining. This period initiated core changes in the social landscape, and as a result pressured organizations into a formalization of the rights of the individual within their organizations. Therefore applying the same rationale of the right of law that symbolized the bureaucratic approach, the right of the individual took precedent over the goals of the organization

One of the earliest systematic efforts at understanding leadership focused on the individual traits of leaders. Inquiry into this approach sought to answer questions about the universal traits of the great leaders. The findings from these early studies were so inconsistent and the list of identified traits so long as to serve no practical purpose (Moorhead & Griffin, 1998). Consequently, research into the trait theory was all but abandoned until recently.

The resurgence of interest in the identification of leadership traits emanates from an interest in exploring the "relationship between traits and leadership effectiveness of

administrators (Hoy & Miskel, 1991, p. 254). As Yukl (1994) points out, the emphasis of present trait studies is not based on a comparison of leaders vs. non-leaders, but on "the relation of leader traits to leader effectiveness" (p. 69). The interest is not linked to the Aristotelian concept of inherent trait that predicts leadership, but in the identification of traits to predict effectiveness.

Northouse (1997), based on his analysis of the extant literature on leadership traits and characteristics, identified five major traits common to great leaders: intelligence, self-confidence, determination, integrity, and sociability. Critical to the intelligence dimension were strong verbal skills, perceptual ability, and reasoning. Self-confidence incorporated leader self-esteem and self-assurance, and a determination and desire to accomplish tasks. Integrity was reflected in leadership behavior. Therefore the level of perceived honesty and adherence to a set of principles constituted crucial elements to garner and maintain trust among followers. Sociability was reflected though the inter-personal skills of the leader and his or her concern for others.

This by no means suggested that all leaders possessed these traits to the same degree. However, the identification of the traits provided a standard by which individuals could measure the degree to which they possessed these traits and more importantly, established the framework for the creation of leadership profiles of heuristic utility for leadership selection in organizations.

As gleaned from House and Baertz (1979), and referred to by Hersey and Blanchard, (1982), the recent studies of leadership traits were really an extension and refinement of the charismatic leadership theory of House (1977). House had posited that charismatic leaders exhibited high levels of self-confidence and dominance, were convinced of the moral righteousness of their beliefs, and needed to have influence over others. Sashkin (1977) extended these traits to include intellectual fortitude, character integrity, and speech fluency (Hersey &

Blanchard, 1982).

A critical component was the character integrity of the charismatic leader for it was through the integrity that he or she provided the role model for the followers. Good examples of "living what they preached" were Mahatma Gandhi, Martin Luther King, Jr., and Mother Teresa.

It is the fact that the charismatic leader was also a role model (for good or bad) that made such a person a valuable asset to the organization. As House (1977) further explained, because the followers bought in to the vision and accepted the goals as articulated by the leader, they were willing to increase their efforts to reach those goals. They accepted the correctness of the leaders beliefs and consequently modeled the values of the leader, the expectations of the leader that effective performance would result in desired outcomes for the follower, the emotional responses of the leader to work related stimuli, and the attitudes of the leader toward the organization.

Tests of the theory of charismatic leadership confirmed that people who worked under charismatic leaders experienced greater job satisfaction and had higher performance ratings, were more highly motivated, and perceived the leader to be more effective (Howell & Frost, cited in Yukl, 1994).

While some researchers studied leadership in terms of traits, others were more interested in how leaders functioned and turned their attention to an investigation of leadership behaviors. Of interests therefore, were the specific behaviors and actions of leaders.

The first major investigation into leadership behavior, also called leadership styles, was conducted in 1945 by researchers in the Bureau of Business Research, Ohio State University. From their research, they identified two distinct dimensions of leadership: task behavior and relationship behavior. The task behaviors which were referred to as "initiating structure" focused

on behaviors such as organizing work, allocating responsibilities and scheduling work activities.

The relationship behaviors called "consideration" included behaviors such as building mutual

respect and trust between leaders and subordinates.

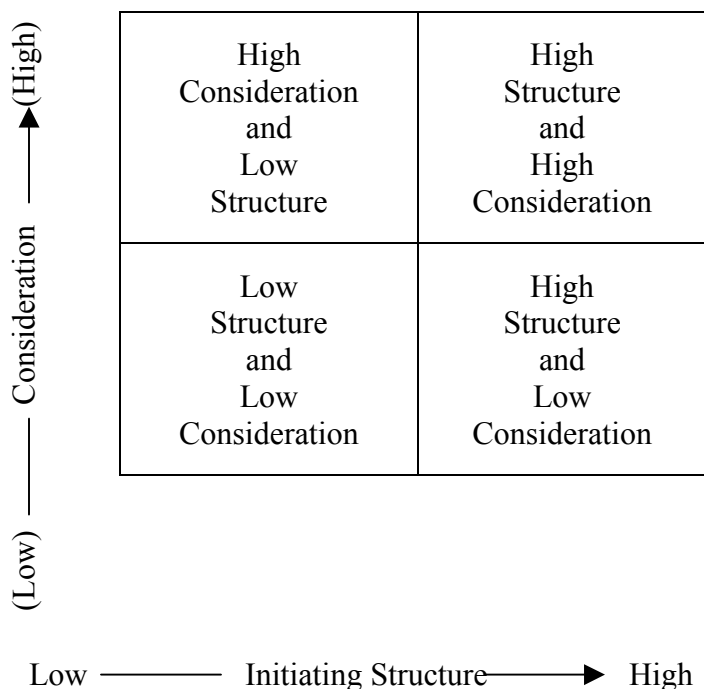|	Low → Initiating Structure → High	
(High) ↑ Consideration	High Consideration and Low Structure	High Structure and High Consideration
	Low Structure and Low Consideration	High Structure and Low Consideration
(Low)		

Figure 1: The Ohio State Leadership Quadrants
From Management of organizational behavior; utilizing human resources, (p.74), by P. Hersey
and K.H. Blanchard 1982.

The researchers concluded that the two dimensions were separate and distinct and

therefore leadership behavior was plotted on two separate axes (See Figure 1). These studies led

to the development of the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ), an

assessment instrument for the identification of the leadership orientation of the leader. This

instrument was refined by Halpin and Winer in 1952, and remains one of the most popular tools

for measuring leadership behavior (Hoy & Miskel, 1991).

Blake and Mouton as cited in Hersey and Blanchard (1982), expanding on and refining

the work of the researchers at the Ohio State University developed the Leadership Grid, initially

called the managerial grid. Utilizing the same theoretical constructs of task accomplishments,

and the development of personal relationships as used by the LBDQ, they called the two

dimensions of leadership behavior "concern for production" and "concern for people" (see
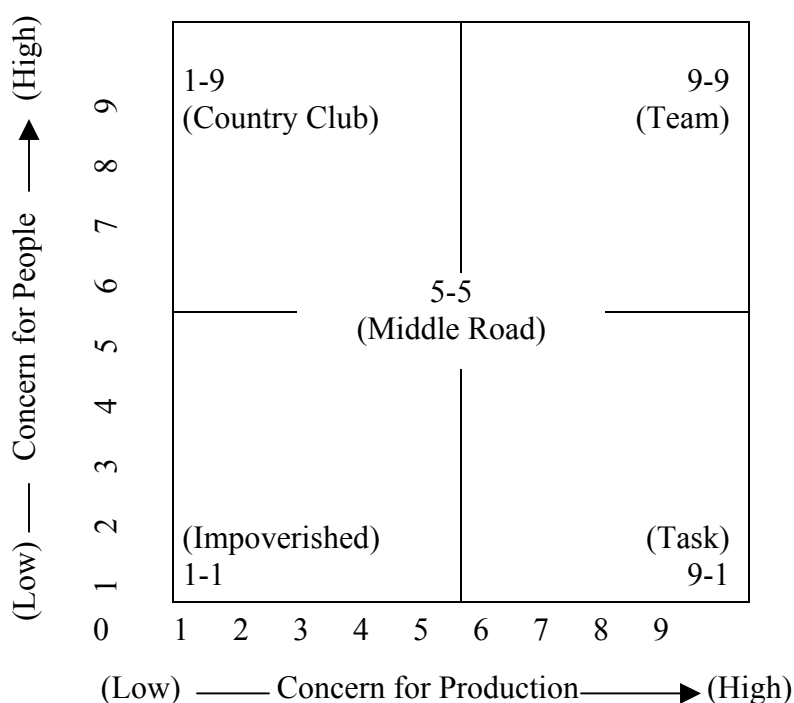
Figure 2).

Figure 2: The Managerial Grid Leadership Style
From Management of organizational behavior; utilizing human resources, (p.75), by P. Hersey
and K.H. Blanchard 1972.

The Leadership Grid although similar to the LBDQ that measured how leader actions

were perceived by others is an attitudinal model for "portraying types of leadership behavior and

their various potential combinations" (Moorhead & Griffin, 1998, p. 359). Thus it is a measure

of the predisposition of the leader. The grid consists of two intersecting axes, the horizontal axis

measuring concern for people, and the vertical axis measuring concern for production. Each dimension was measured on a nine-point scale. Therefore, theoretically the ideal leader would be measured at 9-9 on the scale, i.e. high consideration and high structure (Team).

The grid identifies five leadership styles. These are Country Club: emphasis on the needs of people and on relationships; Impoverished: exertion of minimum effort to get work done is appropriate to maintain organizational membership; Team: focus on interdependence and commitment to the organization's purpose; Task: emphasis on efficiency with minimum human involvement; and Middle Road in which the leader balances "the necessity to get out work while maintaining morale of the people at a satisfactory level" (Hersey & Blanchard, p. 76). The leadership grid is based on the assumption that there is an effectiveness dimension that is not extreme at the lower end of the dimensions, but combines both concerns for production and concerns for people.

Concurrent with and complementing the Ohio State studies were the studies conducted by the University of Michigan Survey Research Center. According to Moorhead and Griffin (1998), the foci of these studies were to identify the leadership characteristics that resulted in effective group performance. These studies identified two basic forms of leadership behaviors that mirrored those identified by the Ohio state studies. These were production or job centered leader behavior and employee centered leader behavior. Hoy and Miskel (1991) cite Vroom in summarizing the findings of the Michigan studies:

1. More effective leaders tend to have relationships with their subordinates that are supportive and enhance the followers' sense of self-esteem than do less effective ones.

2. More effective leaders use group rather than person-to-person methods of supervision

and decision making than do less effective ones

3. More effective leaders tend to set higher performance goals than do less effective ones. (Hoy & Miskel, 1991, p. 269)

Shifting the focus from leadership styles and behaviors, researchers began concentration on the effects of situational variables on leadership styles. Emerging from this new thinking are the contingency models and the Hersey and Blanchard (1982) situational leadership theory that focus on the relationship between the leadership style and the readiness of the subordinate.

The contingency theory of leadership behavior, also known as the LPC (Least Preferred Co-worker) theory after the instrument developed by Fiedler (1967) to measure leader effectiveness is the most well known and empirically tested of the contextual models. In this theory, leader effectiveness is viewed as a function of leader behavior and contextual factors. As noted by Hoy and Miskel (1991), Fiedler was careful in underscoring the critical distinction between leadership style and leadership behavior. As he explained, "important leadership behaviors of the same individual differ from situation to situation, while the need structure which motivates these behaviors may be seen as constant" (Hoy & Miskel, p. 275). Thus the emphasis was on the leadership style which was reflected in the behavior. In this contingency model, leader personality traits were either task motivated behavior or relationship motivated (Moorhead & Griffin, 1998).

Fiedler (1967) identified three major contextual variables: leader-position power, leader-member relationship, and task structure. Leader-member relations refer to group atmosphere, attraction to leaders, the level of loyalty, and the existence of friction within the group. Task structure refers to the clarity of the tasks, the clarity of roles for each group member, and the clarity of the instruction for task completion. The variable position power based on the extent to

which leaders motivate or punish and is predicated on the degree of authority the leader has: that is the legitimate authority to hire or promote an employee.

As alluded to previously, Fiedler (1967) developed the Least Preferred Co-worker scale (LPC) as the instrument of measurement. The contextual variables were measured on a continuum ranging from most to least favorable. Leader-member relations were measured as good or bad, task structure as high or low, and position power as strong or weak. Fiedler and his colleagues maintained that leader effectiveness was contingent upon the interaction between the leader's personality, or leadership style, and the contextual variables. Therefore when relation was good, task structure high, and position power strong, the context was designated most favorable and leadership was most effective.

The Path-goal theory developed and refined by Martin Evans and Robert House in the 1970s (Hoy & Miskel, 1991; Moorhead & Griffin, 1998) also adopts the contingency conceptualization of leadership. The theory proposes that subordinates' performances, perceptions of work goals, personal goals, and paths to goal attainment are influenced by leadership behaviors. The model identifies four leadership behaviors. These are directive and achievement oriented behaviors which represent the initiating structure dimension of the Ohio State LBDQ studies, and participative and supportive behaviors which find support in the consideration dimension. There has not been much empirical support for this model and consequently, its utility value is limited.

The other contingency theory model that created an impact on leadership theory was the Vroom and Yetton's Decision making Model which was revised and expanded by Vroom and Jago in 1974 and again in 1984, and recreated by Vroom and Jago in 1988 to address issues of validity (Bass & Stogdill, 1990). The model while similar to the path-goal theory, in seeking to

prescribe the most suitable leadership style to a given situation, focuses on the extent to which subordinates should be involved in the decision-making process. In this regard, it proposes that the degree to which subordinates be allowed to participate in decision making should depend on the characteristics of the situation (Hoy & Miskel, 1991; Moorhead & Griffin, 1998). The goal of the model is to ensure quality decisions and acceptance of these decisions by the subordinates.

An important contribution to leadership theory was the introduction of the reciprocity of the influence of organization on the style of leadership. Hersey and Blanchard (1982) argued that leadership behavior could affect the effectiveness of the organization, and the changes in the organization affect the next leadership intervention.

In this approach, leadership is defined as "working with and through people to accomplish a particular organizational goal" (Hersey, Zigarmi, & Zigarmi, 1987, p. 13) and suggest that leader behavior should vary in response to the maturity or development level that the follower or followers exhibit on a specific task, function, or objective that the leader is attempting to accomplish.

Implied therefore is that the maturity level of the subordinate, defined in terms of job maturity and psychological maturity, influences leader behavior. Subordinates are rated in competence and commitment on a continuum from high to low. A high-maturity subordinate had both high job maturity (i.e. task relevant skills and knowledge), and psychological maturity (i.e. self-confidence and self-esteem), while the low maturity subordinate lacked these attributes.

According to Hersey and Blanchard (1982), and Hersey, Zigarmi, and Zigarmi (1987), depending on the level of maturity, the leader employed more directive or more supportive behavior. As can be seen in Figure 3, the theory identifies the four leadership patterns or styles deemed appropriate for the four situations of maturity, suggesting that as the group

becomes more experienced, more willing and able to take responsibility for the tasks, the style of

leadership behaviors changes from an emphasis on directing to the delegation of responsibility.

Figure 3: The four basic leadership styles. From "Situational Leadership: Different Strokes for Different Folks," by K. Blanchard, D. Zigarmi and P. Zigarmi, 1987, Principal, 66, (4), p.13

High Supportive Low directive Behavior (Supporting) S3	High Directive High Supportive Behavior (Coaching) S2
Low Supportive Low Directive Behavior (Delegating) S4	High Directive Low Supportive Behavior (Directing) S1

It is a dynamic model of leadership in which the role of the leader is to "provide the necessary leader behavior while

simultaneously helping the group mature and assume more of the leadership itself" (Hoy &

Miskel, 1991, p. 294).

A theory of leadership that focuses on specific relationships between leader and

subordinates is the vertical dyad linkage (VDL) theory, also called the leader exchange (LMX)

theory. In this theory, the leader develops distinct relationships with different groups by means of

the differential treatment of the groups. Postulated by this theory is a dyadic relationship between

leader and subordinates which results in a polarization of groups into in-groups and out-groups (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975).

As the name implies, the in-group has greater access to the inside information, and has the confidence and trust of the leader. There is a mutual respect and the relationship is reciprocal. Contrasting with this relationship, the out-group relationship is based on the formal employment contract. Members perform their specified duties and leader group relationship remains formal (Graen & Uhl-bien, 1995).

In their further investigation into the model, the researchers developed the leadership making model which examined the stages of development of high quality relationships between leader and subordinate. They identified three development stages. The first stage is the stranger stage in which the dyadic relationship is primarily contractual. The relationship is based on the leader carrying out his responsibility and the subordinate doing likewise. The second stage is the acquaintance phase. In this phase, the leader and subordinate have social exchanges, begin exchanging personal information, and develop new ways of sharing job related information. This increase in social exchange leads to a formation of trust and respect. As the mutual trust and respect become concretized, the relationship progresses to the mature phase. In this phase, the effects of the relationship on both leader and follower are reciprocal.

To evaluate the extent to which the leader subordinate relationship is based on mutual trust, respect and obligation, the researchers developed the LMX Questionnaire. This instrument is administered to both leaders and subordinates to measure the level of effectiveness of the relationship. However the instrument did not address the level of performance based on the perceived relationship, which is of major interest to organizations.

As implied in the above statement, the model does not discuss the overall effectiveness of

the groups. One may assume that the out-group is most likely to be marginally effective, adhering to the specific responsibilities devoid of interest and/or enthusiasm. As Yukl (1989) noted, the adoption of this approach to leadership can too easily create resentment in the out-group members, and this has the potential to undermine teamwork and cooperation, negatively impacting on group performance.

Transformational Leadership

The 1980s saw the emergence of a new concept of the leader as being transformational. This theoretical concept was first introduced by Burns in 1978 and markedly extended by Bass. Bass incorporated into the theoretical construct, House's (1977) theory of charismatic leadership and in 1985 presented a formal theory as well as models and measurements of its factors of leadership behavior.

The proposal of this new theory of leadership presented an alternative to the contingency theories that had an emphasis on the transactional nature of leadership. From the perspective of the transformational leadership, there are two types of leaders: the transactional leader and the transformational leader (Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978). The transactional leader "depends on contingent reinforcement, either positive contingent reward (CR) or the more negative active or passive forms of management by exception (MBE-A or MBE-P) (Bass & Avolio, 1994). Thus the transactional leader places an emphasis on "exchanging one thing for another: jobs for votes, or subsidies for campaign funds" (Burns, p. 3). Implied therefore is a continuous transaction between leader and followers. The focus is on rewards, the taking of corrective actions, and other forms of reinforcement in "exchange for satisfactorily carrying out the assignment" (Bass & Avolio, 1994, p. 4).

Transformational leadership, on the other hand, is a process through which leaders:

- Stimulate interest among colleagues and followers to view their work from new perspectives,

- Generate awareness of the mission and vision of the team and organization

- Develop colleagues and followers to higher levels of ability and potential, and

- Motivate colleagues and followers to look beyond their own interests towards those that will benefit the group. (Bass & Avolio, 1994, p. 2)

According to Bass and Avolio, transformational leadership goes beyond transactional leadership and, although transactional leadership has been found to be reasonably effective in motivating others to higher levels of achievement (Bass & Avolio), it does not capture the range of leader-member relationships. Also, it is only effective if the subordinates perceive that the leader has the power to administer the reward or punishment, and if the reward is of intrinsic value or the punishment is feared by the subordinate (Bass, 1985).

The transformational leadership model is built on four main factors: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration. Idealized influence is based on charismatic leadership theory. The leader is a role model and is admired and emulated by the subordinates. As Bass and Avolio further explain, such a leader is willing to "share risks with followers … demonstrates high standards of ethical and moral conduct" and uses "power only when needed" (p.3).

Again, like the charismatic leader, the transformational leader inspires and motivates followers through his or her demonstration of commitment and through effective communication of expectations. Inspirational motivation fosters a shared vision that promotes team spirit, and enthusiasm and optimism about the future.

Intellectual stimulation focuses on the ability of the leader to stimulate followers to be

creative and innovative in their thinking. These leaders are able to provide ideas that enable followers to look at problems from various perspectives, and generate solutions even though these may be in disaccordance with the view of the leader.

Based on the above statement, it is evident that transformational leadership is a departure from that of the charismatic leader. The purely charismatic leader is more likely to brook no opposition to his position insisting on follower compliance. In contrast, the transformational leader is more likely to perceive differences in views as an opportunity to stimulate new ideas and creative problem solutions. Transformational leaders are never satisfied with the status quo. They are always seeking to accentuate creative thinking and encourage new approaches to the resolution of problems.

Similar to the LMX theory of leadership, individualized consideration focuses on the leader's attention to subordinates' needs. However unlike the LMX theory where the leader creates in-groups and out-groups through differential treatment of subordinates (Bass, 1985), the transformational leader pays attention to "each individual's needs by acting as coach and mentor" (Bass & Avolio, 1994). There is an emphasis on the creation of a supportive climate and the delegation of tasks as a means of developing the potential of colleagues and subordinates. The leader promotes a climate of trust where each individual is listened to and treated with respect and dignity.

Bass (1985) developed the first measure of transformational leadership: the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), which was refined by Bass and Avolio (1994). Currently, this is probably the most widely used instrument of leadership effectiveness, and based on the perceptions of subordinates, measures the leader on the four factors of transformational leadership, and three factors of transactional leadership.

In summary, despite the various frameworks utilized in the examination and definitions of leadership, almost all the conceptualizations support two distinct dimensions. These are concern with people and relationships, and concern with production and task achievement.

Table1: The dimensions of leadership

Approach to leadership	System oriented	Person oriented
Halpin & Winer Ohio State University Studies. LBDQ	Initiating structure	Consideration
Blake & Mouton Leadership Grid	Concern for production	Concern for people
University of Michigan Studies	Job centered leader behavior	Employee centered leader behavior
Fiedler Least Preferred Co-worker	Task motivated behavior	Relationship motivated behavior
House & Evans Path-goal	Directive & and achievement oriented behavior	Participative and supportive
Bass & Avolio MLQ	Transactional Leadership	Transformational Leadership

As explained by Hoy and Miskel (1991), using the terminology of Stogdill, these can be described as system-oriented, and person-oriented. Table 1, highlights the dimensions as they are addressed by the various approaches to leadership.

The challenge remains identifying the leadership styles and behaviors that maximize effectiveness- concern for organizational tasks, and efficiency- concern for relationships. As

almost all theorists acknowledge (Bass, 1985; Hersey & Blanchard, 1982; Yukl, 1994) success of the organization depends on both. This challenge is no different for the school as an organization. However, the challenge is even more acute because notwithstanding the various conceptualizations and the political interpretations of effectiveness, using the jargon of industry, the production methods of the school are individualized to the different operators (teachers). Additionally, and adding to the challenge, the final products are varied, individualized, often cannot be measured, and even when beneficial to the individual, sometimes are not what are appreciated by the wider society.

It is in this milieu that the principal as designated leader functions. Yet his or her role is critical to the success of the school. Hoy and Miskel (1991), in citing Warren Bennis encapsulated this sentiment when they argued that the principal is responsible for the effectiveness of the school, provides the anchor and guiding purpose especially in times of change and upheaval, and play a key role in alleviating the public's concern about the schools.

Principal as Leader

There is ample evidence that there is a direct relationship between school climate and student achievement in school (Rutter et al, 1979,), and similarly, there is consensus that the principal is the significant functionary in shaping that learning environment to facilitate student learning (Edmonds, 1979; Sergiovanni 1991). Chubb (1987) explained that principals by articulating clear goals, holding high expectations of students and teachers and exercising strong educational leadership were instrumental in the schools achieving its goals. Heck and Marcoulides (1993) in their study on principal leadership behaviors and school achievement at the secondary level noted the following:

For the secondary level, teacher and principal perceptions about how the principal

governed the school are strongly related to the manner in which the principal is perceived

to organize the school's program (.85) and to the principal's role in building productive

school climate (.35). (p. 23)

They further contended that although climate and instructional organization individually

evidence only a small positive relationship in explaining school achievement, collectively they

do have a significant impact. Therefore they concluded that the principal through "manipulating

a series of variables at the school level"… "can have a positive influence on school

achievement" (p. 25).

Lawson (1988) in drawing an analogy between the school and the world of business

quoted Bennis who explained that leadership was the factor that improved the workforce and

ultimately determined the success or failure of the organization. The principal, he suggested

played a similar role by creating the organizational context, by creating the linkages among

teachers to allow for cohesiveness and improved collaboration (Andrews & Soder, 1987); and by

instituting policies and practices critical to improved effectiveness that were within his or her

control (Mortimore & Sammons 1987). A similar view is emphasized by Moorhead and Griffin

(1998) who, although referring to managers, argue that in relying on "both their formal power

and informal dimensions of influence," principals are able to "guide and direct the efforts of

others toward organizational effectiveness" (p.350).

Azumi and Madhere (1983) examined principal leadership style as a determinant of

principal effectiveness. They found that principals who utilized a system which incorporated rich

feedback and focused on socialization as a way of achieving the organizational goals had greater

teacher conformity and, as a result, higher student achievement than those who relied on

programming and sanctions as methods of control.

Jackson, Logsdon and Taylor (1983) concluded from their research of low-income public schools in the District of Columbia that city schools could be effective for low-income black students. For this study they looked at four schools that were instructionally effective for poor students and four schools of similar student population that were not effective.

Unlike what they observed in the ineffective schools, the principals of the effective schools maintained firm and centralized control with a strong task and academic orientation. Their discipline codes were clear and strictly enforced. They monitored achievement, were supportive of teachers and students and rewarded achievement. Using Edmonds' (1979) analogy, these principals were "tyrannical" in their expectations and demands for "achievement regardless of student background" (p.70). They insisted that all students be brought to a minimum level of mastery of the basic skills.

In a comparative study of effective schools determined by student performance on the Comprehensive Test of Basic Skills and the Test of Cognitive Skills, Edwards (1984) observed that the principals of the schools that did well were more likely to be described by their teachers as being highly visible, and being involved with teachers, students and parents. This finding supported what has been stated in the literature, and suggested that there is a relationship between the instructional leadership of the principal and the effectiveness of the school's academic programs.

Andrews, Soder and Jacobson (1986) investigated the relationship between perceptions of the principal as instructional leader and the average gain in California Achievement Test Scores. They tested the hypothesis that children who attended schools administered by principals who were strong instructional leaders evidenced greater increases in NCE scores for total reading and total mathematics than children who attended schools led by who were not strong

instructional leaders.

They used as their sample students from 33 elementary schools in the Seattle Public Schools System. These schools were placed into three equal groups based on the ratings of principals by teachers in the school. From their analysis, they found that there were significant differences in reading and mathematics between the schools in which the principals received the highest ratings and the other two groups of schools, [F (3, 30) = 4.35, p = .017] for reading, and [F (3, 30) = 3.52, p = .034] for mathematics. Based on these results, they concluded that particularly for schools that catered to the historically low achieving groups of students, teachers' perceptions of the principal as a strong instructional leader were critical to student achievement in reading and mathematics.

Brice (1992) in looking at principals' behaviors and school effectiveness referred to Hallinger and Murphy's (1985) study of principals' instructional behaviors in schools categorized by socio-economic status. Their findings were similar to Edmonds (1979). They found that the principals' instructional behaviors differed depending on the socio-economic status of the school. The principals of effective low SES schools were more directive and forceful in setting high standards for both teachers and students and tended to buffer their schools from the environment. The climate of the schools with high SES was such that they allowed the principals to focus less on instructional issues and more on community relations. Their time was spent mediating and acting as a go-between for parents and teachers, and ensuring as far as possible consensus over the school's mission.

Heck (1992), in citing the correlation among measures of school demographic composition, organization and school effects such as climate and achievement, used multivariate analysis in an effort to control for the effects of these interrelationships in estimating the

influence of the various school processes on achievement.

Unlike most studies on leadership behaviors, he looked at the leadership performances of principals in high performing and low performing schools at both the elementary and secondary levels. His specific interest were the principal's instructional leadership interactions that would best serve as a predictor of school achievement level. Conducting discriminant analyses, and using 70% accuracy as the criterion for acceptable group membership prediction, he was able to predict with 90% accuracy the classification level of the school. His conclusions suggested that while there existed contextual differences in principal leadership based on school level, these "were less important than the differences associated with the performance level of the school" (p. 27). The assumption derived from this finding was that principal instructional leadership behavior was predictive of school outcomes.

Leitner (1994), contrasting with most of the findings from other studies found no statistically significant relationship between the principal's role in instructional management and student academic achievement. Using Hallinger's (1983) framework of the principal's role as his operational definition (i.e. defining the school's mission; managing the instructional program; and promoting a positive school climate) he found that while there was no relationship between principals' scores on the Instructional Management Rating Scales (IMRS) and student achievement, that the dimension "Promoting a Positive School Climate" was significantly related to student achievement in language, $p < .05$ and approached significance in reading, $p < .08$" (p. 229).

This finding confirmed what many researchers had concluded: that principals, being "one step removed from the direct instructional process" (Andrews in an interview with Brandt 1987 p.16) had an indirect effect on student outcomes (Bossert, 1988; Heck, Larsen, &

Marcoulides, 1990). As Heck (1993) explained, the principals' actions influenced student outcomes mainly through " activities that coordinate, monitor, and enable teachers to work more effectively with students" (p. 160).

Heck had investigated the relationship among contextual variables, in-school processes that focused on principal and teacher interactions, and student outcomes in secondary schools in Singapore. His results indicated that despite the effects of context variables such as school size, type of school, and teacher experience on student outcomes, these variables "did not appear to influence the perceptions of the principal's strategic interactions with teachers in the areas of governing the school, building school culture/ climate, and instructional organization" (p. 161), areas that impacted directly on student achievement. This finding verified Andrews' contention that, "teachers' perceptions of their work environment is so important, the power of the principal's leadership so pervasive, that it has a measurable" though indirect "impact on student learning" (p. 16).

Cheng, (1994) using data from the large-scale research project "Education Quality in Hong Kong Primary Schools" investigated the principal's leadership as a critical factor for school performance. For this study, he integrated Bolman and Deal's (1991) four leadership orientations in organizations: the structural leadership, human resource leadership, political leadership, and symbolic leadership and Sergiovanni's (1984) five component leadership model of the principal: the technical leadership, human leadership, educational leadership, symbolic leadership and cultural leadership. From the above, he proposed the following five dimensions of the principal's leadership:

1. Structural leadership which referred to the extent to which the principal thinks clearly and logically, developed clear goals and policies, and holds people

accountable for results.

2. Human leadership: the extent to which the principal is supportive and fosters participation

3. Political leadership: the extent to which the principal is persuasive and effective in building alliances and support and solving conflicts.

4. Symbolic leadership: the extent to which the principal is inspirational and charismatic

5. Educational leadership: the extent to which the principal encourages professional development and teaching improvement. (p. 300)

Cheng (1994) measured principal leadership on the five dimensions. In addition to this, he measured teachers' individual performance, teachers' group level performance, organizational factors, and student performance which comprised self-concept, attitudes to peers, attitudes to the school, attitudes to teachers, attitudes to learning, feeling of homework overload, and intention to dropout. The results of the correlations between leadership and the school performance variables showed that there was a significant positive relationship between all dimensions of leadership and teacher morale, level of professionalism, disengagement, and feeling of unnecessary overload. Also, all the dimensions of leadership were positively related to students' attitude towards their school. Significant about this study was the focus on student performance that was not based on a test scores.

Citing the limitations of using test scores as a measure of student outcomes, Leithwood and Jantzi, (1999) also investigated the relationship between transformational leadership and student outcomes not based on test scores, but on student engagement with school.
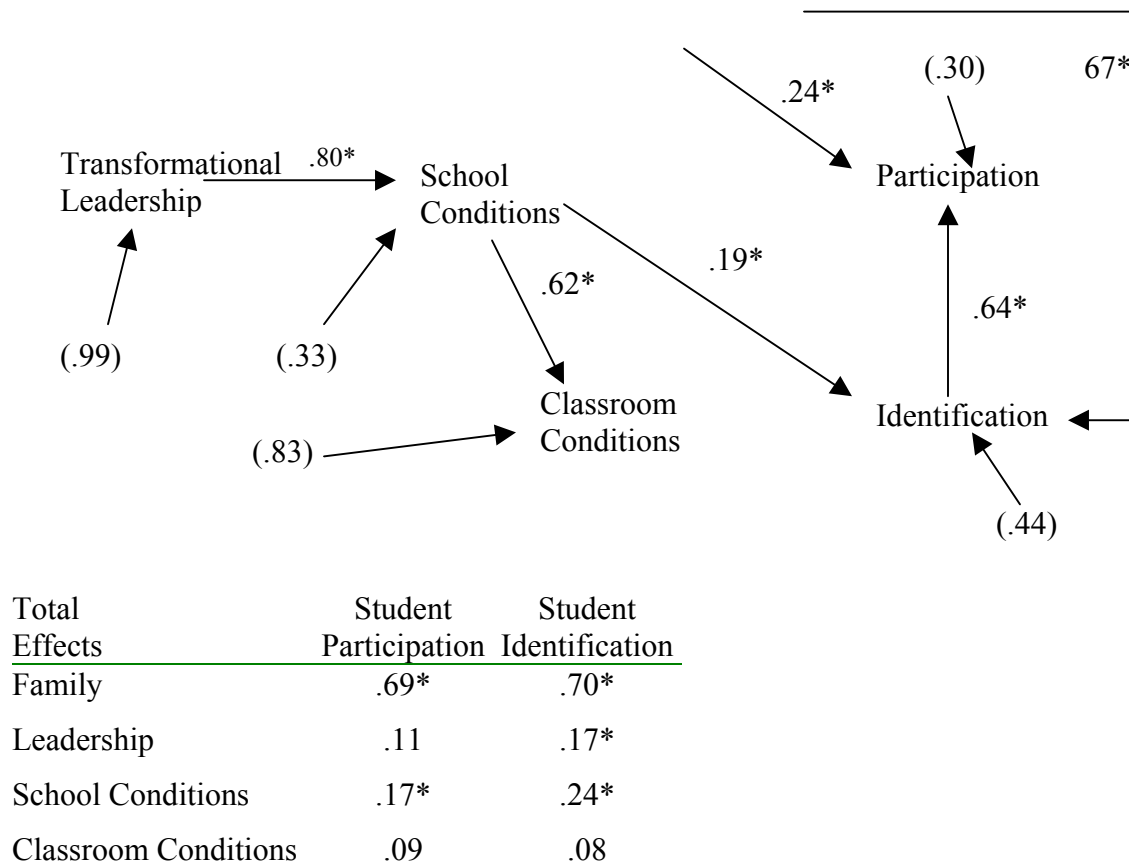
Family Educational Culture

Figure 4: Effects of transformational leadership on student engagement.

From "Transformational School Leadership Effects: A replication" by K. Leithwood and D.

Jantzi, 1999, School Effectiveness and School Improvement, 10, p.466.

In their explication for the selection of the outcome variables, they stated that the "extent

of students' participation both inside and outside the school" and "the extent to which students

identify with school and feel they belong" (p. 457) is a "reliable predictor of variation in such

student outcomes as social studies, math, and language achievement" (p. 458).

They assessed the direct and indirect effects of transformational leadership on student engagement in school (Figure 4). The results of the analysis indicated that transformational leadership had a weak but statistically significant effect on student identification. However, the direct effect on school conditions was (.80), and this in turn had a strong direct effect of (.62) on classroom conditions. Even though the direct effects of transformational leadership on classroom conditions were negative and weak, combined with school conditions, they explained 17% of the variation in classroom conditions.

From the above review of the principal as leader, it is clear that he or she plays a critical, even if often fuzzy, role in overall school effectiveness. Unlike other organizations, there is no clear path to improved production and efficiency. The complexity and dynamism of the school, and the competing demands on the principal and the continually changing contexts of schooling often defy any one best type of leadership. However, these same factors of complexity and changing situations make the leadership the critical stabilizing factor in the school.

<div align="center">The Instructional Leader</div>

Coming out of the effective schools research was the notion of the principal as instructional leader (See Hallinger et al. Figure 5). As conceptualized by Andrews and Soder (1987), the instructional leader takes as his or her primary responsibility the instructional program of the school, and therefore focuses on creating the organizational climate that facilitates the successful implementation of the program.

Deal and Peterson (1993) emphasize the importance of the school climate. They use the preferred label school culture which, as they explicate, captures the "character of a school and reflects deeper themes and patterns of core values, common beliefs, and regular traditions that

develop over time" (p.89). In this vein, the authors in citing Kouzes and Posner, Sashkin, and Schein, argue that coordination and school transformation do not "occur through job descriptions, contractual obligations or administration oversight" but "through shared beliefs and unstated ways of acting" (p. 90).

This is especially true at the elementary school level where the smaller size and numbers more readily allow for the implementation of policies. However, it is just as critical at the junior high and senior high schools, the focus of the instructional leader remains the creation of a culture that facilitates the implementation and effective operation of the instructional program.

According to Andrews and Soder (1987), the instructional leader addresses four main areas: being a resource provider, being an instructional resource, being a good communicator, and being a visible presence in the school. These findings are similar to those postulated by Heck (1992) whose measure of the specific job related interactions between the principal and teachers fell into three domains: governance, developing school climate, and organizing and monitoring the school's instructional program.

Stronge, (1993) broadened the concept of instructional leadership. In finding the current conceptualization limiting, he combined both the instructional and managerial responsibilities of the principal. As he stated, "management and instructional leadership need not be construed as competing interests for the principal. Rather, a unifying view of the principal's primary role as one of educational leadership" (p. 5). Thus his reference to the principal's role is that of educational leader. This incorporating of the principal's managerial responsibilities into his conceptualization of leadership, although novel at the time, finds support in the later literature (Bass & Avolio, 1994; Leithwood and Jantzi, 1999).

Sergiovanni in an interview with Brandt (1992) asserted that the view of the

principal as instructional leader is misguided. The teachers are the legitimate instructional leaders. He further suggested that the idea of the principal conducting formal evaluations of teachers by observing their teaching is a waste of time. As he explained;

"It is not important what a person does the two times that you're in the class observing him or her. When you're not there teachers teach in ways that make sense to them according to norms. And norms are connected not to the managerial side of life but to the cultural side" (p.49).

Implied by this statement is the importance of the school culture, already discussed, and consequently the essentiality of addressing this dimension of the school in any attempt at effecting change.

Acknowledging that Sergiovanni's view is interesting and does suggest an alternative view of leadership, to date, although this may be changing, the most prominent form of leadership that has been associated with school effectiveness has been instructional leadership.

Hallinger (1992) in a review of the evolving role of American principals has suggested that whereas the pressure of the various reform efforts may have reshaped professional roles at the margins, "the larger body of professional practice is largely unaffected" (p. 35). Despite this view of the imperviousness of the American principal, a view that is encapsulated by the French cliché, "the more things change, the more they stay the same," the above review confirms the influence of the principals' actions on the effectiveness outcomes of the schools, and more importantly has recorded the changing conceptualization of the principalship reflected
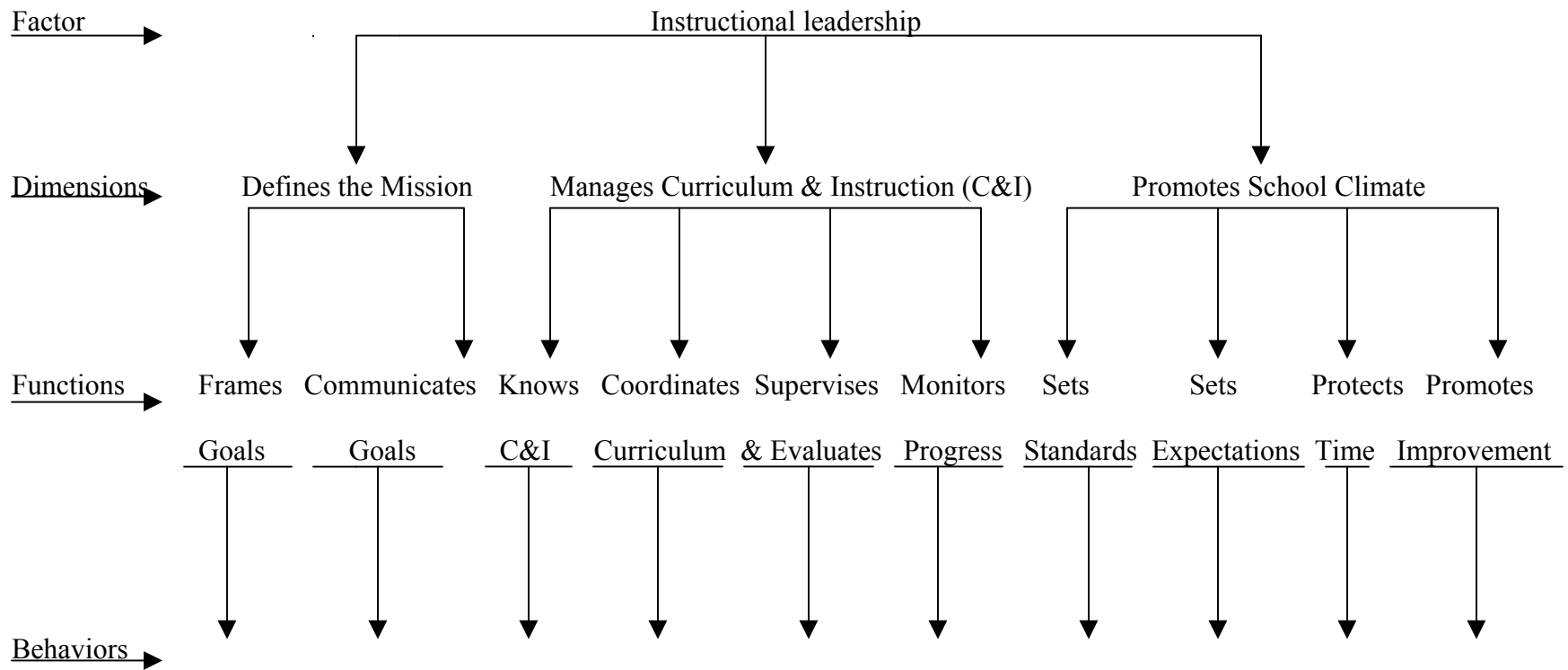
Factor → Instructional leadership

Dimensions → Defines the Mission   Manages Curriculum & Instruction (C&I)   Promotes School Climate

Functions →

Frames	Communicates	Knows	Coordinates	Supervises	Monitors	Sets	Sets	Protects	Promotes
Goals	Goals	C&I	Curriculum	& Evaluates	Progress	Standards	Expectations	Time	Improvement

Behaviors →

Figure 5: The Model of Instructional Leadership
From "Identifying the Specific Practices, Behaviors for Principals," by P. Hallinger, J. Murphy, M. Weil, R. P. Mesa, and &
A. Mitman, 1983, NASSP Bulletin, 67, p. 86)

through the approaches to school leadership adopted by principals.

Although emphasis on the principal's role may have changed, an investigation into the responsibilities of the principal reveals that roles have become more complex, extensive, and demanding (Copeland, 2001). Therefore, the progression from instructional to managerial to transformational (Hallinger, 1992) leader has not resulted in any excising of former responsibilities. The opposite is true. There has been a multiplication of the responsibilities and increased accountability, with a simultaneous demand for schools to work in new ways. Satisfying these often conflicting demands require new approaches to administration and a new philosophy of leadership.

This view has been effectively articulated by Dinham, Cairney, Craigie, and Wilson, (1995). They reflected on the demands of the society on what the schools should be delivering. They acknowledged that such demands have made the already complex and ambiguous role of the principal even more complex, blurring it into that of change agent, financial planner, and entrepreneur.

This role far exceeds that of instructional leader. Moreover, as stated by Silins (1994, b), instructional leadership while suitable for addressing first order changes such as curriculum innovation, is inadequate for the kind of systemic changes demanded by the school reform movement. Therefore while instructional leadership is still important, the paradigmatic shift to a transformational type of leadership may be necessary for the successful functioning of the modern school.

The Transformational Leader

The late 1980s and early 1990s saw the transference of the theory of transformational leadership, which was already established in the corporate world, into the educational setting. This work was initiated by Leithwood and his colleagues from the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education (OISE) who, in reviewing the dimensions of transformational leadership as postulated by Burns (1978) and Bass (1985), developed dimensions relevant and specific to the educational setting. Transformational leadership in the school setting was defined along six leadership and four management dimensions. The leadership dimensions are:

- Building school vision and goals: inspiring teachers by developing, identifying, and communicating the vision for the school

- Providing intellectual stimulation: challenging teachers to "professionalize themselves in such a manner that the organization is learning as a whole" (Geijsel, Sleegers, & van den Berg, p. 309).

- Providing individualized support: showing concern and respect for the personal needs of the teacher and giving encouragement and support.

- Providing an appropriate role model: working along and sharing the risks with the teachers, accepting responsibilities, and being ethical and moral in his or her behavior.

- Demonstrating high performance and expectations: communicating through his or her actions that goal attainment is possible

- Developing structures to foster participation: creating an atmosphere of trust in which teachers feel free to collaborate and share ideas all with the purpose of

improving the effectiveness of the school.

The four management dimensions are; staffing, instructional support, monitoring school activities, and community focus (Leithwood & Jantzi, 1999). These managerial practices, according to Leithwood and Jantzi, are "fundamental to organizational stability" (p.454).

Silins (1994a), with reference to what has been occurring in Australia, has stated that like Canada, Britain, and the United States, there have been comprehensive changes to the organization of schooling. As she stated, the devolution of authority, the democratization of the decision making process, the demand for increased school accountability, and central reorganization have "placed new demands on principals to provide leadership within a complex system that provides self determination within a centrally determined framework" (p. 1). Implied therefore is the necessity of the principal embracing a new role and more importantly, reconceptualizing his or her view of leadership.

The demand for the kind of educational changes and improvement has occasioned the demand for a new kind of principal: one who transcends the concept of the principal as instructional leader. Even more so, the principal in redefining the principalship, has to view the position not from a managerial perspective, but from the perspective of transforming the school through the ability to "drive teachers to the higher levels of concern and motivation that are needed such kind of educational improvement" (Geijsel, Sleegers, & van den Berg, 1999).

Yammarino, (1994) cites Kotter and Zaleznik in distinguishing between managing and leading. He explains, managers cope with "the complexity of the organization"

(school) by means of "planning and budgeting, organizing and staffing." (p.28). There is a focus on process, therefore their concern is with "how decisions get made and how communication flows. Contrasting with that emphasis, the transformational leader copes with complexity through "setting a direction (vision), aligning people to that direction (communicating the vision), and motivating and inspiring people (moving people toward the vision)" (p.28). Thus, the transformational leader is more concerned with the "what" and less with the "how," more with stimulating ideas and inspiring others to work hard and be innovative and creative. As Silins (1994 b) stated, the "essential function of "leadership" … is to produce appropriate change whereas management is used to maintain the operations of the current organization"(p. 275). Leadership emphasis therefore is more on doing what is right instead of doing it right.

The above review does present a strong case for transformational leadership. The problem arises in creating the transformational leader. Bolman and Deal (1994) posits the question "can a great manager become also a great leader?" In answer to the question, they cite Conger who stated that while there are managers with the capacity to become great leaders, there are also managers who do not have the capacity. But also, there are "leaders who have no capacity to be managers, but are great leaders" (p. 79).

The observations of Conger also holds true for principals, many of whom may be excellent managers and transactional leaders, and whose training at the time of becoming principal was appropriate, and maybe still is, for effectively carrying out the functions of the job. Any move towards transformational leadership may require not only a review of current practice, but also a retraining of principals in the new approach.

How Similar Is Leadership

This review provides but a synopsis of the literature on leadership. The various lenses through which the characteristics and practices have been observed have resulted in a number of conceptualizations based on the theoretical framework of the researcher. These various definitions, while enriching the field, have not lent clarity to the meaning of leadership. Even within the various categories of leadership there is a lack of explicit descriptions and consequently a greater reliance on implied meanings than on any definitive interpretations.

As stated previously, the literature has discussed various approaches to leadership. There is tinstructional leadership, transformational leadership and moral leadership that posits that values and ethics are central to all leadership and administrative practice (Leithwood, Jantzi, & Steinbach (1999). Also, there is the managerial or transactional approach to leadership, and participative leadership, which asserts that decision making should be more of a shared responsibility and based on greater levels of consultation involving teachers and other stakeholders (Yukl, 1994). Finally, emerging from the literature is the contingency or situational approach to leadership, which focuses on leadership styles and responses to specific situations or conditions (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982).

As Leithwood et al. (1999) explained, although the leadership categories may be viewed as separate and distinct, they are by no means pure types and in many ways overlap with each other. Leithwood et al. summarized the similarities and differences among the models based on four dimensions which they argue are key to a conception of leadership as the exercise of influence. These dimensions are: who exerts influence, what is the nature of the influence, the purpose of the influence, and the outcome of the

influence (See Table 2).

Summary

The above review of the literature looked at the various conceptualizations of leadership with a view of arriving at a greater understanding of the construct and garnering an appreciation of the complexity of the nature of leadership. It is because of this complexity and the resulting imprecision in the interpretation of what constitutes effective leadership that the synthesis of the researches into the influence of leadership on the effectiveness of the school draws its credibility.

Table 2: The role of influence in alternative leadership models

Approaches to school leadership	Who exerts influence	Sources of influence	Purposes for influence	Outcomes of influence
Instructional	• Typically those in formal leadership roles, especially principals	• Expert knowledge • Typically positional power	• Enhance the effectiveness of teachers' classroom practices	• Increased student growth
Transformational	• Typically those in formal leadership roles, but not restricted to such persons	• Inspire higher levels of commitment and capacity among organization members	• Greater effort and productivity • Develop more skilled practice	• Increased capacity of organization to continuously improve
Moral	• Those in formal administrative roles	• Use of a system of moral value to guide organization decision making	• Increase sensitivity to the rightness of decisions • Increase participation in decisions	• Morally justified courses of action • Democratic schools

Approaches to school leadership	Who exerts influence	Sources of influence	Purposes of influence	Outcomes of influence
Participative	• The group (including non-administrative organization members)	• Interpersonal communication	• Increase participation in decision	• Increased capacity of organization to respond productively to internal and external demands for change • More democratic organization
Managerial	• Those in formal administrative roles	• Positional power • Policies and procedures	• Ensure efficient completion of specified tasks by organization members	• Achieve formal goals of the organization
Contingent	• Typically those in formal leadership roles	• Matching leader behaviour to organization context • Expert problem-solving processes	• Better meet needs of organization members • More effective responses to organization's challenges	• Achieve formal goals of the organization • Increased capacity of organization to respond productively to internal and external demands for change

From "Changing Leadership for Changing Times," by K. Leithwood, D. Jantzi, and R. Steinbach, 1999, p. 18