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LEADERSHIP STYLES OF SECONDARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS AS PERCEIVED BY SELECTED PRINCIPALS AND TEACHERS IN BANKOK, THAILAND

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LEADERSHIP STYLES OF SECONDARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS AS PERCEIVED BY SELECTED PRINCIPALS AND TEACHERS IN BANKOK, THAILAND

A DISSERTATION
SUBMITTED TO THE GRADUATE FACULTY
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the
degree of
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

BY
CHURCKSUWAN DHANASOBHON
Norman, Oklahoma
1982

LEADERSHIP STYLES OF SECONDARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS
AS PERCEIVED BY SELECTED PRINCIPALS
AND TEACHERS IN BANGKOK, THAILAND

APPROVED BY

DISSERTATION COMMITTEE

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The writer is deeply indebted to the numerous individuals who have significantly contributed to the development and completion of this study.

Deep and sincere appreciation is expressed to Dr. Gerald Kidd who served as the chairman of the Doctoral Committee, for his advice, assistance, and understanding.

Sincere appreciation is also extended to members of the Doctoral Committee, Dr. Robert F. Biben, Dr. Charles Butler, Dr. Charlyce R. King, and Dr. Dorothy Higginbotham, for their assistance in the study.

A special thanks is directed to Dr. Somthawin Dhanasobhon who served as the data-coordinator in Thailand, to Dr. Joseph W. Keitty for his permission to use LEAD instruments in this study.

Finally, the writer wishes to express his deeply appreciation to his wife, Kantima Dhanasobhon, for her unlimited supply of patience and understanding. Her support, encouragement, and love made it possible for him to complete this study.

DEDICATIONS

To my wife Kantima Dhanasobhon

My parents, Mr. Chamlong and Mrs. Saipin Dhanasobhon

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LEADERSHIP STYLES OF SECONDARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS AS PERCEIVED BY SELECTED PRINCIPALS AND TEACHERS IN BANGKOK, THAILAND

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

In the last century there has been a growing concern with the educational system and in particular, its effectiveness on the secondary level. Only since World War II, however, has research been done into one of the most essential parts of that system, the leadership of the secondary school principal. In more recent years analysis of this leadership has begun to focus on leadership styles, especially in the ways that it is perceived by principals themselves and their subordinates.

One of the most important responsibilities of the secondary school principal is that of providing leadership which will result in the most favorable environment for learning and the most effective curriculum and instruction designed to meet the educational needs of students. This leadership must be provided in such a way that it involves the faculty, community and also students in those activities which are basic to the program and to instructional improvement.

For example, according to Faunce, "The secondary school principal is an important public administrator. Without his

leadership and help, little significant improvement can occur in the school."[1] Likewise, Trump, noting the role of the principal, says:

> Principals of the future will assume enhanced educational leadership. They will not act on the fringe of education; They will be men of stature in the profession of education. The leadership of principals will be essential in making the changes that will be necessary.[2]

While there is agreement that leadership is necessary, there is less consensus on what kind of leadership there should be. Countless studies have been made to attempt to identify effective leadership. Dubrin indicates, for example, that leadership studies have ranged from examination of the differences between democratic and autocratic leadership styles, and between authoritarian and equalitarian, to studies of leader traits. The studies have evolved from a simple analysis of traits that characterize effective leaders to more complicated studies of task and human relations oriented behaviors, and to a far more complex view in which effective leadership behavior is seen as dependent on a number of situational factors.[3]

Assuming that leadership deals with human beings and human behavior, Boles and Davenport have used the school

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[1]Roland C. Faunce, Secondary School Administration (New York: Harper & Brother, 1955), p. 11.

[2]J. Lloyd Trump and Dorsey Baynum, Focus on Change (Chicago: Rand McNally & Company, 1961), pp. 66-67.

[3]Andrew J. Dubrin, Fundamentals of Organizational Behavior (New York: Pergamon Press Inc., 1974).

organization as a living social system to show that a principal's leadership style is related to his behavior.[1] To illustrate why studying leadership behavior is important, Lipham and Hoeh state that:

> Analysis of leadership behavior permits examination not only of what one does when he or she is leading but also of what types of personal or situational variables bear a positive relationship to or correlation with the different types of leader behavior. Thus the principal may gain insight. . . regarding types or styles of leader behavior. . .[2]

This approach to the behavior of the principal allows a clearer understanding of leadership styles. This understanding should help principals deal with the variables of leadership in more positive ways. The analysis of leadership styles will be one of the central concerns of this study.

Purpose of the Study

If the principal is an essential figure of authority in the American secondary school system, his role is perhaps more important to the centralized school system of Thailand. Wudthipreecha and Ray have illustrated, for example, the important positions of Thai secondary school principals in the following statement:

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[1]Harold W. Boles and James A. Davenport, Introduction to Educational Leadership (New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1975).

[2]James M. Lipham and James A. Hoeh, Jr., The Principalship: Foundations and Functions (New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1974), p. 187.

> In Thailand, the principalship is one of the key administrative positions in schools. By virtue of the responsibility, the secondary school principal is one of the most influential persons in determining the educational quality of an individual school. To a great extent, the major responsibility for the development of educational experiences for the students in each school is vested in the secondary school principal.[1]

The intent of this study was to define and analyze leadership styles of principals in the secondary schools of Bangkok as perceived by principals and teachers.

The principal's ability to define adequately his own leadership style depends not only upon his understanding of leadership styles but also upon an understanding of his own leader behavior. Effective principals depend, to some extent, upon self-perceptions and teachers' perceptions of the styles performed by principals. Therefore, measurement of the agreement or congruence between self-perceptions and subordinate's perceptions of leadership styles may provide both principals and teachers with insight into and understanding of leadership style.

For this study the definitions of leadership styles by Hersey and Blanchard were used. These styles are defined below:

> Style 1. High task/low relationship leader behavior is referred to as "telling." This style is characterized by one way communication in which the leader defines the roles of followers and tells them what, how and where to do various tasks.

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[1]S. Wudthipreecha and G.H. Ray, Educational Planning at the Local Level (Bangkok, Thailand: Ministry of Education, 1968).

Style 2. High task/high relationship behavior is referred to as "selling." With this style, most of the direction is still provided by the leader. He or she also attempts through two-way communication and socio-emotional support to get the follower(s) psychologically to buy into decisions that have to be made.

Style 3. High relationship/low task behavior is called "participating." With this style, the leader and follower(s) now share in decision-making through two-way communication and much facilitating behavior from the leader since the follower(s) have the ability and knowledge to do the task.

Style 4. Low relationship/low task behavior is labeled "delegating." The style involves letting follower(s) "run their own show" through delegation and general supervision since the follower(s) are high in maturity, being both willing and able to take responsibility for directing their own behavior.[1]

In order to assist individuals in determining their tendency to rely on these various leader styles, Hersey and Blanchard developed the Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability (LEAD) instrument. It provides insights into areas for self development, and is designed to involve participants in learning experiences.

To date, however, no study has used the LEAD instrument in Bangkok, Thailand. Therefore, the basic purposes of this study were:

1. To study the leadership styles of secondary school principals in Bangkok, Thailand, as defined by the Lead Effectiveness and Adaptability (LEAD) instrument of Hersey and Blanchard.

2. To collect selected demographic data about secondary school principals and teachers in Bangkok, Thailand.

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[1]Paul Hersey and Kenneth Blanchard, Management of Organizational Behavior: Utilizing Human Resources, 3rd. Edition (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall Inc., 1977), pp. 169-170.

3. And to determine whether sex, educational background, or years of experience of teachers or principals had an effect on perceptions of the leadership styles of secondary school principals.

The investigator hopes that this study will be a useful tool for the Minister of Education in Thailand as well as for principals and teachers themselves. This study should help the principals gain insight into the strengths and weaknesses of their own leadership styles.

Statement of Problem

The problem of this study was to determine and to analyze the leadership styles of secondary school principals as perceived by selected principals and teachers in Bangkok, Thailand. More specifically it was to determine answers to the following questions:

1. What are the leadership styles of secondary school principals as perceived by the principals themselves?

2. What are the leadership styles of secondary school principals as perceived by the secondary school teachers?

3. Is there agreement in perceptions between principals and teachers concerning the leadership styles of secondary school principals?

4. Does sex, educational background, or years of experience of teachers or principals have an effect on the perceptions of leadership styles used by secondary school principals?

These basic questions have been developed into seven major hypotheses which have then been tested in the study of secondary schools in Bangkok using the LEAD instrument.

Hypotheses Tested

$H_0$1: There is no statistically significant difference in the perceptions of principals and the perceptions of teachers on leadership styles of secondary school principals.

$H_0$2: There is no statistically significant difference in the perceptions of male principals and female principals on leadership styles of secondary school principals.

$H_0$3: There is no statistically significant difference in the perceptions of male teachers and female teachers on leadership styles of secondary school principals.

$H_0$4: There is no statistically significant difference in the perceptions of principals on leadership styles based on the number of years served in their current profession.

$H_0$5: There is no statistically significant difference in the perceptions of teachers on principal's leadership styles based on the number of years served in their current profession.

$H_0$6: There is no statistically significant difference in the perceptions of the leadership styles among principals who have bachelor's degrees or certificates and those who have master's degrees.

$H_0$7: There is no statistically significant difference in the perceptions of the leadership styles of secondary school principals among teachers who have bachelor's degrees or

certificates and those who have master's degrees.

Definitions of Terms

1. Leadership: Hersey and Blanchard defined leadership as "the process of influencing the activities of an individual or a group in efforts toward goal achievement in a given situation."[1]

2. Leadership Styles: This term refers to the styles of leaders identified in the Situational Leadership Theory of Hersey and Blanchard.

Style 1: High task/low relationship behavior was referred to as "telling."
Style 2: High task/high relationship behavior was referred to as "selling."
Style 3: High relationship/low task behavior was referred to as "participating."
Style 4: Low relationship/low task behavior was referred to as "delegating."

3. Secondary School: The academic school encompassing any combination of grades of Maw Saw 1-5 (grades 8-12).

4. Secondary School Principal: The director operating a secondary school organization with a Maw Saw 1-5 (grades 8-12).

5. Secondary School Teacher: The person employed for the purpose of directing the learning experience of students in the secondary school (Maw Saw 1-5 or grades 8-12).

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[1]Ibid., p. 89.

[2]Ibid., pp. 169-170.

Limitations of the Study

The investigation was limited to those principals and teachers in the participating secondary schools of Bangkok. A random sampling was made from only those secondary schools having an enrollment of at least 1,000 pupils and having a principal who had served that school for at least two years.

Theoretical Framework

The framework of this study was based upon the Situational Leadership Theory developed by Hersey and Blanchard at the Center for Leadership Studies at Ohio University. The authors state that the recognition of task and relationship as two critical dimensions of a leader's behavior has been an important part of leadership study over the last several decades. These same two dimensions have in the past been labeled various things ranging from "autocratic" and "democratic" to "employee-oriented" and "production-oriented."[1]

By spending time actually observing the behavior of leaders in a wide variety of situations, Hersey and Blanchard found that they could classify most of the activities of leaders into two distinct and different behavioral categories or dimensions. They named these two dimensions "task behavior" and "relationship behavior." Definitions of these two dimensions are as follows:

---

[1]Ibid., pp. 83-108.

> Task behavior: The extent to which leaders are likely to organize and define the roles of the members of their group (followers); to explain what activities each is to do and when, where, and how tasks are to be accomplished; characterized by endeavoring to establish well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and ways of getting the job accomplished.
>
> Relationship behavior: The extent to which leaders are likely to maintain personal relationships between themselves and members of their group (followers) by opening up channels of communication, providing socio-emotional support, "psychological strokes," and facilitating behaviors.[2]

In their leadership studies, Hersey and Blanchard found that leadership styles tend to vary considerably. They state that:

> The behavior of some leaders was characterized mainly by directing activities for their followers in terms of task accomplishment, while others concentrated on providing socio-emotional support in terms of personal relationships between themselves and their followers. Still other leaders had styles characterized by both task and relationship behavior. There were even some leaders whose behavior tended to provide little task or relationship for their followers. No dominant style appeared. Instead, various combinations were evident.[2]

As described earlier, Hersey and Blanchard labeled the four basic leadership styles as: High task/low relationship; High task/high relationship; High relationship/low task; and Low relationship/low task. (See illustration in Figure 1)

Hersey and Blanchard note that "since research in the past several decades has clearly supported the contention that there is no best style of leadership, any of the four basic styles may be effective or ineffective depending on the situation."[3] They state further that:

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[1]Ibid., pp. 103-104.

[2]Ibid.,

[3]Ibid., pp. 104-107.

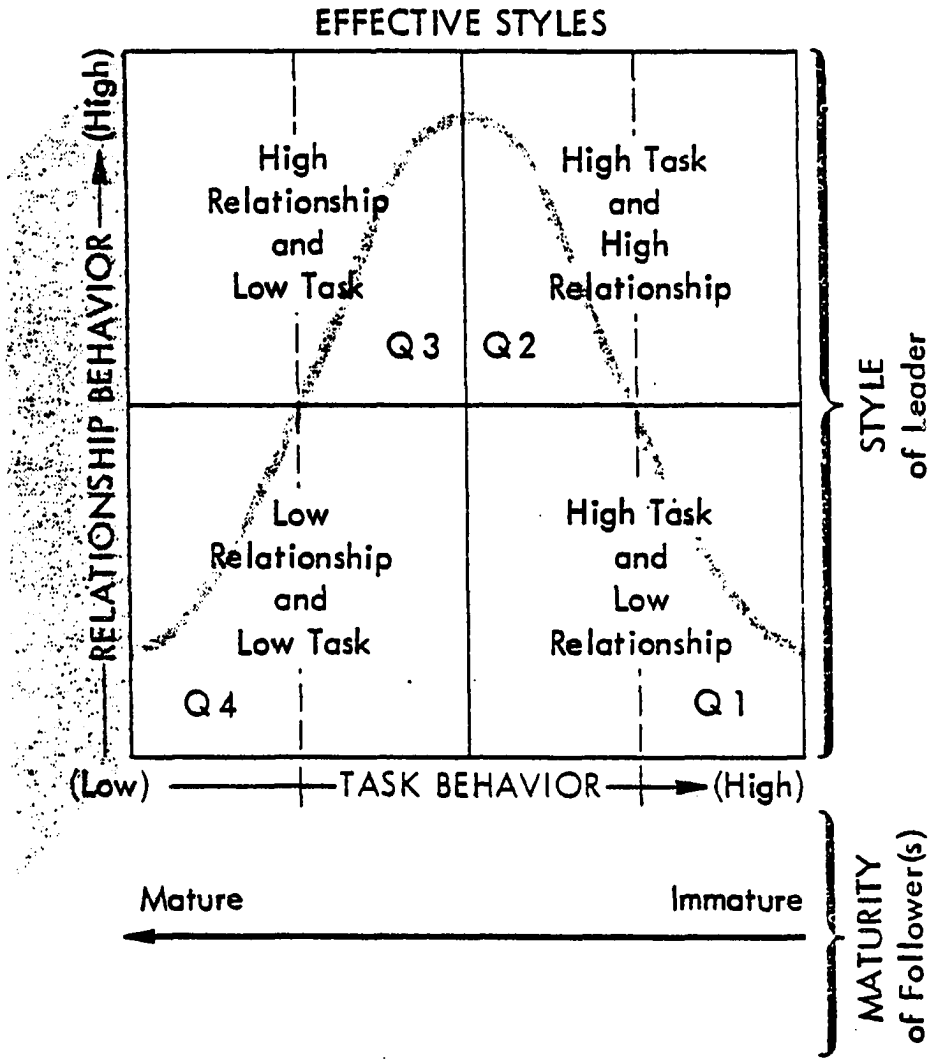

Figure 1. Situational Leadership Theory

Source: Paul Hersey and Kenneth Blanchard, Management of Organizational Behavior, p. 164.

> Situational Leadership Theory is based upon an interplay among (1) the amount of direction (task behavior) a leader gives, (2) the amount of socio-emotional support (relationship behavior) a leader provides, and (3) the "maturity" level the followers exhibit on a specific task, function, or objective that the leader is attempting to accomplish through the individual or group.[1]

Maturity is defined in Situational Leadership Theory as "the capacity to set high but attainable goals (achievement-motivation), willingness and ability to take responsibility, and education and/or experience of an individual or a group."[2] The maturity levels of subordinates (teachers) in Bangkok were not, however, determined or measured in this study. Instead the emphasis of this investigation centered on the four leadership styles.

Organization of the Study

The study will be divided into five chapters. Chapter I is the introduction, which includes the purpose of the study, statement of the problem, hypotheses, definition of terms, limitations, and the theoretical framework. A review of related literature is contained in Chapter II. Chapter III provides the details of the design and procedures of the study. The data are analyzed in Chapter IV. A summary and the conclusions and recommendations are contained in Chapter V.

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[1]Ibid., p. 160.

[2]Ibid., p. 161.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

In the last thirty years studies have been focused more and more on the principal as a crucial figure in the educational system. A rationale for studying principals was offered by Tye: ". . .the principal is the critical person in the education process. . .our schools need principals who define themselves and who are defined by others as leaders."[1] Because the principal is the acknowledged leader of the school, the concern then becomes that of the quality of leadership exhibited. Ovard stated: "Effective leadership is related directly to the method of operation of the principal."[2]

A further rationale for a study of leadership styles of secondary school principals can be found in the following statement of Getzels, Lipham, and Campbell:

> The school principal has the primary responsibility for school operation and proceeding to accomplish the task, function, or objective through the teachers' effort. In order to succeed, he or she must have the competence to determine and utilize an appropriate leadership style in each situation to achieve educational goals.[3]

---

[1]Kenneth A. Tye, "The Time They are a Changing for School Principal," Thrust for Education Leadership 7 (October 1977), pp. 4-5.

[2]Glen F. Ovard, Administration of the Changing Secondary School (New York: McMillan, 1966), p. 48.

[3]Jacob W. Getzels, James M. Lipham, and Ronald F. Campbell, Educational Administration as a Social Process (New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1968).

This chapter contains a review of literature related to the study of leadership styles. The content was organized under the following headings:

1. The review of literature related to the concept of leadership style, and
2. The review of literature related to the study of secondary school principals in Thailand.

THE REVIEW OF LITERATURE RELATED TO THE CONCEPT OF LEADERSHIP STYLE

The term "leadership" has been defined in different ways by different researchers. According to Hersey and Blanchard, "Leadership is the process of influencing the activities of an individual or a group in efforts toward goal achievement in a given situation. . . it follows that the leadership process is a function of the leader, the follower, and other situational variables - $L = f(l,f,s)$."[1]

This definition of leadership is comparable to definitions used by other researchers. Jones, Salisbury, and Spencer, for example, defined leadership as "a process or act of influencing the movements of an organized group in its effort toward goal setting and goal achievement,"[2] A further definition is

---

[1]Hersey and Blanchard, Management of Organizational Behavior, p. 84.

[2]James C. Jones, C. Jackson Salisbury, and Ralph L. Spencer, Secondary School Administration (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1969), p. 127.

given by Lipham who connects leadership to the origination of new methods for group activity when he defines it as "the initiation of a new structure or procedure for accomplishing an organization's goals and objectives or for changing an organization's goals and objectives."[1] Stoops and Johnson also equated leadership to the individual's reaction in a given situation when they stated that: "Leadership is a quality of group activity, it is the contribution that an individual makes in a group situation."[2] Obviously, all these definitions focus on the relationship between followers, and the needs of a given situation.

Given the emphasis of these definitions, in order to build the foundation for the study of leadership styles of secondary school principals, it is necessary first to consider two areas of study--leadership theory and leadership style.

Over the years many leadership theories have been proposed by writers and researchers. However, serious attempts to study and analyze leadership did not develop until the last three decades.

In an attempt to classify the early theories of leadership which emerged prior to World War II, Doll suggests that: "The theorists viewed leadership as: (1) a possession of personal traits or characteristics common only to leaders, (2) a

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[1]James M. Lipham, "Leadership and Administration," Behavior Science and Educational Administration, in Sixty Sixth Yearbook of the National Society for the study of Education (Chicago, 1964), p. 122.

[2]Emery Stoops and Russell E. Johnson, Elementary School Administration, (St. Louis: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1967), p. 29.

function of a situation in which the leader operated, and (3) a function of the group to which the leader belongs."[1] Porter Lawler, and Hackman described this same period (prior to World War II) as being dominated by the "trait" versus "situation" controversy.[2]

The earliest theory of leadership is generally called the "trait theory." The theorists in trait theory believed that some people are more effective leaders than others simply by possessing special characteristics that non-leaders do not possess or do not possess to the same extent. One of these early theorists was Stodgill who indicated that "only the traits of intelligence, scholarship, dependability and responsibility, social participation, and socio-economic status consistently differentiate leaders from non-leaders."[3] In summarizing a review of the major trait studies Stodgill concluded:

> A person does not become a leader by virtue of the possession of some combination of traits, but the pattern of personal characteristics of the leader must bear some relevant relationship to the characteristics, activities, and goals of the followers. . . . The personality theorists tended to regard leadership as a one-way influence effect. While recognizing that the leader may possess qualities differentiating him from the followers, they generally failed to acknowledge the reciprocal and interactive characteristics of the leadership situation.[4]

---

[1]Ronald C. Doll, Leadership to Improve Schools, (Worthington, Ohio: Charles A. Jones Publishing Company, 1972), pp. 15-16.

[2]Lyman W. Porter, Edward E. Lawler, III, and J. Richard Hackman, Behavior in Organization, (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1975), p. 422.

[3]Ralph M. Stodgill, "Personal Factors Associated with Leadership: A Survey of the Literature," The Journal of Psychology, Vol. 25, 1948, pp. 35-71.

[4]Ibid.

Many theorists, however, have pointed out the inadequacies of the personal traits approach to studying leadership. Two of these theorists, Hersey and Blanchard, indicated that the concentration of the trait theory on personal leadership qualities, such as intelligence, friendliness, or physical energy, which were felt to be transferable from one situation to another, called to question the value of training individuals to assume leadership positions.[1] Since it seems illogical to deny the value of such training, theorists have begun to define leadership in other ways.

A number of theorists have instead emphasized the situational or leader behavior approach to leadership style in opposition to the trait approach. In just this kind of approach Hersey and Blanchard developed a theoretical base of situational behavior as it relates to leadership style. This base turned the attention away from personal traits:

> . . .the focus in the situational approach to leadership is on observed behavior, not on any hypothetical inborn or acquired ability or potential for leadership. The emphasis is on the behavior of leaders and their group members (followers) and various situations. With this emphasis upon behavior and environment, more encouragement is given to the possibility of training individuals in adapting styles of leader behavior to varying situations. Therefore it is believed that most people can increase their effectiveness in leadership roles through education, training, and development. From observations of the frequency (or infrequency) of certain leader behavior in numerous types of situations, theoretical models can be developed to help leaders make some predictions about the most appropriate leader behavior for their present situation.[2]

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[1]Hersey and Blanchard, Management of Organizational Behavior, p. 88.

[2]Ibid., p. 89.

The importance of this theory is that it allows for more successful training through observation of the most appropriate leadership roles.

Situational thinking also underlies the theory of leadership effectiveness developed by Fred E. Fiedler. He indicated that the situational approach suggests that:

> . . .Leadership is an influence process where the ease or difficulty of exerting influence is a function of the favorableness of the group task situation for the leader. Although it has been recognized that the favorableness of each group task situation may depend on different variables, the three most commonly acknowledged determinants stated in their order of importance are leader-member relations, task structure, and position power.[1]

These two types of behavior, task and relationship, are also central to the concept of leadership style in the Situational Leadership Theory. Hersey and Blanchard defined them as:

> Task behavior: The extent to which leaders are likely to organize and define the roles of the members of their group (followers); to explain what activities each is to do and when, where, and how tasks are to be accomplished; characterized by endeavoring to establish well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and ways of getting the job accomplished.
>
> Relationship behavior: The extent to which leaders are likely to maintain personal relationships between themselves and members of their group (followers) by opening up channels of communication, providing socio-emotional support, "psychological strokes," and facilitating behaviors.[2]

In order to study leadership style of secondary school

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[1]Fred E. Fiedler. A Theory of Leadership Effectiveness (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1967), cited by Andrew J. Dubrin, Fundamentals of Organizational Behavior, (New York: Pergamon Press Inc., 1974), p. 17.

[2]Hersey and Blanchard, Management of Organizational Behavior, pp. 103-104.

principals, it is also necessary to review the other roots of these important concepts. Two of the most significant administrative theories later developed into the concepts of task and relationship behavior. One of these classical works is that of scientific management done by Frederick W. Taylor. Taylor states that "the basic concept of scientific management was to increase output by means of increased efficiency."[1] The essential points of scientific management include the following:

1. A large Daily Task Each man in the establishment, high or low, should have a clearly defined daily task laid out before him. The carefully circumscribed task should require a full day's effort to complete.

2. Standard Conditions The workman should be given standard conditions and appliances to accomplish the task with certainty.

3. High pay for Success High pay should be tied to successful completion.

4. Loss in Case of Failure Failure should be personally costly.

5. Expertise in Large Organizations As organizations become increasingly sophisticated, tasks should be made so difficult as to be accomplished only by a first-rate man.[2]

Obviously these points are strictly task behavior oriented.

The other important theory that is central to the study of leadership style is "human relations." Because the managerial emphasis stressed the needs of the organization without consideration of the needs of individuals, the human-relations emphasis emerged in the field of administration. Administration under the human-relations emphasis focused on interpersonal

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[1]Frederick W. Taylor, The Principles of Scientific Management (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1947), pp. 63-64.

[2]Ibid.

relationships between admistrators and workers, rather than simply focusing on the relationship between the worker and his task.

Two pioneers in the human relations movement were Mary P. Follet and Elton Mayo. Follet viewed administration as the combination of both psychological and sociological aspects. The central problem of any organization, regardless of its size, according to Follet, is to develop and maintain good human relationships.[1] While Follet was the first recognized exponent of the human relations emphasis, Elton Mayo extended this concept in his Hawthorne plant studies at the Western Electric Company. Drawing conclusions from these studies, Mayo stated that:

> Human Collaboration in work, in primitive and developed societies, has always depended for its perpetuation upon the evolution of a non-logical social code which regulates the relations between persons and their attitudes to one another. Insistence upon a merely economic logic of production--especially if the logic is frequently changed--interferes with the development of such a code and consequently gives rise in the group to a sense of human defeat. This human defeat results in the formation of a social code at a lower level and in opposition to the economic logic.[2]

This study is an early precursor of the relationship behavior studies.

It can be seen from this review that these two classical theorists of administration emphasized entirely different concepts of organization. Scientific management stressed the efficient and rational use of human and material resources to achieve the goals desired by the organization, while human relations emphasized

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[1]Mary P. Follet, Creative Experience (London: Longmans and Green, Publishers, 1924), p. 300.

[2]Elton Mayo, The Human Problems of an Industrial Civilization (New York: McMillan Publishing Co., 1933), pp. 120-121.

the needs and relationships of the human being within the organization.

Relying on these two basic dimensions of leadership theorists, the emphasis on human relation and the emphasis on organization, several researchers have attempted to classify leadership into different styles. Although a variety of terms have been used to describe leadership styles, the meanings and emphases of these styles have centered around these two dimensions.

All leaders demonstrate their styles by the ways in which they do what they do. Differing styles naturally appear in every organization which has many leaders. Depending on their traits, some leaders may behave as dictators. Other leaders watch closely the situations in which they work, work with the group, try to encourage group cehesiveness, and try to move the group toward success. Still others may be less well organized which in turn causes their subordinates to be less satisfied working under them.

Lippitt and White studied these authoritarian, democratic, and laissez-faire leadership styles and their effects upon group behavior.[1] They described briefly these different degrees or types of leader control as the following:

Authoritarian

1. All determination of policy by the leader.
2. Techniques and activity steps dictated by the authority, one at a time, so that future steps were always uncertain to a larger degree.

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[1]R. Lippitt and R.K. White, "The Social Climate of Children's Group," Child Behavior and Development, eds. R.G. Baker, J.S. Kourin, and H.F. Wright (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1943), p. 487.

3. The leader usually dictated the particular work task and work companion of each member.
4. The dominator tended to be "personal" in his praise and criticism of the work of each member; remained aloof from active group participation except when demonstrating.

Democratic

1. All policies a matter of group discussion and decision, encouraged and assisted by the leader.
2. Activity perspective gained during discussion period. General steps to group goal sketched, and, where technical advice was needed, the leader suggested two or more alternative procedures from which choice could be made.
3. The members were free to work with whomever they chose, and the division of tasks was left up to the group.
4. The leader was "objective" or "fact minded" in his praise and criticism and tried to be a regular group member in spirit without doing too much of the work.

Laissez-faire

1. Complete freedom for group or individual decision, with a minimum of leader participation.
2. Various materials supplied by the leader, who made it clear that he would supply information when asked. He took no other part in work discussion.
3. Complete nonparticipation of the leader.
4. Infrequent spontaneous comments on member activities unless questioned and no attempt to appraise or regulate the course of events.

Some leaders see their jobs as making individuals responsible for functions. They believe that those individuals have to be coerced, directed, and threatened. Some leaders, however, believe that it is possible to have a structure more flexible than that of bureaucracy. This kind of leadership style seems to relate to that leadership theory developed by McGregor who described a theory of human behavior based on certain basic assumptions about human nature and human motivation. He called those assumptions Theory X and Theory Y. The concepts of Theory X and Theory Y are defined as follows:

Theory X The leaders who use this theory believe that a human being has an inherent dislike of work and will avoid it if he or she can. Because of this human characteristic

> of dislike of work, most people must be coerced, controlled, directed, and threatened with punishment to get them to put forth adequate effort toward the achievement of organizational objectives. Furthermore, the average human being prefers to be directed, wishes to avoid responsibility, has relatively little ambition, and wants security above all.
>
> Theory Y The leaders who use this theory believe that a human being will not be truly free until they view their work as a highly desirable recreational activity. They see their job as making groups responsible for objectives. They believe that if the members of a group see a goal, they will think together to find ways to accomplish that goal and, left to their own devices, will set about deciding how to proceed. Close supervision may be unnecessary in such groups.[1]

Some leaders might try to plan a formal, carefully controlled, and coordinated organization, according to a strict master plan, with little or no regard for their people. Still others might be looking at the human relations aspects of planning a program, creating two-way communication and supporting individual needs in the organization.

These kinds of leadership styles can also be applied to the work of Barnard.[2] He emphasized that the organization is a system of consciously coordinated personal activities or forces. He also made the essential distinction between the concepts of effectiveness and efficiency. Effectiveness was defined as system-oriented, having to do with the achievement of cooperative and organizational goals; efficiency, on the other hand, was defined as person-oriented, having to do with

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[1]Douglas McGragor, Leadership and Motivation (Boston: MIT Press, 1966).

[2]Chester I. Barnard, The Function of the Executive (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1938).

the feelings of satisfaction an individual derives from membership in the organization.

Some of the leaders observed were mainly interested in an "institution," in the roles to be performed by persons. The people in the organization are expected to be responsible and obligated to their duty and functions, according to the organizational goals. Other leaders were interested in the individual's needs, and in what was to be done about them. They were person-centered in their style. These leadership styles seem to relate to those discussed in the study of Getzels and Guba. Their study formulated the social-process model of behavior which identified three leadership styles as "nomethetic," "idiographic," and "transactional." These three leadership styles are defined as follows:

> Nomethetic leadership style emphasizes the normative dimension of behavior and accordingly the requirements of the institution, the role, and the expectations, rather than the requirement of the individual, the personality, and the need-dispositions.
>
> Idiographic leadership style stresses the personal dimension of behavior and accordingly the requirements of the individual, the personality, and the need-dispositions rather than the requirements of the institution, the role, and the expectations.
>
> Transactional leadership style calls attention to the need for moving toward another style under another set of circumstances.[1]

Many later theorists have gone on from the early definition to attempt to measure the dimensions of leadership. One such attempt was presented by the Ohio State University Research

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[1] Jacob W. Getzels, and Egon G. Guba, "Social Behavior and the Administrative Process," School Review, 65 (Winter, 1957), pp. 423-441.

Board. The Ohio State University Research studies developed a tool which identified two dimensions of leadership behavior, referred to as "initiating structure" and "consideration." Halpin further narrowed the description of these two dimensions of leadership behavior as follows:

> Initiating Structure refers to the leader's behavior in delineating the relationship between himself and members of the work group and in endeavoring to establish methods of procedure. On the other hand, Consideration refers to behavior indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect, and warmth in the relationship between the leader and the members of the staff.[1]

In approaching the topic of leadership these Ohio State leadership studies took the approach of examining and measuring performance of behavior rather than human traits.

Similar to the Ohio State leadership studies was that of Blake and Mouton which conceptualized leadership in terms of a "Managerial Grid" which presented dimensions for "concern for production" and "concern for people" in terms of the behavior leaders exhibit.[2] Leadership styles in the Managerial Grid are then classified according to one's rating on these two key dimensions of leadership behavior. (A diagram of Managerial Grid leadership styles is shown in Figure 2) Blake and Mouton have suggested that all leaders in formal organizations can be classified according to consistent behavior patterns exhibited, somewhere on a vertical (concern for people) and horizontal

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[1]Andrew W. Halpin, The Leadership Behavior of School Superintendents (Chicago: Midwest Administration Center, The University of Chicago, 1959), p.4.

[2]Robert Blake and Jane Mouton, The Managerial Grid (Houston, Texas: Gulf Publishing, 1964).

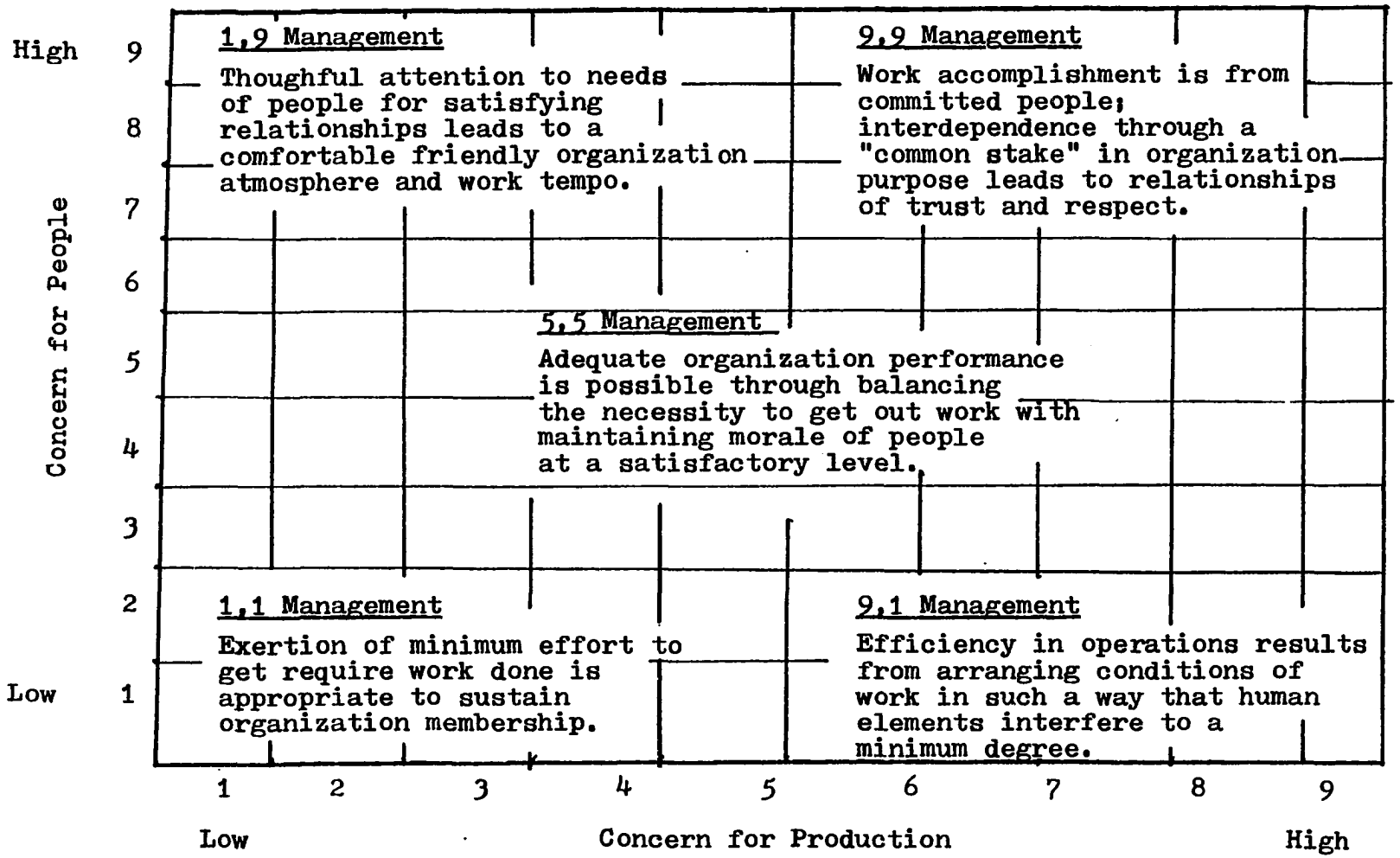

Figure 2. The Managerial Grid

Source: Robert Blake and Jane Mouton, The Managerial Grid, p. 10.

(concern for production) continuum. The five basic management positions, 1,1; 1,9; 9,1; 9,9; and 5,5, demonstrate the relationship between different leadership behavior.

Blake and Mouton have used this managerial grid in research in connection with organizational development activities.[1] They characterize the style of the leader whose responses are lowest for each concern as "1,1." The style that represents the highest concern for both people and production is "9,9." Therefore, if a leader's behavior indicates the highest concern for people and the lowest concern for production, his or her style is "1,9." The leader who shows the highest concern for production but the lowest concern for people has a style designated "9,1." It is the "5,5" managerial style that shows equal concern for people and production.[2]

Unlike Blake and Mouton, Fiedler has argued that either task-oriented or relationship-oriented behavior could be effective, depending on situational variables. This led to a theory called the Contingency Leadership Theory. According to this theory:

> 1. Task-oriented leaders perform best in group situations that are either very favorable or very unfavorable to the leader.
> 2. Relationship-oriented leaders perform best in group situations that are intermediate in favorableness, which is defined by the degree to which the situation enables the leader to exert his influence over the group.[3]

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[1]Robert Blake and Jane S. Mouton, Building a Dynamic Corporation Through Grid Organizational Development (Reading, Massachusettes: Addison-Wesley, 1969).

[2]Blake and Mouton, The Managerial Grid.

[3]Fred E. Fiedler, A Theory of Leadership Effectiveness (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1967), p. 14.

From the preceding review of leadership styles, it is apparent that most researchers generally agree that leadership styles fall into two basic categories: (1) organizational-centered; and (2) person-centered. This agreement regarding leadership styles also corresponds to the general agreement among researchers regarding leadership theories. That is, there are basically two primary concerns: (1) the concern for the achievement of the organizational goals; and (2) the concern for the needs and relationships of the human being within that organization. The next step after these definitions and categorizations of leadership styles is to attempt to measure the leadership styles.

THE REVIEW OF LITERATURE RELATED TO THE STUDY OF SECONDARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS IN THAILAND

It is the purpose of this study to determine and analyze the leadership styles of secondary school principals as perceived by selected principals and teachers in Bangkok. It is hoped that this study might help the principals themselves gain insight into the strengths as well as the weaknesses of their own leadership styles. To provide a general basis for this study, a review of literature related to the study of secondary school principals in Thailand is necessary.

There have been few research studies which have been conducted in Thailand related to the secondary school principal.

Among those is one by Dheerakul who conducted a study of the leadership behavior of secondary school principals in Bangkok.[1] This study concentrated on sex, age, experience, and qualifications. The major findings of Dheerakul's study were as follows:

1. The majority of secondary school principals in Bangkok were male, between 35-44 years of age, and had bachelor's degrees from the institutions in Thailand.
2. The male principals were perceived by their teachers to exhibit significantly stronger leadership behavior in the consideration dimension than female principals. The female principals were perceived by their teachers as being stronger in initiating structure.
3. The educational preparation played an important role in the principal's leadership behavior. It appeared that principals who had Master's degrees possessed better leadership behavior than those who had less education.
4. The number of years experience in administrative positions had influence upon the leader behavior effectiveness of the principal.

In summary, Dheerakul's study shows that sex, educational background and experience are the factors that affect the leadership behavior of the principal.

Another study by Pinsompong[2] indicated that most principals have a good understanding of administrative principles and concepts. Sex and age did not influence the principals'

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[1]Vichit Dheerakul, "Leadership Behavior of the Secondary School Principals in Bangkok, Thailand as Related to Sex, Age, Experience and Qualification," (Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Bringham Young University, Provo, Utah , 1972).

[2]Grisudha Pinsompong, "A Study of Bangkok Municipal School Principals' Understanding of Administrative Principals and Concepts," (Unpublished Master's Thesis, Chulalongkorn University, Bangkok, Thailand, 1967).

understanding of administrative principles and concepts, but rather years of teaching experience and the professional level attained were the influencing factors.

A later study focused on the perceptions of employees. Deoisres studied the organizational climate of schools and the principals' leadership behavior as perceived by secondary school teachers in Bangkok.[1] In the section on the principals' leadership behavior, it was concluded that:

1. All of the teachers in this study perceived their principal as an effective leader. High scores on both the Initiating Structure and Consideration[2] subtests were found in this study.

2. There were no significant differences concerning teachers' perceptions of their principal's Initiating Structure when they were grouped according to: (a) sex of the teacher, (b) years of teaching experience, and (c) teachers' educational level. However, there were significant differences concerning teachers' perceptions of their principal's Initiating Structure in terms of sex of the principal. Those teachers who worked for a female principal perceived their principal's Initiating Structure higher than those who worked for a male principal.

3. There were no significant differences concerning teachers' perceptions of their principal's Consideration when they were grouped according to: (a) sex of the teacher, (b) educational level, and (c) years of teaching experience. However, the significant differences were found that the teachers with eleven years or more of teaching experience perceived the principal's Consideration higher than did the teachers with ten years or less of teaching experience.

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[1]Sumeth Deoisres, "A Study of the School Organizational Climate and the Principal's Leadership Behavior as perceived by Secondary School Teachers in Bangkok, Thailand," (Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, North Texas State University, 1979).

[2]See p. 24 for definition of these terms.

From the study of Deoisres, the teachers' sex and educational level had no effect on the perception of their principal's leadership behavior. However, the years of teaching experience did make some difference in their perception of the principal's leadership behavior in terms of Consideration.

Another study focused simply on the sex differences. Sitabhahul studied the leadership behavior and administrative performance of principals on the basis of sex differences.[1] The findings of this study were:

1. There is no difference in the leader behavior of male and female principals as perceived by teachers.
2. There is no difference in the leader behavior of male and female principals as perceived by teachers, when the teachers are grouped according to their educational level.
3. There is no difference in the leader behavior of male and female principals as perceived by teachers, when the teachers are grouped according to their sex.
4. There is no difference in the leader behavior of male and female principals as perceived by teachers, when the teachers are grouped according to number of years of teaching experience.
5. There is no difference in the leader behavior of male and female principals as perceived by teachers, when the teachers are grouped according to the type of school.
6. There is no difference in the leader behavior of male and female principals as perceived by teachers, when the teachers are grouped according to the size of school.

From the study of Sitabhahul, sex, teaching experience, educational level, type of school, or size of school appears

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[1]Chaunchom Sitabhahul, "A Comparison between the Administrative Effectiveness of Male and Female Principals as Perceived by Teachers of Secondary School in Bangkok, Thailand," (Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, University of Oklahoma, 1979).

to have had no effect on teacher perceptions of leader behavior of male and female principals, unlike that of Deoisres which found a difference in Initiating Structure related to the sex of the principal.

The performance of principals may also be directly connected to educational training. Rodprasert compared the administrative performance between secondary school principals trained in educational administration and those not trained in educational administration.[1] This study concluded:

1. Secondary school principals trained in educational administration did not differ significantly in their administrative performance from secondary school principals not trained in educational administration.
2. Junior secondary school principals did not differ significantly in their administrative performance from junior-senior secondary school principals.
3. Highly effective junior secondary school principals did not differ significantly in their administrative performance from highly effective junior-senior secondary school principals.
4. Less effective junior secondary school principals did not differ significantly in administrative performance from less effective junior-senior secondary school principals.
5. Secondary school principals with more administrative and teaching experience did not differ significantly from secondary school principals with less administrative and teaching experience.

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[1]Prachoom Rodprasert, "The Relationship of Academic Training and Educational Experience to the Administrative Effectiveness of Secondary School Principals as perceived by Teachers in Educational Region I, Thailand," (Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Oklahoma State University, 1976), pp. 179-180.

6. Younger secondary school principals received significantly higher ratings in administrative performance than did the older secondary school principals.

7. Male secondary school principals did not differ significantly in their administrative performance from female secondary school principals.

The study by Rodprasert shows that sex, educational level, or teaching experience had no effect on the performance of secondary school principals in contrast to the conclusion of Dheerakul's study which found that these variables did, in fact, make a difference in performance.

Even with these studies there have not been any studies investigating the leadership styles of the Thai principals. Thus far, the present study is the first attempt to determine and analyze the leadership styles of secondary school principals.

From the review of these studies, several background characteristics, such as sex, educational background, and the number of years of experience in the current profession were found to be important variables in studying the principalship in Thailand. Obviously, the previous studies have not been conclusive since in many details they have shown conflicting findings on variables such as sex and experience.

The present study attempted to determine whether these background characteristics did in fact have an effect on the principalship and tried to arrive at more conclusive findings. The significant difference between the present study and those studies reviewed earlier is that this one was the first to use the LEAD instrument to investigate perceptions of leadership styles among secondary school principals in Bangkok, as those

perceptions are held by selected principals and teachers. Moreover, the recently developed LEAD instrument has been found to be empirically sound. It provides ways, too, of determining maturity levels of subordinates. Hopefully, the present findings of leadership styles may be correlated with maturity levels of teachers in further studies. The combination of a demographic and LEAD instruments was used to examine the variables of sex, educational background, and years of experience and to draw more precise conclusions about their effects on perceptions of leadership styles.

Summary

From the review of earlier studies and theories, it was found that most researchers' general agreement regarding the leadership styles corresponds with the general agreement among researchers regarding the leadership theories. That is, there are basically two primary concerns: (1) the concern for the achievement of the organizational goals; and (2) the concern for the needs and relationships of the human being within the organization. Thus, the present study attempts to apply these two dimensions to analyze the place of task behavior and relationship behavior in the leadership styles of Thai secondary school principals.

In the review of literature on secondary school principals in Thailand the significant variables or background characteristics needed for use in the study were established. From this review it was found that sex, years of experience in the current profession and educational background were the

variables that showed the most conflicting results in earlier studies. Therefore, these variables were chosen to be used to analyze the leadership styles of secondary school principals for the present study in an attempt to arrive at more consistent conclusions by using a combination of a demographic and LEAD instruments for the study.

The methodology for this study which includes design, instrumentation, reliability, procedure for translation and verification, population and sample, procedure for collection of the data, and procedure for analysis of data is presented in Chapter III.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Design of the Study

In analyzing the leadership styles of Thai secondary school principals, three areas were first selected for study. The leadership styles of secondary school principals were investigated to determine whether sex, educational background, or years of experience with the profession had an effect on perceptions of leadership styles of secondary school principals. In preparation for this analysis of the principals, the study also collected selected demographic data in order to provide various background profiles of Thai principals and teachers.

The Instrument

Four instruments were used to collect data for the study.

The LEAD Self questionnaire developed by Hersey and Blanchard (1977) was used to define the leadership styles of secondary school principals. It provided feedback on the principals's own leadership behavior and measured self-

perception of leadership style.

The LEAD Other questionnaire also developed by Hersey and Blanchard (1977) was used to define leadership styles of secondary school principals. It provided feedback on leadership styles from the perspective of the secondary school teachers.

The LEAD direction instrument developed by Hersey and Blanchard was used for self-scoring and analyzing the LEAD Self or LEAD Other forms and to analyze their scores in relation to the Situation Leadership concept.

The Demographic data questionnaire was developed and translated into the Thai version by this investigator and was used to describe the various backgrounds of the respondents.

The LEAD Self and LEAD Other questionnaires consisted of twelve situations in which the respondents were asked to select from the four alternative types of leader behavior that style which they felt would be most representative of their behavior or their leaders' behavior in that type of situation.[1]

The LEAD direction instrument consists of two columns which are described as follows:

1. Leadership Style and Style Range of secondary school principals are determined in Column I.

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[1]Hersey and Blanchard, Management of Organizational Behavior, p. 229.

2. Style Adaptability of secondary school principals is determined in Column II.

Leadership Style is based on the definition already provided in Chapter I. According to the theory of Situational Leadership, Hersey and Blanchard defined Style Range and Style Adaptability as follows:

> Style Range is the extent to which leaders are able to vary their leadership style. Leaders differ in their ability to vary their style to different situations. Some leaders seem to be limited to one basic style. As a result, rigid leaders tend to be effective only in situations where their styles are compatible with the environment. Other leaders are able to modify their behavior to fit any of the four basic styles; still others can utilize two or three styles. Flexible leaders have the potential to be effective in a number of situations.[1]
>
> Style Adaptability is the degree to which the respondents are able to vary their style appropriately to the demands of a given situation according to Situation Leadership Theory. This gives them feedback in terms of the overall probability of success in all twelve of the situations to which they are asked to respond.[2]

The Demographic portion of the questionnaire provided data about:

1. Sex,
2. Age,
3. Position,
4. Years of experience in current profession,
5. Educational background,
6. Size of school population, and
7. Income.

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[1]Ibid., p. 234.

[2]Ibid., p. 235.

Copies of the questionnaire in Thai and English are included in Appendix A.

Reliability

The reliability of the LEAD instrument has been checked by previous studies. John F. Green has done extensive research on the reliability and validity of the LEAD instrument. He reported that:

> The LEAD instrument was standardized on the responses of 264 managers constituting a North American sample. The managers ranged in age from 21 to 64; 30% were at the entry level of management; 55% were middle managers; and 14% were at the high level of management.
>
> The twelve item validity for the adaptability score ranged from .11 to .52, and 10 of the 12 coefficients (83%) were .25 or higher. Eleven coefficients were significant beyond the .01 level and one was significant at the .05 level. Each response option met the operationally defined criterion less than 80% with respect to selection frequency.
>
> The stability of the LEAD instrument was moderately strong. In two administrations across a six-week interval, 75% of the managers maintained their dominant style and 71% maintained their alternate style. The contingency coefficients were both .71 and each was significant ($p < .01$). The correlation for the adaptability scores was .69 ($p < .01$). The LEAD instrument scores remained relatively stable across time, and the user may rely upon the results as consistent measures.
>
> The logical validity of the scale was clearly established. Face validity was based upon a review of the items, and content validity emanated from the procedures employed to create the original set of items.
>
> Several empirical validity studies were conducted. As hypothesized, correlations with the demographic/organismic variables of sex, age, years of experience, degree and management level were generally low, indicating the relative independence of the scales with respect to these variables. Satisfactory results were reported supporting the four style dimensions of the scale using a modified approach to factor structure. In 46 of the 48 item options (96%), the expected relationship was found. In another study, a significant ($p < .01$) correlation of .67 was found between the adaptability scores of the managers and the independent ratings of their

supervisors. Based upon these findings, the LEAD instrument is deemed to be an empirically sound instrument.[1] These conclusions justify the dependence on the LEAD instrument as a reliable test.

Procedure for Translation and Verification

Permission to use, adapt and translate the LEAD instruments into the Thai version was granted by the Center for Leadership Studies, Escondido, California (Appendix B). These instruments were translated into the Thai version by professors of English in the College Education at Karsetsart University in Bangkok, Thailand. The translation of the LEAD instruments was submitted to a selected panel of experts in Thailand for validation. The panel consisted of three professors, two principals, two Thai teachers who teach English and two who teach Thai.

Because the LEAD instruments were designed to be used in American organizational systems, it was at this point necessary to determine their appropriateness for Thai school systems. The LEAD instruments were studied very carefully by both the jury panel and this researcher. It was decided after consideration that the LEAD instruments were appropriate for those schools as well.

Obviously, it is difficult to translate one language into another and retain the same meanings. However, in order

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[1] John F. Green, "Lead-Self Manual," Draft Report University of Bridgeport, Milford, Connecticut, December 1979 (Revised January 1980).

to minimize the distortion of this study which might be caused by the language translation, a panel was used to assure the following:

1. The validity and reliability of translation.
2. How well the respondents could understand the questions.
3. That the Thai version was accurate and covered all meanings in the English version.

The panel was asked to considered whether or not each situation was relevant and clearly stated. Each member of the panel was asked to respond by circling a "1" if the situation was relevant and a "2" if the situation was irrelevant. The acceptance of each situation was based on a consensus of a majority of the panel. From the results of the panel of experts, every situation in the translation of LEAD instrument was relevant and clearly stated. The panel decided that the translated instrument offered an accurate representation of the test and was not likely to distort either the instrument or the findings.

Population and Sample

The population of this study consisted of the principals and teachers of secondary schools in Bangkok, Thailand. There were more than 100 secondary schools within the city. A random sample of thirty-four of these schools constituted the sample of the study.

The sampling procedures used were as follows:

1. The basic type of probability sampling used in this study is the type recommended by Downie and Heath. Thirty-four schools were selected by a random selection in which each school

in the population had an equal chance of being drawn into the sample.[1] (See, the list of selected schools in Appendix C).

2. Ten teachers then were randomly selected from each of the thirty-four secondary schools. The principal from each of the thirty-four secondary schools was also included in the selection.

3. Of the thirty-four secondary school principals and three hundred and fourty secondary school teachers participating in the study, 88 percent of the principals and 86.6 percent of the teachers returned the questionnaires.

Procedures for Collection of the Data

The following data collection procedures were used in the study:

1. Permission to use, adapt, and translate the LEAD instruments into the Thai language version was granted by the Center for Leadership Studies, Escondido, California, (Appendix B).

2. Permission to use human subjects in the study was granted by the Institutional Review Board of the University of Oklahoma, (Appendix B)

3. The instruments were translated into the Thai language.

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[1]N. Downie and R.W. Heath, Basic Statistic Method (New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, 1975).

4. Copies of the questionnaires were then distributed to the selected principals and teachers.

5. The raw data were tabulated at the Computer Testing Center at the University of Oklahoma.

Procedure for Analysis of Data

The data were processed and analyzed after 86.63 percent or 324 of the questionnaires were received. The data were compiled and coded in order to test the stated hypotheses.

The statistical treatment of the data included calculation of the means and percentages for demographic data. The data from LEAD Self and LEAD Other questionnaires were analyzed using the LEAD direction instrument. The calculation of the means and percentages were then employed to describe the LEAD instrument data. For testing the study's seven hypotheses, the chi-square test was utilized.

For statistical treatment, the .05 level of confidence was selected as the criterion of significance for accepting or rejecting each hypothesis. If a statistically significant value at the .05 level was obtained, the .01 level of confidence was computed for comparison purposes.

After the data were compiled and the hypotheses were tested, results were analyzed. The results and the analysis will be presented in Chapter IV.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS, AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

Introduction

Contained within this chapter are the presentation, analysis, and interpretation of the data and the results of the hypotheses.

The organization of this chapter includes:

1. Presentation and analysis of the demographic data.
2. Presentation and analysis of the collected data for Style Adaptability or Effectiveness, and,
3. Presentation and analysis of the collected data for Leadership Styles and tests of the hypotheses.

Presentation and Analysis of Demographic Data

The data in Table 1 show that 30, or 88 percent of the selected secondary school principals completed and returned the questionnaires. The data also show that 294 or 86.47 percent of the secondary school teachers returned completed usable questionnaires. Of the 374

TABLE I

RETURN OF QUESTIONNAIRES, FREQUENCY OF RETURN, AND PERCENTAGE OF RETURN BY SCHOOLS AND PARTICIPATING GROUPS

School Code Number	Group Returns					
	Principals			Teachers		
	a	b	c	a	b	c
1	1	1	100	10	10	100
2	1	1	100	10	10	100
3	1	1	100	10	10	100
4	1	1	100	10	10	100
5	1	1	100	10	10	100
6	1	1	100	10	10	100
7	1	1	100	10	10	100
8	1	1	100	10	10	100
9	1	1	100	10	10	100
10	1	1	100	10	10	100
11	1	1	100	10	9	90
12	1	1	100	10	9	90
13	1	1	100	10	9	90
14	1	1	100	10	9	90
15	1	1	100	10	9	90
16	1	0	0	10	10	100
17	1	1	100	10	9	90
18	1	1	100	10	8	80
19	1	1	100	10	8	80
20	1	1	100	10	8	80
21	1	1	100	10	7	70
22	1	1	100	10	7	70
23	1	1	100	10	7	70
24	1	1	100	10	5	50
25	1	1	100	10	5	50
26	1	1	100	10	9	90
27	1	1	100	10	7	70
28	1	0	0	10	7	70
29	1	1	100	10	9	90
30	1	0	0	10	8	80
31	1	1	100	10	8	80
32	1	1	100	10	8	80
33	1	1	100	10	9	90
34	1	0	0	10	10	100
TOTAL	34	30	88	340	294	86.47

a = number of questionnaires sent, b = number of questionnaires returned, c = percentage of questionnaires returned.

secondary school principals and teachers selected at random to participate in the study, a total of 324, or 86.63 percent, of the usable instruments were returned for data treatment. The returns exceeded 80 percent of the test sample in each group.

TABLE II

DEMOGRAPHIC FACTORS OF PRINCIPALS AND TEACHERS

	Principals		Teachers	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Sex				
Male	10	33.3	98	33.3
Female	20	66.7	196	66.7
Age				
20-29	0	0.0	68	23.1
30-39	2	6.7	97	33.0
40-49	6	20.0	98	33.3
50-59	22	73.3	31	10.5
Mean	51.2		37.6	
Years of experience in current profession				
0-9	1	3.3	112	38.1
10-19	2	6.7	82	27.9
20-29	11	36.7	83	28.2
30-39	16	53.3	16	5.4
40 or over	0	0.0	1	0.3
Mean	28.5		14.7	
Educational background				
Certificate	1	3.3	39	13.2
Bachelor's degree	18	60.0	228	77.6
Master's degree	11	36.7	27	9.2
Income (in Bahts)				
1000-1999	0	0.0	1	0.3
2000-2999	0	0.0	48	16.3
3000-3999	1	3.3	71	24.2
4000-4999	1	3.3	71	24.2
5000 or over	28	93.3	103	35.0
Mean	5399.5		4271.6	

The data in Table II show sex distribution of secondary school principals and teachers. Analyses of data indicate that the number of female principals was greater than the number of male principals. Sixty-seven percent of the secondary school principals were female and 33.3 percent were male. The data also indicate that 66.7 percent of the secondary school teachers were female and only 33.3 percent were male. It should be noted that the percentage differences in males and females in both the principal's positions and the teaching positions were almost identical.

The data in Table II also show the ages of the principals and teachers in Bangkok. Six percent of the principals were between 30-39 years of age, 20 percent were between 40-49 years of age, and 73.3 percent were between 50-59 years of age. Twenty-three percent of the teachers were between 20-29 years of age; 33 percent were between 30-39 years of age; 33.3 percent were between 40-49 years of age; and 10.5 percent were between 50-59 years of age. The mean age of the secondary school principals was 51.2 while that of the secondary school teachers was only 37.6, pointing to a similar difference in experience in these two groups.

Furthermore, 53.3 percent of the principals had over 30 years of experience, 36.7 percent of the principals had over 20 years of experience, 6.7 percent of the principals had over 10 years of experience, and only 3.3 percent, or only one principal, had less than 10 years of experience. It is shown in

the Table also that 0.3 percent, or only one of the teachers, had over 40 years of experience, 5.4 percent of the teachers over 30 years of experience, 28.2 percent of the teachers over 20 years of experience, 27.9 percent of the teachers over 10 years of experience, and 38.1 percent of the teachers less than 10 years of experience in school. The mean length of time in the current profession of secondary school principals was 28.5 years, while the mean years for secondary school teachers was 14.7. These means emphasize the difference in years of experience Of the principals is almost double that of their subordinates.

The data in Table II list the degrees held by principals and teachers. Sixty percent of the principals had a bachelor's degree, 36.7 percent of the principals had a master's degree, and only one principal or 3.3 percent had less than bachelor's degree. On the other hand, 13.2 percent of the teachers had only a certificate and no bachelor's degree, 77.6 percent of the teachers had a bachelor's degree, and 9.2 percent of the teachers had a master's degree. Obviously the principals have a much higher educational background than their subordinates.

Table II also includes the monthly incomes of principals and teachers. Ninety-three percent of the principals had incomes of 5000 and over Baht ($250), one principal or 3.3 percent had a monthly income from 4000 to 5000 Baht ($200),and only one principal or 3.3 percent had an income of 3000 to 4000 Baht ($150). Thirty-five percent of the teachers had income of at least 5000 Baht ($250), 24.2 percent of the teachers incomes of at least

TABLE III

POPULATION OF SELECTED SCHOOLS

	Schools	
	Frequency	Percentage
Size of school population		
1000-1499	1	3.0
1500-1999	6	17.6
2000-2499	6	17.6
2500 or over	21	61.8

4000 Baht ($200), 24.2 percent of the teachers incomes of at least 3000 Baht ($150), 16.3 percent of the teachers incomes of at least 2000 Baht ($100), and only one teacher or 0.3 percent had an income less than 2000 Baht. The mean income of principals was 5399.5 Baht ($270), while that of teachers was 4217.6 Baht ($213.5). Surprisingly, considering the earlier figures on experience and educational backgrounds, the principals' salaries are not significantly higher than those of the teachers.

Table III includes the size of the school population of the secondary schools used in this investigation. Sixty-one percent of the schools had a school population of 2500 or more, 17.6 percent a population ranging between 2000-2499, while 17.6 percent had a population ranging between 1500-1999, and only one school or 3 percent had a school population of less than 1500.

Presentation and Analysis of Collected Data for Style Adaptability or Effectiveness

The data presented in this section were collected from the 324 usable returns of the LEAD instrument. The analysis of the data in Table IV shows the style adaptability or effectiveness scores of perceptions of secondary school principals and of teachers relative to the 34 school principals. The mean score of the adaptability of leadership styles, or the perceptions of the principals' effectiveness, was 7.3, and the mean score of the style adaptability, or the teachers' perceptions of the principals' effectiveness, was 5.3.

In considering effectiveness of leadership style, the mean score of leadership styles which range from -24 to 0 are considered to be ineffective, and those from 0-24 are considered to be effective,[1] (See, Page 108). Interestingly, only one of the principals perceived himself or herself as ineffective, and none of the teachers considered their principal to be ineffective.

Presentation and Analysis of Collected Data for Leadership Styles and Tests of the Hypotheses

There were seven hypotheses tested. All of the hypotheses were stated in the form of the null. The results of the

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[1] Hersey and Blanchard, Management of Organizational Behavior, p. 107.

TABLE IV

SCORES AND MEANS OF RESPONDENTS
FOR STYLE ADAPTABILITY OR EFFECTIVENESS
BY SCHOOLS AND BY PARTICIPATING GROUPS

School Code Number	Principals			Teachers		
	Frequency	Scores	Mean	Frequency	Scores	Mean
1	1	11	11	10	74	7.4
2	1	13	13	10	51	5.1
3	1	4	4	10	54	5.4
4	1	6	6	10	68	6.8
5	1	5	5	10	34	3.4
6	1	4	4	10	41	4.1
7	1	4	4	10	53	5.3
8	1	9	9	10	41	4.1
9	1	11	11	10	67	6.7
10	1	8	8	10	75	7.5
11	1	6	6	9	53	5.9
12	1	11	11	9	60	6.7
13	1	8	8	9	72	8.0
14	1	5	5	9	54	6.0
15	1	9	9	9	67	7.4
16	0	0	0	10	33	3.3
17	1	5	5	9	67	7.4
18	1	7	7	8	47	5.9
19	1	14	14	8	42	5.3
20	1	-1	-1	8	26	3.3
21	1	5	5	7	45	6.4
22	1	9	9	7	27	3.9
23	1	4	4	7	28	4.0
24	1	4	4	5	30	6.0
25	1	11	11	5	26	5.2
26	1	8	8	9	25	2.8
27	1	9	9	7	26	3.7
28	0	0	0	7	28	4.0
29	1	12	12	9	13	1.4
30	0	0	0	8	11	1.4
31	1	12	12	8	68	8.5
32	1	2	2	8	22	2.8
33	1	3	3	9	56	6.2
34	0	0	0	10	85	8.5
Total	30	218		294	1569	
Mean			7.3			5.3

hypotheses were tabulated and are reported in this section. The hypotheses were tested by using the chi-square non-parametric statistic. All hypotheses were tested at the .05 level of significance. If a statistically significant value at the .05 level was obtained, the .01 level of confidence was computed for comparison purposes.

Testing the Hypotheses

$H_0 1$: There is no statistically significant difference in the perceptions of principals and the perceptions of teachers on the leadership styles of secondary school principals.

With four degrees of freedom, the tabulated chi square value of 9.488 or larger was needed for the difference to be significant at the .05 level. The results presented in Table V show that the computed chi square value was 8.49 which was smaller than the tabulated chi square value. It was, therefore, concluded that there was no statistically significant difference between the perceptions of principals and the perceptions of teachers on the leadership styles of secondary school principals. Therefore, $H_0 1$ was accepted.

According to the data in Table V, most of the principals (63.3 percent) and teachers (45.6 percent) perceived that the secondary school principals employed leadership style III (High Relationship and Low Task). It was also found that fewer principals than teachers selected leadership style I, II, and IV; but more principals than teachers selected leadership style III and were also flexible in choosing more than one style. No principal selected leadership style IV. While most of the

TABLE V

COMPARISON BETWEEN THE PERCEPTIONS OF PRINCIPALS AND THE PERCEPTIONS OF TEACHERS RELATIVE TO LEADERSHIP STYLES OF SECONDARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

Leadership Style	Principals		Teachers		Total	
	F	P	F	P	F	P
Style I (High Task and Low Relationship)	1	3.3	49	16.7	50	15.5
Style II (High Task and High Relationship)	5	16.7	69	23.5	74	22.8
Style III (High Relationship and Low Task)	19	63.3	134	45.6	153	47.2
Style IV (Low Relationship and Low Task)	0	0.0	6	2.0	6	1.8
More than one style	5	16.7	36	12.2	41	12.7
Total	30	100.0	294	100.0	324	100.0

Chi-sqare = 8.49, df = 4, Significant at .05 level = 9.488

F = Frequency, P = Percentage

teachers did believe that the leadership style was high relationship and low task, almost half of them (40.2 percent) perceived a high task style. This figure is significantly higher than the number of principals who perceived high task styles (20 percent). Obviously, there is some difference in the perceptions of leadership

styles among principals and their subordinates.

$H_0 2$: There is no statistically significant difference in the perceptions of male principals and the perceptions of female principals on leadership styles of secondary school principals.

With four degrees of freedom, the tabulated chi square value of 9.488 or larger was needed for the difference to be significant at the .05 level. The results presented in Table VI show that the computed chi square value was 3.2 which was smaller than the tabulated chi square value. It was concluded, therefore, that there was no statistically significant difference between the perceptions of male principals and the perceptions of female principals on leadership styles of secondary school principals. Therefore, $H_0 2$ was accepted.

It should be noted also that the data in Table VI indicate that most of the male principals (60 percent) and female principals (65 percent) perceived that the secondary school principals employed leadership style III (High Relationship and Low Task). It was also found that none of the male principals selected leadership style I and none of either the male or female principals selected leadership style IV. There were more male than female principals who selected style II and more than one style. There were more female than male principals who selected style I, and III. There seems to be no significant discrepancy here in the ways that male and female principals perceive their leadership styles.

TABLE VI

COMPARISON BETWEEN MALE PRINCIPALS AND FEMALE PRINCIPALS PERCEPTIONS WITH REGARD TO LEADERSHIP STYLES OF SECONDARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

Leadership Styles	Male Principals		Female Principals		Total	
	F	P	F	P	F	P
Style I (High Task and Low Relationship)	0	0.0	1	5.0	1	3.3
Style II (High Task and High Relationship)	2	20.0	3	15.0	5	16.7
Style III (High Relationship and Low Task)	6	60.0	13	65.0	19	63.3
Style IV (Low Relationship and Low Task)	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
More than one style	2	20.0	3	15.0	5	16.7
Total	10	100.0	20	100.0	30	100.0

Chi-square = 3.2, df = 4, Significant at .05 level = 9.488

F = Frequency, P = Percentage

$H_0 3$: There is no statistically significant difference in the perceptions of male teachers and the perceptions of female teachers on leadership styles of secondary school principals.

With four degrees of freedom, the tabulated chi square value of 9.488 or larger was needed for the difference to be

TABLE VII

COMPARISON BETWEEN MALE TEACHERS AND FEMALE TEACHERS PERCEPTIONS WITH REGARD TO LEADERSHIP STYLES OF SECONDARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

Leadership Styles	Male Teachers		Female Teachers		Total	
	F	P	F	P	F	P
Style I (High Task and Low Relationship)	13	13.3	36	18.4	49	16.7
Style II (High Task and High Relationship)	25	25.5	44	22.4	69	23.5
Style III (High Relationship and Low Task)	49	50.0	85	43.4	134	45.6
Style IV (Low Relationship and Low Task)	1	1.0	5	2.5	6	2.0
More than one style	10	10.2	26	13.3	36	12.2
Total	98	100.0	196	100.0	294	100.0

Chi-square = 3.78, df = 4, Significant at .05 level = 9.488

significant at the .05 level. The results presented in Table VII show that the computed chi square value was 3.78 which was smaller than the tabulated chi square value. Consequently, it was concluded that there was no statistically significant difference between the perceptions of male teachers and the perceptions of female teachers on leadership styles of secondary school principals. Therefore, $H_0 3$ was accepted.

According to the data in Table VII, most of the teachers (50 percent of the male and 43.4 percent of the female) perceived that secondary school principals employed leadership style III (High Relationship and Low Task). It was also shown that more female teachers selected styles I, IV, and more than one style. However, more male teachers selected style II and III. Style II was the second most frequent choice for both groups while style IV was the least frequently chosen for both.

$H_0 4$: There is no statistically significant difference in the perceptions of principals on leadership styles based on the number of years served in their current profession.

With twelve degrees of freedom, the tabulated chi square value of 21.026 or larger was needed for the difference to be significant at the .05 level. The results presented in Table VIII show that the computed chi square value was 3.65 which significantly was smaller than the tabulated chi square value. It was, therefore, concluded that there was no statistically significant difference between the perceptions of principals with more experience than of those with less. Therefore, $H_0 4$ was accepted.

According to the data in Table VIII, regardless of the number of years served in their current profession, a majority of the principals (i.e., 100 percent of 0-9 year group, 100 percent of 10-19 year group, 54.5 percent of 20-29 year group, and 62.5 percent of 30 or more year group) perceived that the secondary school principals employed leadership style III (High Rela-

TABLE VIII

COMPARISON BETWEEN THE PERCEPTIONS OF PRINCIPALS AND THE NUMBER OF YEARS SERVED IN THEIR CURRENT PROFESSION RELATIVE TO LEADERSHIP STYLES OF SECONDARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

Leadership Style	Principals 0-9 yrs. F	P	10-19 yrs. F	P	20-29 yrs. F	P	30 or more. F	P	Total F	P
Style I (High Task and Low Relationship)	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	6.3	1	3.3
Style II (High Task and High Relationship)	0	0.0	0	0.0	3	27.3	2	12.5	5	16.7
Style III (High Relationship and Low Task)	1	100.0	2	100.0	6	54.5	10	62.5	19	63.3
Style IV (High Relationship and Low Task)	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
More than one style	0	0.0	0	0.0	2	18.2	3	18.7	5	16.7
Total	1	100.0	2	100.0	11	100.0	16	100.0	30	100.0

Chi-square = 3.65, df = 12, Significant at .05 level = 21.026

F = Frequency, P = Percentage, yrs. = Years

tionship and Low Task). It was also shown once again that no principals selected leadership style IV. Interestingly, the more experienced principals, those with 20 years of experience

and over, chose other methods of leadership more often than those with less, indicating more flexibility than those with less experience.

$H_0 5$: There is no statistically significant difference in the perceptions of teachers on the leadership styles of secondary school principals based on the number of years served in their current profession.

Because a significant figure was obtained using the .05 level, the .01 level was used in this case. With twelve degrees of freedom, the tabulated chi square value of 26.217 or larger was needed for the difference to be significant at the .01 level. The results presented in Table IX show that the computed chi square value was 25.65 which was slightly smaller than the tabulated chi square value. It was concluded then that there was no statistically significant difference in the ways teachers with varying levels of experience in their current profession perceived the leadership styles of their principals. Therefore, $H_0 5$ was accepted at the .01 level. For the .05 level it was disproved.

According to the data in Table IX, regardless of the number of years served in their current profession, most of the teachers (i.e., 37 percent of 0-9 year group, 36 percent of 10-19 year group, 54.8 percent of 20-29 year group, and 64.7 of 30 or more year group) perceived that the secondary school principals employed leadership style III (High Relationship and Low Task). It was also found that the fewer the years

TABLE IX

COMPARISON BETWEEN THE PERCEPTIONS OF TEACHERS AND THE NUMBER OF YEARS SERVED IN THEIR CURRENT PROFESSION RELATIVE TO LEADERSHIP STYLES OF SECONDARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

Leadership Style	Teachers 0-9 yrs. F	P	10-19 yrs. F	P	20-29 yrs. F	P	30 or more. F	P	Total F	P
Style I (High Task and Low Relationship)	28	25.2	10	12.2	11	13.1	0	0.0	49	16.7
Style II (High Task and High Relationship)	25	22.5	19	23.1	20	23.8	5	29.4	69	23.5
Style III (High Relationship and Low Task)	41	37.0	36	36.0	46	54.8	11	64.7	134	45.6
Style IV (Low Relationship and Low Task)	4	3.6	2	2.4	0	0.0	0	0.0	6	2.0
More than one style	13	11.7	15	18.3	7	8.3	1	5.9	36	12.2
Total	111	100.0	82	100.0	84	100.0	17	100.0	294	100.0

Chi-square = 25.65, df = 12, Significant at .01 level = 26.217

F = Frequency, P = Percentage, yrs. = years

of service the lower the percentage of teachers who selected style III. Instead the fewer the years of service, the higher the percentage of teachers who selected style IV. While style III was the most frequently selected choice among the teachers,

its frequency was not nearly so high as that among the principals. Another interesting contrast here is that the choices among experienced teachers parallel those of less experienced principals in terms of the variety of styles chosen, while the less experienced teachers chose patterns similar to the more experienced principals.

$H_0 6$: There is no statistically significant difference in the perceptions of the leadership styles of secondary school principals among principals who have the bachelor's degree or certificate and those who have the master's degree.

With four degrees of freedom, the tabulated chi square value of 9.488 or larger was needed for the difference to be significant at the .05 level. The results presented in Table X show that the computed chi square value was 3.83 which was smaller than the tabulated chi square value. It was concluded that there was no statistically significant difference between the perceptions of leadership styles among principals who have bachelor's degrees or certificates and those who have master's degrees. Therefore, $H_0 6$ was accepted.

According to the data in Table X, regardless of the educational level, a majority of the principals (i.e., 63.1 percent of the bachelor's degree/certificate group and 63.6 of the master's degree group) perceived that the secondary school principals employed leadership style III (High Relationship and Low Task). The findings here show that no principal selected leadership style IV. Also, the higher the educational level

TABLE X

COMPARISON BETWEEN THE PERCEPTIONS OF PRINCIPALS WHO HAVE THE BACHELOR'S DEGREE/CERTIFICATE AND THOSE WHO HAVE THE MASTER'S DEGREE RELATIVE TO LEADERSHIP STYLES OF SECONDARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

Leadership Style	Principals					
	Bachelor's Degree/ Certificate		Master's Degree		Total	
	F	P	F	P	F	P
Style I (High Task and Low Relationship)	0	0.0	1	9.1	1	3.3
Style II (High Task and High Relationship)	4	21.1	1	9.1	5	16.7
Style III (High Relationship and Low Task)	12	63.1	7	63.6	19	63.3
Style IV (Low Relationship and Low Task)	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
More than one style	3	15.8	2	18.2	5	16.7
Total	19	100.0	11	100.0	30	100.0

Chi-square = 3.83, df =4, Significant at .05 level = 9.488

F = Frequency, P = Percentage

was, the higher the percentage of principals who selected style I, III, and more than one style. Those with the master's degree chose more than one style with much more frequency than those

with only a bachelor's degree and certification who chose style II as the second highest choice.

$H_0 7$: There is no statistically significant difference between the perceptions of the leadership styles of secondary school principals among teachers who have bachelor's degrees or certificates and those who have master's degrees.

With four degrees of freedom, the tabulated chi square value of 9.488 or larger was needed for the difference to be considered significant at the .05 level. The results presented in Table XI show that the computed chi square value was 6.08 which was less than the tabulated chi square value. Therefore, it was concluded that there was no statistically significant difference in the perceptions of teachers who have bachelor's degrees or certificates and those who have master's degrees about the leadership styles of secondary school principals. Therefore, $H_0 7$ was accepted.

According to the data in Table XI, regardless of the educational level, most of the teachers (i.e., 43.8 percent of the bachelor's degree/certificate group and 63 percent of the master's degree group) perceived that the secondary school principals employed leadership style III (High Relationship and Low Task). It was also found that the lower the educational level the lower the percentage of teachers who selected style III. But unlike the principals, the lower the educational level the higher the percentage of teachers who selected style I, II, IV, and more than one style, indicating once again an

TABLE XI

COMPARISON BETWEEN THE PERCEPTIONS OF TEACHERS WHO HAVE THE BACHELOR'S DEGREE/CERTIFICATE AND THOSE WHO HAVE THE MASTER'S DEGREE RELATIVE TO LEADERSHIP STYLES OF SECONDARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

Leadership Style	Teachers					
	Bachelor's Degree/ Certificate		Master's Degree		Total	
	F	P	F	P	F	P
Style I (High Task and Low Relationship)	46	17.2	3	11.1	49	16.7
Style II (High Task and High Relationship)	65	24.3	4	14.8	69	23.5
Style III (High Relationship and Low Task)	117	43.8	17	63.0	134	45.6
Style IV (Low Relationship and Low Task)	6	2.3	0	0.0	6	2.0
More than one style	46	12.4	3	11.1	36	12.2
Total	267	100.0	27	100.0	294	100.0

Chi-square = 6.08, df = 4, Significant at .05 level = 9.488

F = Frequency, P = Percentage

interesting parallel between teachers with less educational background and principals with more education in terms of the variety of styles selected.

The summary, conclusions and recommendations are in the following chapter.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The purpose of this study was to determine the leadership styles of secondary school principals as they were perceived by random sampling of principals and teachers in Bangkok, Thailand, and to determine whether sex, educational background, and years of experience in their current profession had any effect on those perceptions of leadership styles. In addition, selected demographic data were collected about secondary school principals and teachers in order to draw accurate conclusions on the variables pertinent to the respondents.

The data for the study were collected by the Demographic Data Questionnaire and the LEAD instrument. These instruments were administered to a random sample of principals and teachers in secondary schools of Bangkok. The instruments were sent to 34 secondary school principals and 340 secondary school teachers. Of the 374 subjects in the total sample, usable returns were received from 294 teachers (86.47 percent) and from 30 principals (88 percent).

The statistical treatments applied to the data obtained from the 324 questionnaires included frequencies, percentages, and means to describe the demographic data and the effectiveness scores of secondary school principals. Chi-square tests were employed to analyze the seven hypotheses. The .05 level of significance was the criterion used for accepting or rejecting the hypotheses. If a statistically significant value at the .05 level was obtained, the .01 level was computed for comparison purposes.

Six hypotheses were accepted at the .05 level of significance, only H_05 was accepted at the .01 level of significance.

Findings

The following findings were ascertained in analyzing the various responses:

1. The majority, 66.7 percent of the secondary school principals and teachers in Bangkok were female.
2. Principals in the secondary schools are 13.6 years older on the average than teachers. The mean age of principals was 51.2 years while the mean age of teachers was 37.6 years.
3. The average number of years served in the current profession for principals was 28.5 years, and 14.7 years for teachers. The principals had served an average of 13.8 years longer in the profession than teachers.

4. With regard to the highest degree held by secondary school principals, none had the doctor's degree, 36.7 percent had the master's degree, 60 percent had the bachelor's degree, and only 3.3 percent had less than the bachelor's degree.
5. With regard to the highest degree held by secondary school teachers, none had a doctor's degree, only 9.2 percent had the master's degree, 77.6 percent had the bachelor's degree, and 13.2 percent had less than the bachelor's degree.
6. The mean monthly income of secondary school principals was 5399.50 Baht ($270), and the mean monthly income of secondary school teachers was 4271.60 Baht ($213.60). The average difference between monthly incomes of principals and teachers was 1127.90 Baht ($56.40).
7. Of the total number of schools in the sample, 61.8 percent of the selected secondary schools had a school population of over 5000, 17.6 percent had a population between 2000-2499, 17.6 percent between 1500-1999, and only 3 percent less than 1500.
8. Despite the significant differences in experience and educational backgrounds between principals and teachers, there was not a significant difference in salaries in the two groups.
9. With regard to the leadership effectiveness scores of secondary school principals, as perceived by principals and teachers in Bangkok, the mean score of principals' perceptions of the principal's own effectiveness was 7.3, and the mean

score of teachers' perceptions of their principal's effectiveness was 5.3. As stated earlier, a score from 0 to plus 24 is considered to be leadership effective.

10. Only one of the principals perceived himself or herself as ineffective, and none of the teachers considered their principals to be ineffective. According to the effectiveness scores, both groups perceived the principals to perform their leadership styles effectively.
11. There was no statistically significant difference in the perceptions of principals and the perceptions of teachers on the leadership styles of secondary school principals.
12. There was no statistically significant difference between male and female principals' perceptions of the leadership styles of secondary school principals.
13. There was no statistically significant difference between male and female teachers' perceptions of the leadership styles of secondary school principals.
14. There was no statistically significant difference between the perceptions of principals about leadership styles and the number of years served in their current profession.
15. There was no statistically significant difference between the perceptions of teachers about leadership styles and the number of years served in their current profession.
16. There was no statistically significant difference between the perceptions of leadership styles among principals who had certificates or bachelor's degrees and those who had master's degrees.

17. There was no statistically significant difference between the perceptions of leadership styles among teachers who had certificates or bachelor's degrees and those who had master's degrees.
18. Regarding the self-perceptions of secondary school principals about their leadership styles, 63.3 percent of the principals perceived that they employed leadership style III (high relationship and low task), 16.7 percent of the principals perceived that they employed leadership style II (high task and high relationship), 16.7 percent of the principals perceived that they employed more than one style, and only 3.3 percent of the principals perceived that they employed leadership style I (low relationship and high task). None of the principals chose style IV (low relationship and low task).
19. Regarding the perceptions of secondary school teachers about leadership styles of secondary school principals, 45.6 percent of the teachers perceived that principals employed leadership style III (high relationship and low task), 23.5 percent of the teachers perceived that principals employed leadership style II (high task and high relationship), 16.7 percent of the teachers perceived that principals employed leadership style I (high task and low relationship), 12.2 percent of the teachers perceived that principals employed more than one leadership style, and only 2 percent of the teachers perceived that principals employed leadership style IV (low relationship and low task).

Conclusions

From the study, several conclusions can be reached concerning the perceptions of leadership styles of secondary school principals.

First, there was agreement among the perceptions of principals and teachers about the leadership effectiveness of secondary school principals. Only one principal perceived himself or herself as ineffective, but no teachers considered their principal ineffective, suggesting an individual insecurity with the leadership role rather than any significant comment on leadership styles in general. According to Situational Leadership Theory, "The leader behavior with the highest probability of success of the alternative offered in the given situation is always weighted a +2 of effectiveness or adaptability score."[1] Because the effectiveness can be related in this way to the adaptability, then it can be concluded that the principal was able to vary his or her leadership style appropriately to meet the demands of a given situation; in other words, the principal could perform effectively in the leadership role.

Second, most of the principals most often were perceived by both themselves and their teachers to employ leadership style III (high relationship and low task). Therefore, there was agreement among the perceptions of principals and teachers concerning the leadership styles of secondary school principals.

There were, however, some interesting parallels in

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[1]Hersey and Blanchard, "Management of Organizational Behavior," p. 228.

terms of the variety of choices and the experience and educational background of both principals and teachers. Those principals with more experience and education chose leadership styles in patterns similar to those teachers with less experience and education. The less experienced and educated principals' choices correlate to those of the more experienced and educated teachers. It would seem that there is some relationship between these findings and the system of promotion which moves the more experienced teachers into the principal's position and which also carries their perceptions of leadership styles into that higher rank but which does not allow for its immediate alteration by experience. The more experienced principal, on the other hand, would seem to have learned through administrative experience much the same kind of adaptability as that of new and less experienced teachers who are generally more open to varying styles in dealing with given situations. These findings may suggest a kind of cycle in the same attitudes toward leadership.

It was concluded, also, that with leadership style III, both principal and subordinates share in decision-making through two-way communication. This is done with much facilitating by the principal since the subordinates do have the ability and knowledge to do the tasks and need only such guidance. According to Situational Leadership Theory, Hersey and Blanchard indicate that:

> When the leader style III is effective he or she may be seen by others as having implicit trust in people and as being primarily concerned with facilitating their goal accomplishment: When the leader is ineffective, he or she may be seen as primarily interested in harmony; sometimes

> seen as unwilling to accomplish a task if it risks disrupting a relationship or losing the "good person" image.[1]

We may assume, therefore, that the findings suggest that relationships of just such implicit trust and guidance in achieving particular situational goals are present in the schools studied and are a direct result of the leadership styles employed.

Finally, sex, educational background, and the number of years served in the current profession had no effect on the perceptions of the leadership styles of secondary school principals, as they are held by the principals themselves and their teachers. There was only a slight difference in the perceptions of teachers based on their years of experience and not enough to contradict this conclusion. It was, therefore, concluded that principals could perform an effective leadership role, regardless of sex, educational background, or years served in the current profession. This result supports the conclusion that despite the sex, educational background, or years of experience of a principal he or she may develop and practice leadership styles effectively in given situations.

Recommendations

The information gleaned from this study would suggest that further research is needed in a number of areas:

1. First, additional research should be conducted with different types of instruments to confirm the results of this study.
2. Similar studies should be conducted in the elementary

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[1]Ibid., p. 107.

school, or higher levels, such as Colleges and Universities, to determine the leadership styles of principals or Deans of those institutions.

3. According to Situational Leadership Theory," It is believed that most people can increase their effectiveness in leadership roles through education, training, and development,"[1] Therefore, it is recommended that the Department of Secondary Education provide a leadership program that will help to develop the leadership skills of secondary school principals and teachers. In such a program principals should have access to findings such as the ones presented in this and related studies so they then begin to compare their own leadership styles to the findings. Also, it would seem that on the level of practical application, workshops with principals and teachers would help them to apply leadership skills more effectively and adapt them appropriately to a variety of situations in their own school systems.
4. Additional research should be conducted on the maturity levels of teachers in Bangkok, Thailand, so that the maturity levels can then be correlated to these findings on leadership styles.
5. Additional research should involve students and parents in order to determine their perceptions of the leadership styles of principals.

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[1] Ibid., p. 89.

6. The findings of this study on secondary school principals in Bangkok might be used as a starting point for a study comparing the leadership styles of these principals to their American counterparts. Such a study would help to clarify the different leadership styles in these two vary different school systems, the centralized schools in Bangkok and the generally decentralized schools in America. Conclusions might then be drawn which could help principals in both kinds of systems to improve the effectiveness of their leadership and in turn improve the effectiveness of their schools' functioning.

It is hoped that the findings of this study and these recommendations may prove useful for other studies on school leadership and increase our knowledge about its effective functioning and also improve the principals' own ability to lead their schools effectively.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRES AND CORRESPONDENCES

UTILIZED IN THE STUDY

APPENDIX A-1: Letters from the Department of General Education to each Respondent.

APPENDIX A-2: Letters from the Associate Professor of Department of Education of Kasatsart University to each Respondent.

APPENDIX A-3: The LEAD self instrument in Thai version.

APPENDIX A-4: The LEAD self instrument in English version.

APPENDIX A-5: The LEAD other instrument in Thai version.

APPENDIX A-6: The LEAD other instrument in English version.

APPENDIX A-7: The Demographic Data Questionnaire in Thai version.

APPENDIX A-8: The Demographic Data Questionnaire in English version.

APPENDIX A-9: The LEAD direction instrument in English version.

APPENDIX A-1

ที่ ศธ 0801/19357 กรมสามัญศึกษา

10 กรกฎาคม 2524

เรื่อง ขอความร่วมมือกรอกแบบสอบถามสำหรับวิทยานิพนธ์

เรียน

ด้วยนายจักรสุวรรณ ชนะโสภณ นักศึกษาระดับปริญญาเอก สาขาบริหารการศึกษา มหาวิทยาลัยโอกลาโฮมา ประเทศสหรัฐอเมริกา ซึ่งกำลังอยู่ในระหว่างการทำวิทยานิพนธ์เรื่องลักษณะความเป็นผู้นำของอาจารย์ใหญ่ในโรงเรียนระดับมัธยมศึกษาในกรุงเทพมหานคร ประสงค์ที่จะได้ข้อคิดเห็นจากอาจารย์ใหญ่ 1 ท่าน และอาจารย์ในโรงเรียน 10 ท่าน ตามแบบสอบถามดังที่ได้แนบมาด้วยนี้ ทั้งนี้เพื่อที่จะได้นำไปวิเคราะห์เพื่อการวิจัย

กรมสามัญศึกษาพิจารณาเห็นว่า การวิจัยในเรื่องดังกล่าวจะเป็นประโยชน์ต่อวงการศึกษา จึงขอความร่วมมือมายังท่านในการกรอกแบบสอบถามที่ได้แนบมาด้วยนี้

ขอแสดงความนับถือ

(นายสุรเกช วิเศษสุรการ)
อธิบดีกรมสามัญศึกษา

สำนักงานเลขานุการกรม
โทร.2816320

APPENDIX A-2

ภาควิชาการศึกษา คณะศึกษาศาสตร์
มหาวิทยาลัยเกษตรศาสตร์

วันที่ ๑๕ มิถุนายน ๒๕๒๔

เรียน ท่านอาจารย์

เรื่อง ขอความกรุณากรอกแบบสอบถาม

เนื่องด้วย นายจักรสุวรรณ ชนะโสภณ กำลังทำปริญญานิพนธ์ระดับปริญญาเอกในสาขาการบริหารการศึกษา ณ มหาวิทยาลัยโอกลาโฮมา ประเทศสหรัฐอเมริกา เรื่อง จักษณะความเป็นผู้นำของอาจารย์ใหญ่ในโรงเรียนระดับมัธยมศึกษาในกรุงเทพมหานคร จุดมุ่งหมายในการทำวิจัยครั้งนี้เพื่อวิเคราะห์ลักษณะความเป็นผู้นำของอาจารย์ใหญ่ ตามความคิดเห็นของอาจารย์ใหญ่เอง และของครูภายในโรงเรียน

เพื่อให้การวิจัยครั้งนี้เป็นประโยชน์แก่วงการศึกษาและแก่ประเทศให้มากที่สุด จึงขอความร่วมมือจากท่านโดยกรอกแบบสอบถามที่แนบมาพร้อมจดหมายนี้ แล้วส่งไปที่ ดร.สมถวิล ชนะโสภณ ภาควิชาการศึกษา คณะศึกษาศาสตร์ มหาวิทยาลัยเกษตรศาสตร์ ภายในวันที่ ๒๕ กรกฎาคม ๒๕๒๔

ขอขอบพระคุณในความร่วมมือของท่าน มา ณ ที่นี้ด้วย.

(ดร.สมถวิล ชนะโสภณ)
ผู้ช่วยหัวหน้าภาควิชาการศึกษา
คณะศึกษาศาสตร์ มหาวิทยาลัยเกษตรศาสตร์

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APPENDIX A-7

แบบสอบถามสำหรับครูและครูใหญ่

โปรดให้ข้อมูลเกี่ยวกับตัวท่านในข้อที่มีตัวเลขอยู่ด้านขวามือ โดยทำเครื่องหมายวงกลม ○ รอบตัวเลขเพียงหมายเลขเดียวที่ตรงกับความเป็นจริง กรุณาตอบทุกข้อ

๑. สื่อโรงเรียน...

๒. ตำแหน่งของท่านในปัจจุบัน

ครูใหญ่	๑
ครู	๒
อื่นๆ	๓

๓. เพศ

ชาย	๑
หญิง	๒

๔. อายุ

๒๐ – ๒๙ ปี	๑
๓๐ – ๓๙ ปี	๒
๔๐ – ๔๙ ปี	๓
๕๐ – ๕๙ ปี	๔
๖๐ ปี หรือมากกว่า	๕

๕. ประสบการณ์ทำงาน

๐ – ๙ ปี	๑
๑๐ – ๑๙ ปี	๒
๒๐ – ๒๙ ปี	๓
๓๐ – ๓๙ ปี	๔
๔๐ ปี หรือมากกว่า	๕

๖. ประวัติการศึกษา

ระดับปริญญาตรี

สถาบันการศึกษา.....

ชื่อปริญญา.....ปีที่ได้รับ.....

วิชาเอก.....วิชาโท.....

ระดับปริญญาโท

สถาบันการศึกษา.....

ชื่อปริญญา.....ปีที่ได้รับ.....

วิชาเอก.....วิชาโท.....

ชั้นสูงกว่าปริญญาโท

สถาบันการศึกษา.....

ชื่อปริญญา.....ปีที่ได้รับ.....

วิชาเอก.....วิชาโท.....

การฝึกอบรม

สถาบันการศึกษา.....

ประกาศนียบัตร.....ปีที่ได้รับ.....

สาขาที่ได้รับการอบรม.....

สัมมนาการประชุมปฏิบัติการ.....

อื่น ๆ โปรดระบุ.....

๗. ขนาดของโรงเรียน (จำนวนนักเรียน)

๕๐๐ – ๙๙๙	๑
๑๐๐๐ – ๑๔๙๙	๒
๑๕๐๐ – ๑๙๙๙	๓
๒๐๐๐ – ๒๔๙๙	๔
๒๕๐๐ หรือมากกว่า	๕

๘. รายได้ของท่าน (เงินเดือน)

๑๐๐๐ – ๑๙๙๙ บาท	๑
๒๐๐๐ – ๒๙๙๙ บาท	๒
๓๐๐๐ – ๓๙๙๙ บาท	๓
๔๐๐๐ – ๔๙๙๙ บาท	๔
๕๐๐๐ บาท หรือมากกว่า	๕

APPENDIX A-8

QUESTIONNAIRES UTILIZED IN THE STUDY

DEMOGRAPHIC DATA QUESTIONNAIRE

Please place a check ( ) by only one (1) response for each of the following that best describes you. Please response to all items.

1.. School:_____
(Write in the name of your school)

2.	Position:	Principal	1._____
		Teacher	2._____
		Other	3._____
3.	Sex:	Male	1._____
		Female	2._____
4.	Age:	20-29	1._____
		30-39	2._____
		40-49	3._____
		50-59	4._____
		60 or over	5._____
5.	Years of experience in current profession	0-9	1._____
		10-19	2._____
		20-29	3._____
		30-39	4._____
		40 or over	5._____

6. Educational background: (Undergraduate)

Institution:_____

Degree:_____Date_____

Major_____Minor_____

(Graduate)

Institution:_____

Degree_____Date_____

Major_____Minor_____

(Above Master's)

Institution:_____ Date_____

Major_____ Minor_____

(Other Training)

Institution:_____

Certificate:_____ Date_____

Training field:_____

Seminars, workshops:_____

Others, please be specific _____

7. Size of school population:

500-999	1._____
1000-1499	2._____
1500-1999	3._____
2000-2499	4._____
2500 or over	5._____

8. Income:

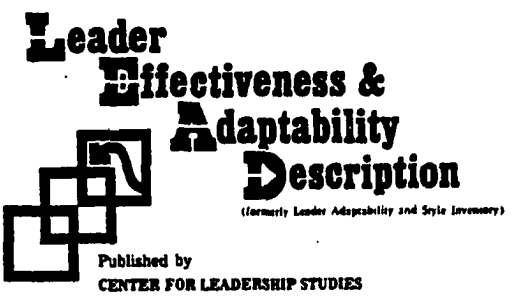
1000-1999	1._____
2000-2999	2._____
3000-3999	3._____
4000-4999	4._____
5000 or over	5._____

APPENDIX A-9

LEAD Self

SELF PERCEPTION

DIRECTIONS FOR
SELF SCORING
AND ANALYSIS



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APPENDIX B

PERMISSION FOR USING THE LEAD INSTRUMENT

AND

PERMISSION FOR USING HUMAN SUBJECTS

CENTER FOR LEADERSHIP STUDIES
P.O. Box 1586 • 230 West Third, Escondido, CA 92025 • (714) 741-6595

March 16, 1981

Mr. Churcksuwan Dhanasobhon
406 Wadsack Dr., Apt. B
Norman, Oklahoma 73069

Dear Mr. Dhanasobhon:

Please know that you may have permission to translate the LEAD instruments into Thai for the purposes of conducting your doctoral research.

In giving you this permission, we expect that you will provide us with a copy of all translations as well as a copy of your research results. On each of your copies you must acknowledge that the tranlations have been printed with the permission of Center for Leadership Studies and that the materials are copyrighted and not be reproduced.

Good luck with your study.

Sincerely,

Dr. Joseph W. Keilty
Managing Director

md



The
University of Oklahoma at Norman

Office of Research Administration

May 19, 1981

Mr. Churcksuwan Dhanasobhon
College of Education
University of Oklahoma

Dear Mr. Dhanasobhon:

At its May 15, 1981 meeting, the Institutional Review Board-Norman Campus reviewed your proposal, "The Leadership Styles of Secondary School Principals as Perceived by Selected Principals and Teachers in Bangkok, Thailand." The Board found that this research would not constitute a risk to participants beyond those of normal, everyday life except in the area of privacy which is adequately protected by the confidentiality procedures. Therefore, the Board has approved the use of human subjects in this project.

Under this finding, you will not be required to document the consent of the prospective participants, although you may do so if you wish. If you have any questions, please contact me.

Sincerely yours,

Mark Elder
Administrative Officer
Institutional Review Board-Norman Campus

ME:nra

cc Dr. Eddie C. Smith, Chair, IRB-NC
Dr. Gerald Kidd, Education
IRB-NC Files

APPENDIX C

NAMES OF SELECTED SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN BANGKOK, THAILAND

1. Wadborwornniwech.
2. Singharachpitayakom.
3. Pratumkongka.
4. Surasakmontree.
5. Satree-Wadrakung.
6. Parknumwitayakom.
7. Wadmongkud.
8. Saipanya.
9. Wadnoynophakun.
10. Suksanari.
11. Rajvinit-Muthayom.
12. Sarawithaya.
13. Wadnoynai.
14. Badindeja.
15. Prakanongpitaya.
16. Trimitwitayarai.
17. Wadtapsirin.
18. Wadrachborpitch.
19. Sarmsenwitayalai.
20. Yotinburana.
21. Benjamarachalai.
22. Satree-Apsorn.
23. Wadnorngkam.
24. Satreemahaputaram.
25. Hor-Wang.
26. Tepleela.
27. Lardprakao

28. Wadracha-Oroj.
29. Wad-Intarrarm.
30. Magasan.
31. Pracharach-Upatum.
32. Wadtarttorng.
33. Sai-Narmpung.
34. Suankurabwitzyalai.