CHAPTER II: LITERATURE REVIEW

The purpose of this chapter is to provide literature that highlighted Belize’s geographic location, education system and education reform history, particularly addressing secondary education. In addition, the main foci presented in this section include: the school system’s influence on leadership style, impact of gender on leadership style and the leadership style theories of transformational, transactional and laissez-faire.

Geographic Location of Belize

Belize is a small nation on the eastern coast of Central America, facing the Caribbean Sea to the east, bordered by Mexico to the northwest and Guatemala to the west and south. The country is a parliamentary democracy and constitutional monarchy which recognizes Queen Elizabeth II as Sovereign. Belize is the only English-speaking country in Central America, Belize was a British colony for more than a century and was known as British Honduras until 1973. It became an independent nation in 1981. Belize is a member of Caribbean Community (CARICOM) and the Sistema de Integracion Centro Americana (SICA) and considers itself to have cultural influence from both the Caribbean, and Central America (Retrieval on June 22, 2006 from the government of Belize website).

Belize is located between the Hondo and Sarstoon Rivers, with the Belize River flowing down the centre of the country. The north of Belize consists mostly of flat, swampy coastal plains, in places heavily forested. The south contains the low mountain range of the Maya Mountains, whose Victoria Peak is the highest point in Belize at 1,600 metres (3,806 ft). The Caribbean coast is lined with a coral reef and some 450 islets and islands known locally as cayes, pronounced "keys". Belize is home to the longest barrier reef in the western hemisphere, spanning approximately 200 miles (322 km) and the second longest in the world after the Great Barrier Reef. Three of the four coral atolls in the Western Hemisphere are also located off the coast of Belize. The climate is tropical and generally very hot and humid. The rainy season lasts from May to November and
hurricanes and floods are frequent natural hazards (Retrieval on June 22, 2000 from the government of Belize website).

In this small, essentially private-enterprise economy the tourism industry is the number one foreign exchange earner followed by marine products, citrus, cane sugar, bananas, and garments. The government's expansionary monetary and fiscal policies, initiated in September 1998, led to sturdy GDP growth averaging nearly 5% in 1999-2005. Major concerns continue to be the sizable trade deficit and foreign debt. A key short-term objective remains the reduction of poverty with the help of international donors (Retrieval on June 23, 2000 from CIA website).

**Educational Reform: from 1950 to the Present**

The country’s colonial history, the influence of the churches, the increased influence of the United States on the country in post-independence years, including political problems in neighboring Central America are some of the factors that have influenced education policy development and implementation of educational reform in Belize. Political influences, whether by ideology or lack thereof, have also contributed to the way in which educational policies have been developed and implemented (Thompson, 2000).

According to Thompson (2000), the Belizean school system was a loose aggregate of education subsystems. The system was based on British education and was broken into three levels: primary, secondary, and tertiary. Belizean children began their eight years of primary education with two years of "infant" classes, followed by six "standards." Secondary education was divided into four "forms." Sixth form was a two-year postsecondary course, originally intended to prepare students for the Cambridge Advanced or "A-Level" examinations. Since the early 1970s, sixth-form institutions have also bestowed Associate of Arts degrees sanctioned by the United States Association of Junior Colleges. Other postsecondary institutions included Belize Teachers' College, the Belize School of Nursing, and the Belize College of Agriculture, in addition to University College of Belize (UCB), now referred to as University of Belize (UB). Belize has
contributed to and participated in the multinational University of the West Indies. The University of the West Indies also maintained a small extramural department in Belize City.

Management of the school system varied according to level. In the latter half of the 1980s, religious denominations controlled the majority of primary schools, but the government or private, community-based boards of governors administered more than 50 percent of the secondary institutions (Education in Belize towards the year 2000). The preponderance of government institutions at the secondary level was a relatively new development; as recently as 1980, the majority of secondary schools were under religious management. In addition, denominational representatives retained considerable influence on the managing boards of private, ostensibly nondenominational, institutions.

Education in Belize is compulsory for children aged between 6 and 14. Primary and secondary education is free. In 1997 there were 53,110 pupils enrolled in 280 primary schools (Government and Government aided), 10,912 in 30 secondary school and 2500 in 11 post secondary institutions. However, parents are still obligated to pay other fees of school maintenance (Retrieval on June 22, 2006 from Statistic of Belize website). Government runs some of the schools but most schools are run by the churches. The Government maintains one special school for mentally disabled children and another for children with physical disabilities.

Historical data has shown that in the period prior to self government in 1964, control of policy and financing of education was in the hands of the colonial masters. Government’s expenditure on education was minimal, and there was heavy reliance on the churches for assistance. Schools were heavily subsidized by donations from foreign denominational supporters. Managers and principals of schools were mainly foreigners and the curricula reflected this foreign influence (Showman, 1994). To date we still see the effects of this influence in the general tendency to mix American and English spelling of words in the same text.
The Education Ordinance of 1962 “was the legal device for execution of the government’s educational policy of affecting a national system of education which retained the traditionally accepted denominational character, but which allowed a greater degree of control by government over the system” (Bennett 1973, 81). Although foreign influence on the curricula of schools is still a factor to be considered, efforts to make the curriculum more relevant to the society have intensified. Some progress has been made in this regard since self government in 1964 and more notably since independence in 1981. In addressing the issue of the governance of schools, Byrd (1990) felt that the foreign influence has been reduced considerably and supported his theory by noting the change in composition of foreigners and locals running the schools. He referred to the “massive Belizeanization” of both churches and schools where today most managers and principals of schools are nationals. Byrd also noted that the establishment of a National Curriculum Unit in 1975 has also intensified efforts to implement a national curriculum. As he puts it, the introduction of curriculum guidelines from the government side...has placed teaching emphasis not on religion but on nationally accepted curricula. Religious influence...persists now largely at the level of the continuing commitment to spiritual and ethical formation....” (165)

The question of the management of schools and the benefits of this partnership has been the subject of many reports and debates over the years, such as the Easter Report of 1935, West India Royal Commission of 1938, the UNESCO reports of 1964 and 1983, and the Education Symposium of 1990. It is felt that the partnership has its merits and so current government policies continue to support it. The impact of colonial past and developed countries is what shapes our educational system today. Yes the merits and demerits are questionable, but it has molded the practices of School principals in Belize’s school.

Ministry’s intervention to improve the education sector in Belize

Thompson (2000) expressed in her account that the increase in the transition rate can be attributed partly to the increase in the number of secondary schools established since self government. The call for greater government involvement in secondary
education and for a more diversified curriculum was strong in the government’s development plan of 1964-70. There were recommendations for the establishment of more secondary schools with technical and agricultural bias and for greater financing of secondary education by government. The plan stated that “secondary schools are starved of funds” and the time had come for government to assume a greater share of the responsibility and the burden of financing secondary education. The summit of 2000 also called on the government of Belize to support the secondary school system.

According to Thompson (2000) there have not been many initiatives or major reforms in the secondary sector; however, the government has made greater input and is now managing more secondary schools. Several secondary schools opened up in rural areas and there have been attempts to diversify the curriculum. While these efforts are laudable, other issues still remain unresolved, the most significant being the low percentage of teachers with professional training and the completion rate of students in high schools. Moreover the population of the country is on the rise, hence the need for new schools to be opened is evident. Thus, the researcher provides insight on the present leaders in the secondary school systems so as to provide a platform for new principals to have an idea as to what to do and how to execute.

Access now to secondary schooling

Today the number of secondary schools has grown from 9 schools with 1,029 pupils in 1953 to 31 schools and 8,901 students enrolled in 1991-92. The transition rate from primary to secondary rose from 52% in 1972 to 76% in 1991-92. The rate is 2005 rose to a figure of 47 secondary schools with over 13,000 students enrolled. Table 2.1 shows the distribution of schools and management, collected from the Ministry of Education website 2007 report.
Table 2.1 Distribution of secondary school principals in Belize

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>District/Region</th>
<th>School Management</th>
<th>Gender</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Government</td>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belize District/Central Region</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cayo District/Central Region</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stann Creek District/Southern Region</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Toledo District/Southern Region</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orange Walk/Northern Region</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corozal District/Northern Region</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTALS</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Principals employed 2006-2007 academic school year in secondary school systems in the country of Belize (Government schools include those managed or operated by the government of Belize and Non-government schools include denominational and privately managed schools)

The next section focuses on the historical perspective of leadership so as to give a clear idea of the evolution of different theories in leadership that evolve over the decades. Then the focus shifts to the literature findings that were the basis for this research paper which include: general school environment, impact of gender and the leadership theories of transformational, transactional and laissez-faire.

**Historical perspective of leadership**

In this section leadership theories from early origin to present will be discussed so as to see the pattern of leadership theories used in research studies over the years.

**The idea of leadership**

According to Bryant (1986) the role of leadership has seemed for decades to be a promising area because in everyday life people seem to believe that leadership matters, and that it is important to the realization of a desirable state of affairs. Here the state being referred to is “strong” or “good” leadership, or when school management tries to recruit people with the right leadership quality (Bryant, 1986). Some definitions of leadership also cited in Bryant (1986) highlight classical definitions by which leadership has come to be identified. However, writers have a wide range of definitions and there is no consensus. The definitions below were cited in Bryant (1986) and Maxcy (1991):

- **Stogdill (1950)** states that leadership may be considered as the process (act) of influencing the activities of an organized group in its efforts toward goal setting and goal achievement.
- **Hollander (1978)** states that leadership is a process of influence between a leader and those who are followers.
- **Hemphill and Coon (1957)** states that leadership is the behaviour of an individual when he is directing the activities of a group towards a shared goal.
- **Korman (1971)** states that ‘a leader tries to influence other people in a given direction’. This definition is relatively simple, but it seems to capture the essence of what we mean by leadership.
Rauch & Behling (1984) states that ‘leadership is defined as the process of an organized group toward goal achievement’.

These common definitions according to Byrant (1986) imply that leadership involves a social influence process in which a person steers members of the group towards a goal.

**Evolution of Leadership Theories in Research**

Much of the early research on leadership was concerned with the investigation of the personal traits of leaders (Bryant, 1986). The ability of investigation to discern unambiguous traits which permitted discrimination between leaders and non-leaders, or between good and bad leaders, ushered in a lengthy period from the late 1940’s onwards in which the behaviour of the leaders was the prime focus. In recent era, the focus of leadership has shifted from personality traits to the involvement of the team in the formation of good leadership within the institutions. The leadership approach that evolved from this time period to the present includes the following theories: Pre 1900, “the Great Man”; 1940-1950, Trait theories and Behavioural theories, based on role theory and the managerial grid; 1970’s, Contingency Approach and Situational leadership theory; 1980’s, Transformational leadership (charismatic leadership) (Morley, 2001 and retrieved June 20, 2006: from URL syque.com, changingminds.org and creatingminds.org 2002-2006).

**Great man theory**

The assumption regarding this kind of leader, according to Morley (2000), is that they are born and not made and that these great leaders will arise when there is a great need. Thus, early research on leadership was based on the study of people who were already great leaders. These people were often from the aristocracy, as few from lower classes had the opportunity to lead. This contributed to the notion that leadership had something to do with breeding (Morley, 2000).

The idea of the Great Man also strayed into the mythic domain, with notions that in times of need, a Great Man would arise, almost by magic. This was easy to verify, by
pointing to people such as Eisenhower, Martin Luther King, Adolph Hitler and Churchill, not to mention those further back along the timeline, even to Jesus, Moses, Mohammed and the Buddha. However, Morley (2000) says that gender issues were not on the table when the 'Great Man' theory was proposed. Most leaders were male and the thought of a Great Woman was generally in areas other than leadership. Most researchers were also male, and concerns about androcentric bias were a long way from being realized (syque.com, changingminds.org and creatingminds.org, 2002-2006). This theory is similar in nature to the trait theory, which attempts to discover some universal traits that distinguished great leaders from others, and is presented next.

**Trait theory**

The trait theory lies on the assumption that people are born with inherited traits, some of which are particularly suited to leadership (Law & Glover, 2000). It assumes that people who make good leaders have the right (or sufficient) combination of traits. The early research on leadership was based on the psychological focus of the day, which was of people having inherited characteristics or traits. Attention was thus put on discovering these traits, often by studying successful leaders, but with the underlying assumption that if other people could also be found with these traits, then they, too, could also become great leaders.

Stogdill (1974) identified the following traits and skills as critical to leaders, listed below in table 2.2
Table 2.2 The traits and skills of trait theory

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Traits</th>
<th>Skills</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adaptable to situations</td>
<td>Clever (intelligent)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alert to social environment</td>
<td>Conceptually skilled</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ambitious and achievement-oriented</td>
<td>Creative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assertive</td>
<td>Diplomatic and tactful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cooperative</td>
<td>Fluent in speaking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decisive</td>
<td>Knowledgeable about group task</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dependable</td>
<td>Organized (administrative ability)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dominant (desire to influence others)</td>
<td>Persuasive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Energetic (high activity level)</td>
<td>Socially skilled</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Persistent</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-confident</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tolerant of stress</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Willing to assume responsibility</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Retrieved on June 23, 2006 from: http://www.changingminds.org/index.htm/)

McCall and Lombardo (1983) researched both success and failure identified four primary traits by which leaders could succeed or 'derail'. These include:

- Emotional stability and composure: calm, confident and predictable, particularly when under stress;
- Admitting error: owning up to mistakes, rather than putting energy into covering up;
- Good interpersonal skills: able to communicate and persuade others without resorting to negative or coercive tactics;
- Intellectual breadth: able to understand a wide range of areas, rather than having a narrow (and narrow-minded) area of expertise.

There have been many different studies of leadership traits and they agree only in the general qualities needed to be a leader. For a long period, inherited traits were sidelined, as learned and situational factors were considered to be far more realistic as
reasons for people acquiring leadership positions. Then researchers shifted focus, in the same era, to behavioral theory that defines leaders.

It should be noted that paradoxically, research into twins who were separated at birth along with new sciences such as Behavioral Genetics have shown that far more is inherited than was previously supposed (McCall and Lombardo, 1983). Perhaps one day researcher might find a 'leadership gene'.

**Behavioral theory**

This theory has the assumption that leaders can be made, rather than born and that successful leadership is based in definable, learnable behavior (Law & Glover, 2000). The Behavioral theories of leadership do not seek inborn traits or capabilities. Rather, they look at what leaders actually do. If leadership success can be defined in terms of describable actions, then it should be relatively easy for other people to act in the same way. It is easier to teach and learn behaviors than to adopt the more ephemeral 'traits' or 'capabilities'.

The Behavioral theory is a big leap from Trait Theory, in that it assumes that leadership capability can be learned, rather than being inherent. This opens the floodgates to leadership development, as opposed to simple psychometric assessment that sorts those with leadership potential from those who will never have the chance ((Law & Glover, 2000).

According to empirical studies a behavioral theory is relatively easy to develop, as one simply assesses both leadership success and the actions of leaders (Law & Glover, 2000). Behavioral theory encompasses two other types of theories. First is role theory which assumes that people define roles for themselves and others based on social learning and reading; people form expectations about the roles that they and others will play; people subtly encourage others to act within the role expectations they have for them; and people will act within the roles they adopt. Second is the managerial grid which assumes that leaders may be concerned about their people and they must also have some concern for the work to be done. As a result, leadership theory in the 1960s began to focus on the Situational theory and the Contingency Approach of leadership and how
they could be better managed to aid in leadership effectiveness. This theory will be discussed next.

**Situational leadership**

The situational leadership assumptions state that the best action of the leader depends on a range of situational factors. Whenever a decision is needed, an effective leader does not just fall into a single preferred style, such as using transactional or transformational methods. In practice, things are not that simple (Law & Glover, 2000). Factors that affect situational decisions include motivation and capability of followers. This, in turn, is affected by factors within the particular situation. The relationship between followers and the leader may affect leader behavior as much as it does follower behavior.

The leaders' perception of the follower and the situation will affect what they do rather than the truth of the situation. The leader's perception of themselves and other factors such as stress and mood will also modify the leaders' behavior.

Yukl (1989) seeks to combine other approaches and identifies six variables:

1. **Subordinate effort**: the motivation and actual effort expended.
2. **Subordinate ability and role clarity**: followers knowing what to do and how to do it.
3. **Organization of the work**: the structure of the work and utilization of resources.
4. **Cooperation and cohesiveness**: of the group in working together.
5. **Resources and support**: the availability of tools, materials, people, etc.
6. **External coordination**: the need to collaborate with other groups.

(Retrieved from: http://www.changingminds.org/index.htm/).

Leaders here work on such factors as external relationships, acquisition of resources, managing demands on the group and managing the structures and culture of the group. Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958) identified three forces that led to the leader's action: the forces in the situation, the forces in the follower and also forces in the leader. This recognizes that the leader's style is highly variable, and even such distant events as a family argument can lead to the displacement activity of a more aggressive stance in an

Maier (1963) noted that leaders not only consider the likelihood of a follower accepting a suggestion, but also the overall importance of getting things done. Thus in critical situations, a leader is more likely to be directive in style simply because of the implications of failure.

The situational leadership theory encompasses three related theories that are similar in this domain. These are Hersey and Blanchard’s Situational Leadership (cited in Morrow, 1999) Vroom and Yetton’s Normative Model (Vroom & Yetton, 1973) and House’s Path Goal theory of Leadership (House, 1971 & Evans, 1970). Following this theory is the contingency theory which has similar focus.

**Contingency theory**

According to Law and Glover (2000) the contingency theory assumes that leader's ability to lead is contingent upon various situational factors, including the leader's preferred style, the capabilities and behaviors of followers and also various other situational factors. The contingency theories are a class of behavioral theory that contends that there is no one best way of leading and that a leadership style that is effective in some situations may not be successful in others. An effect of this is that leaders who are very effective at one place and time may become unsuccessful either when transplanted to another situation or when the factors around them change. This helps to explain how some leaders who seem for a while to have the 'Midas touch' suddenly appear to go off the boil and make very unsuccessful decisions.

Empirical based have said that contingency theory is similar to situational theory in that there is an assumption of no simple one right way. The main difference is that situational theory tends to focus more on the behaviors that the leader should adopt, given situational factors (often about follower behavior), whereas contingency theory takes a broader view that includes contingent factors about leader capability and other variables within the situation.
The contingency theory includes works from Fiedler's Least Preferred Co-worker (LPC) Theory (Fiedler, 1964), Strategic Contingency Theory (Hickson, Hinigs, Lee, Schneck, & Pennings, 1971), and Cognitive Resource Theory (Fiedler, & Garcia, 1987). The evolution of these theories have shaped the formal educational system particularly in the area of training administrative leaders. Next, the research of leadership in education will be discussed, along with its impact in development.

The Effects of Formal System and Leadership in Education

According to Maxcy (1991), historically researches have tended to view leadership in terms of three theoretical constellations: leadership as trait: leadership as behavior; and leadership as a function of culture/climate (p.5). Therefore, any philosophy of leadership must rest upon the physical and social environment in which it is developed.

The current focus on leadership in the changing context of school leadership, according to Harris, et al. (2003), stems from the need to cope with discontinuous and accelerating change. Educational development over the last decades has been framed by socio-political context characteristics by growing consumerism, a developing knowledge revolution, increasing globalization and intensified competition, increasing global turbulence and the growing use of regulatory power as a frame for business practices. Altogether the increasing demands of the administrations in schools are multifaceted (p.11-12). Therefore, the leadership style employed must be a result of the immediate surroundings.

Hughes & Ubben (1987) identifies that the role of principals, community and organizations may vary from place to place, but that the functions which must be managed by the principals are similar, irrespective of the location or how large the student body is. These ideas imply that principal-ship in certain locales is homogenous in management, but the execution might vary to a certain degree. The instructional leadership role of the principal discussed by Hughes & Ubben (1987) states that principals have immediate influence on the internal structure of the systems. The schools’ internal system includes its instructional practices, organizational structure, climate and culture (Harris, et al., 2003; Hughes & Ubben, 1987). These researchers
illustrated that the interrelationship of these factors are important influential components that work together to influence students’ outcomes and the system as a whole.

Maxcy (1991) reiterated that during the past decades the debate about educational leadership has been dominated by a contrast between the ‘transactional leadership’ and ‘transformational leadership’ approaches. Hence, it is the underlying focus of this study to identifying these characteristics of principals employed in secondary education institutions in Belize. Complimenting this study, the research also looked at the impact of gender on leadership in education. Thus, the proceeding sections highlight literature findings in the area of the impact of gender on educational leaders.

The Impact of Gender on the Practices of Leadership in Educational

According to Brundett, Burton & Smith (2003) leadership in education, as in most fields, is identified with men. Although there is a gradual increase in the numbers of women who are reaching leadership positions, the basic social assumptions, based on the distribution of power in society, endorse men as leaders and identify women as subordinate roles. Brundett, Burton & Smith (2003) state, “we can accept on a rational level that men and women are equally equipped to managed and lead” (p.45).

The concept of flexibility is particularly emphasized with respect to gender issues in educational leadership and management, which according to Law & Grover (2000), is a growing area of focus and research for both policy makers and practitioners. Historically, however, it has often been assumed that women managers were inclined naturally towards people, relationship and transformational management approaches, while men would adopt more task-oriented transactional approaches (Law & Grover 2000; Brundett, Burton & Smith, 2003). Needless to say, that perception about the interplay between gender and the new managerialist agenda is highly contested (Law & Grover 2000). The underlying patterns of style indicated by gender gives an insight into characteristics that can be possible compared between genders in the study.

As is seen above, integral to understanding how leadership works is to understand the impact of leadership, gender and formal educational system on the behaviour of
individual. Thus, this awareness of functioning leadership in reaching the goals of the organization in an effective manner, while serving the interest of others is the leadership style of the day. Bass’ (1994) integrated approach is an attempt to identify and develop effective leaders for the current situations. The following section reviews the main literature that drives the discussion of the research which focuses on the leadership style that is popular today, i.e. transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles, presented and investigated by Bass, 1994 and Bass and Avilio 1994 and widely used in various research of leadership across numerous disciplines.

**Transformational, Transactional and Laissez-Faire Leadership Theory**

According to Bass (1994), over the last decade, theories about transformational leadership have taken shape for all levels of organizations and society. Transformational leaders motivate others to do more than they originally intended and often even more than they taught possible. These leaders set more challenging expectations and typically achieve higher performance. Here, Bass (1994) continues to emphasize that transformational leadership is an expansion of transactional leadership or exchange that takes place among leaders, colleagues and followers. Then laissez-faire leadership is the absence of leadership. Table 2.3 below shows the factors found in each case.
Table 2.3 The leadership styles used in the study and their related characteristics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leadership Style</th>
<th>Characteristics associated with these Styles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Transformational Leader</td>
<td>Idealized influence or charisma, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Transactional Leader</td>
<td>Contingency reward, management by Exception-active and management by Exception-passive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Laissez-faire Leader</td>
<td>Absence of leadership, nothing is transactional and nothing is transformational</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Constructed with information gathered from Bass and associates (1994)

Transformational leadership theory

Based on empirical evidence as well as theoretical reasoning, Bass (1994) proposed that transformational leadership behaviour employs one or more of the “four I’s” to achieve superior results. The “four I’s” includes; idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration.

Idealized influence is the type of leadership that behaves in ways that result in their being a role model for their followers. The leaders are admired, respected and trusted. Followers identify with the leaders and want to emulate them. Among the things the leader does to earn this credit is considering the individual needs of others. The leader shares risks with followers and is consistent rather than arbitrary. He or she can be counted on to do the right thing, demonstrating high standards of ethical and moral conduct. He or she avoids using power for personal gain and only when needed.

Inspirational motivation is the type of behaviour where leaders motivate and inspire those around them by providing meaning and challenge to their followers. Team spirit is aroused. Enthusiasm and optimism are displayed. The leader gets followers involved in envisioning attractive future states. The leader creates clearly communicated
expectations that followers want to meet and also demonstrates commitment to goals and the shared vision.

Intellectual stimulation is the type of behaviour that leaders show which stimulates their followers’ efforts to be innovative and creative by questioning assumptions, reframing problems, and approaching old situations in new ways. Creativity is encouraged. There is no public criticism of individual members’ mistakes. New ideas and creative problem solutions are solicited from followers, who are included in the process of addressing problems and finding solutions. Followers are encouraged to try new approaches, and their ideas are not criticized because they differ from the leaders’ ideas.

Individualized consideration is the type of behaviour in which leaders pay special attention to each individual’s needs from achieving and growth by acting as coach or mentor. Followers and colleagues are developed to successively higher levels of potential. Individualized consideration is practiced as follows: New learning opportunities are created along with a supportive climate. Individual differences in terms of needs and desires are recognized. The leader’s behaviour demonstrates acceptance of individual differences (e.g., some employees receive more encouragement, some more autonomy, and others finer standards.) Two-way communication is encouraged and interaction with followers are personalized (e.g., leaders remember previous conversations, are aware of individual concerns and see the employees as a whole person and not as an employee). The leader delegates tasks as a means of developing followers and the tasks are monitored to see if the followers need additional direction or support and to assess progress; ideally followers do not feel they are being checked on.

Recent research has shown that transformational leadership has been one of the most effective leadership styles in business, military, educational institutions, and non-profit organizations. There was a higher rate of transformational leadership among innovative school principals as opposed to less innovative school principals (Leithwood and Steinbach, 1991). Naval officers who were rated as transformational leaders by their subordinates earned recommendations for early promotion and better fitness reports from their superiors (Yammarino and Bass, 1990). Transformational leadership was high among business managers whose department achieved financial success (Howell and
Managers who exhibited transformational leadership earned better performance evaluation from committees of their superiors that did those not exhibiting transformational leadership (Hater and Bass, 1988).

**Transaction leadership style**

According to Bass & Avolio (1994) transactional leaders occurs when the leader rewards or disciplines the follower depending on the adequacy of the follower’s performance. The transactional leadership style depends on contingent reinforcement, either positive contingent reward (CR) or the more negative active or positive forms of management-by-exception active (MBE-A) or management-by-exception passive (MBE-P).

A CR passive form has been found to be reasonably effective, although not as much as the four I’s in motivating others to achieve higher levels of development and performance. With this method, the leaders assigns or gets agreement on what needs to be done and promises rewards or actually rewards others in exchange for satisfactorily carrying the assignment.

Management-by-exception is a behavioural practice that tends to be more ineffective but required in certain situations. In MBE-A, the leader arranges to actively monitor deviances from standards, mistakes, and errors in the follower’s assignment and to take corrective action as necessary. The MBE-P implies waiting passively for deviances, mistakes, and errors to occur and then taking corrective action.

**Laissez-faire leadership style**

According to Bass & Avolio (1994) Laissez-faire (LF) leadership style is the avoidance or absence of leadership and is, by definition, the most inactive-as well as the most ineffective according to almost all research on the style. As opposed to transactional leadership, laissez-faire represents a non-transaction.

The three leadership styles described in the extensive literature give rise to the full range model presented by Bass & Avolio (1994) as the newest model to measure
leadership. The model is complemented by questionnaire designed by Bernard, Bass, Bruce & Avolio (1994) (cited in We Son, 2003).

**Full-range leadership style model**

Empirical work by Bass & Avolio (1994), presented the newest model of the theory and the way it is measured and explicated, thus resulting in an updated model of transformational leadership with a broader array of factors. Numerous studies have used this model to test the leadership styles. The newest model to be tested is now referred to as the “full-range-of-leadership model”. The model includes highly active forms of leadership (i.e., transformational and contingency reward leadership), moderately active forms of leadership (i.e., management-by-exception active) and finally inactive and passive leadership (manage-by-exception passive and laissez-faire leadership). According to Bass, active leadership should be displayed more often than passive leadership and it is active leadership that will lead to higher performance and greater satisfaction with the leader.

In recent publication of Thomas (2003) stated that leadership styles of community school principals 2002-2003 were more dominantly transformational leadership style with no statistically significant difference between demographic data of management and years with the styles. Even though the data gathered showed demographic data had no influence, research is still needed to test these factors with the Belizean context. Archibold (2004) used the full-range model to test administrative managers; the results showed that administrative managers were transformational leaders while the subordinate, production managers, were noted as being transactional. Another researcher (Arnold, 2004) used the full-range model to test leaders and found out that Black leaders are more transformational than Caucasian leaders in meta-analytic examination, therefore he suggested in his conclusion that leadership style may be most efficacious in an ethnically plural context. His findings also indicated that no gender differences existed among Black leaders in leadership style. What these researchers’ results had in common was the fact that the majority of the upper leaders in the systems exhibited transformational leadership style while gender was not related to leadership.
Figure 2.1 shows the three dimensional model representing how frequently an individual displays a particular style. In figure 2.2, the leader infrequently displays LF leadership and increasing frequencies of MBE-P, MBE-A, and CR. This optimal profile in figure 2.1, shows the transformational Four I’s as they are most frequently displayed (Bass & Avolio, 1994)

The study used the full range model by Bass & Avolio (1994) which presented the Multifactor Leadership Factors (MLF) for determining the leadership style of secondary school principals in Belize. The model then developed an instrument that gauged the leadership constructs of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Bass & Aviolo, 1996, cited in We Son, 2003 & cited in Baldygo, 2003). The MLQ was used in the study to answer the hypothesis in the research design. However, the MLQ was modified from the original version to explore the leadership style in the context of the present study.