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Gender Perceptions of Administrative Team Members Regarding Secondary Principals' Leadership Actions and Behaviors in Managing Change

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Gender Perceptions of Administrative Team Members Regarding Secondary Principals'
Leadership Actions and Behaviors in Managing Change

A Dissertation

Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the
University of New Orleans
in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy
in
Educational Administration

by

Shannon Lachlin Verrett

B.S. Austin Peay State University, 1994
M. Ed. University of New Orleans, 1998

December 2012

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DEDICATION

As it is written, “eye has not seen, nor has ear heard, neither has it entered into the heart of man, the good things which God has in store for them who love him. But God has revealed them unto us by his Spirit, for the Spirit searches all things, yea, the deep things of God” (1Corinthian 2:9-10 New King James Version).

Words cannot express the joy I feel at this moment in time. Truly, God exceeded my level of expectations a long time ago. As I approach the closing of the most meaningful educational journey of my life, I am reminded of a comment made to me by my high school counselor. “Son, you don’t have what it takes to go to college.” Thank God, I did not listen to her words of discouragement!

One of the major reasons why those debilitating words did not cripple me is because of the ‘love in action’ from my mother. My mother has always been the type of person in my life, who had high standards and demanded the best from me. She encouraged me to study and work hard; if I needed additional help, she made sure that I received the assistance needed. Because of her love and advocacy, I have achieved this great accomplishment today. Therefore, I dedicate this degree to Mrs. Mary Lee Harris-Verrett, my loving mother.

An old cliché states, “Behind every good man, there is a good woman.” This is not the case in my life, for she stands securely beside me. My “hazelnut brown sugar” has supported and believed in me when I did not believe in myself. Her prayers, words of encouragement, and soothing presence gave me the strength to continue on the doctoral path. Because of her endless love, unending support, and daily encouragement, I dedicate this degree to Mrs. Betty Austin Verrett, my wife and lover for 26 years and counting.

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Southwest School District

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Abstract

This cross-sectional survey study investigated middle and high school administrative team members' leadership classifications and perceptions of secondary principals' leadership actions and behaviors in the context of change and to what extent these perceptions are gender specific. In addition to gender, the study also examined the impact of race/ethnicity, age, campus level, length of employment in the district, length of time working with the principal, and closeness to the principals on leadership actions and behaviors. The results of the study are intended to highlight the importance and value of feminine-inspired leadership approaches and administrative team members' perspectives of leadership in managing and leading the change process.

The study targeted the leadership actions and behaviors of 39 middle school and 28 high school principals assigned to traditional secondary schools in the southwestern United States. Administrative team members' perceptions of secondary school principals' approaches to leadership served as the basis for the study, which investigated whether administrative team members perceived principals' leadership actions or behaviors in a change context to be gender specific. Male and female administrative team members (n=210) were surveyed using the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ), Form XII – fourth revision (Ohio State University, 1962). Based on survey results, secondary principals were classified as dynamic, considerate, passive, and structured leaders as rated by administrative team members using the LBDQ.

The results of the study revealed that gender and school level of administrative team members did not influence the classification of secondary principals as dynamic, considerate, passive, or structured leaders. The ratings of those principals perceived as dynamic were statistically significantly higher than those of principals as passive and structured leaders. Out of 62 secondary principals, administrative team members classified principals as follows: dynamic leaders 63% (n=39), considerate leaders 5% (n=3), passive leaders 16% (n=10) and structured

leaders 16% (n=10). Additionally, dynamic leaders received a statistically significant higher rating of closeness to principal when compared to passive and structured leaders. The findings of the study, which illuminate the perspectives of administrative team members with regard to secondary school principals, have implications for informing research on school leadership as well as educational leadership practices.

Keywords

Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ), Initiating Structures, Consideration, System-Orientation, Person-Orientation, 12 Subscales, Leadership Classifications, Gender, Gender Perceptions, Educational Leadership, Secondary Principals, Administrative Team

Members

CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

Educational leaders (K-12) are under extreme pressure to improve public schools across the United States of America. Such efforts are driven in part by the accountability demands of the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act of 2001, signed into law by President George W. Bush, and the Blueprint for Reform initiative implemented under President Barack Obama (2009). The importance of the school leader in determining a school's success has a long-standing research base and wide acceptance among practitioners (Leithwood et.al, 2004; Walters et.al, 2003). Principals' skills and capabilities are significant contributors in managing and leading change in public schools. In light of the current educational landscape, leaders are challenged to demonstrate their leadership abilities in different ways and in a shorter window of time.

Change is inevitable. However, change for the sake of change, is not reform. Educational reform should facilitate a positive shift in school culture, student progress and overall organizational structures (Elmore, 2004). Although there are no silver bullet leadership strategies to speak of, effective leadership may be the single most important element for changing or turning around low performing schools. Due to the critical role of the school leader in managing and leading change on secondary campuses, consideration must be given to the knowledge and skills that research tells us are vital in facilitating change and increasing student outcomes regardless of the persisting norms.

Various leadership styles have proven successful in the past. However, research (Davis, S., Darling-Hammond, L., LaPointe, M., & Meyerson, D., 2005; Darling-Hammond, L., LaPointe, M., Meyerson, D., Orr., M. T., & Cohen, C., 2007, McREL, 2007) shows there are specific skills, actions, and behaviors of leaders that are more positively correlated with successful schools than with failing schools. Research also states that the lead candidates must possess vision, value and passion as demonstrated by "star" principals who successfully lead within an urban context (Haberman, 1999). Potential male and female principal candidates

will be judged on the criteria of essential knowledge and skills required to facilitate the change process.

Historically, males have dominated the principalship. However, a growing presence of females in leadership has become a reality at the secondary level. With respect to acquiring critical knowledge, skills and dispositions, expectations and definitions for leadership success at the secondary school site level follow gender specific lines (Nixon, 2006). Yet, feminine-inspired educational leadership approaches are both collaborative and systematic in nature and definitely support the trends of educational reform today. Progressive educational change is possible. However, effective male and female school leaders are needed for the future success of America's youth.

In addition, there are policy and practice considerations with regard to male and female principals' leadership actions and behaviors within the context of managing and leading the change process. Districts across the nation are challenged by the collision of theory and practice which leads to delays in the transformation of failing districts and schools. From a policy view point, districts may desire educational leadership approaches that are more feminine-inspired and connected to emotional competencies because they are based in honesty, development, communication, reflection, and collaboration (Jensen, Kohn, Rilea, Hannon, & Howells, 2007). These approaches are warm, friendly, people-centered, and balanced in a purposeful and businesslike manner. Yet in practice, districts may recruit and hire school leaders who are withdrawn, who devalue support and development, who have disconnected lines of communication; and who are irrational, isolated, and ultimately top-down in their leadership approaches. These types of internal practices, which factor feminine-inspired leaders out of the selection process, can contribute to the limited number of females who secure the campus principalship.

Due to the increasing number of women who are now serving as secondary campus principals, one would anticipate a paradigm shift in terms of the way leaders look, sound, act,

and are perceived, as well as a different understanding and awareness of gender issues in educational leadership (Sanchez & Thornton, 2010). To that end, this study examined gendered perceptions of middle and high school administrative team members with regard to secondary principals' leadership actions and behaviors. The focus of the study was to investigate whether administrative team members perceived principals' leadership actions or behaviors in a change context to be gender specific.

Statement of the Problem

Historically the principalship has been occupied and dominated by men, particularly at the middle and high school levels (Sanchez & Thornton, 2010). Stereotypical gender norms persist in America's schools (NCES, 2007; Sanchez & Thornton, 2010) although more than 26% of secondary principals are women (NCES, 2007). In a society where gender identities carry so much meaning in terms of how we view ourselves and how others view us, it is not surprising that societal beliefs affect perceptions of leadership (Brown, 2005). These beliefs serve to validate and deepen distorted perceptions and stereotypes and impact how male and female subordinates view school leaders.

A plethora of educational research studies has been used to shape what is thought of as effective leader behaviors. Such results are often drawn from and based on the behaviors of male principals (Shakeshaft, Brown, Irby, Grogan & Ballenger, 2007). Feminine-inspired educational frameworks are both collaborative (able to build and maintain relationship) and systematic (able to complete task) in nature and can provide another viable option to define, inform, and shape appropriate leadership actions and behaviors of secondary campus leaders. However, current educational leadership frameworks that are less collaborative and more isolated remain the primary option to frame what are determined as effective leader behaviors for new and existing campus leaders (Mahitivanichcha & Rorrer, 2006). This is problematic when consideration is given to the growing presence of female principals in schools across America. In addition, the limited representation of the feminine voice, perspective, and

leadership approaches will further devalue the impact of female campus leaders and their contributions to the field of education.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this cross-sectional survey study was to investigate whether male and female administrative team members perceived principals' leadership actions (intentional next steps) and behaviors (styles or approaches) in the context of change differently based on gendered normative expectations (Stogdill, 1963; Hoy & Miskel, 1991; Grossman & Wood, 1993; Nixon, 2006). In addition, the study examined whether the gender of the team member influenced the perception of the leadership actions and behaviors of the principals. Therefore, the following research questions guided this study:

- 1. Does the gender of the principal and/or the gender of the administrative team members influence members' ratings of principal leadership actions and behaviors?*
- 2. Are there differences in how administrative team members classify the leadership styles of male and female principals?*
- 3. Do other variables, such as school level, length of time working with the principal, and perception of closeness, influence the classification of the principals' leadership styles?*

The members of the administrative team rated leadership actions and behaviors of their middle or high school principal. Based on these ratings, the principals were classified by different styles on two dimensions – system-oriented or person-oriented.

Importance of the Study

The presence of feminine-inspired leadership approaches and the perspectives of leadership held by administrative team members remain underrepresented in the literature, while many of the research studies conducted in the field of educational leadership have been based on male dominant models in the absence of the voice of administrative team members (Sanchez & Thornton, 2010). This is problematic when consideration is given to the growing number of women who are becoming school principals in the United States of America as well

as to the limited number of research studies that acknowledge the impact that women educational leaders make to the field. The findings of this study have the potential to inform the utilization of a feminine-inspired educational leadership framework which is both collaborative (able to build and maintain relationship) and systematic (able to complete task).

With regard to the perspectives held by administrative team members, they are practically ignored in educational research literature (Mulford, 2003). Studies which include administrative teams focus mostly on teachers' perceptions of their working conditions and job satisfaction as impacted by members of the administrative team (Guramatunhu-Mudiwa & Bolt, 2012). Mulford (2003) contends that school leadership that facilitates change is both position based (principal) and distributive based (administrative team members), yet the distributive voice of administrative team members may be under-represented.

In the present study, an administrative team is described as an assistant principal, dean, counselor, instructional coordinator, instructional specialist, team leader and/or department head. The members of this team work very closely with the principal (who is responsible for effectuating change) on the day-to-day operations of the school. In most cases, the team members are aware of the challenges and obstacles that campus principals may face. Administrative team members may also be aware of the benefits and rewards associated with running secondary schools. Yet, their perspectives are not captured in the literature, hence the gap in the literature. The perceptions of administrative team members could provide very intriguing perspectives regarding leadership actions and behaviors of secondary school principals, managing and leading the change process.

Background of the Study

From 2001 to 2009, the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act of 2001 was the federal government's effort to improve the educational landscape for America's students. This change initiative focused its attention on increasing accountability for student performance, identifying educational research based strategies and best practices, reducing educational bureaucracy

and increasing flexibility, and empowering parents (NCLB, 2001). NCLB (2001) forced school districts to revisit, recalibrate, and realign existing ways of providing an education to the students they serve.

Under NCLB, state educational agencies and school districts had to establish seamless processes to maintain compliance according to the law. The law required compliance by school districts to meet adequate yearly progress (AYP), meet performance objectives, provide school choice options for parents and students of failing schools, and reconfigured standardize testing for K-8 schools (NCLB, 2001). In addition, schools and educational agencies that received Title 1 funding, if out of compliance, risked sanction and/or a reduction in funding (NCLB, 2001). The implementation of NCLB pressed school districts to examine their approach to educating students in the US. This examination led to standardized testing of students' skills in order to determine their academic progress, the identification and implementation of instructional strategies expected to yield proven student outcomes, and the implementation of fluid systems of operation that support parental engagement and empowerment. However, one of the most significant concerns under NCLB for school districts was the identification of campus principals who were equipped to manage and lead change during this era.

Although President Barack Obama did not reauthorize the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) of 1965, he unveiled the American Recovery and Reinvestment Act (ARRA) in 2009. The act cites four specific goals: to improve teacher and principal quality, to provide families with assistance to improve the learning atmosphere, to implement college and career-readiness standards, and to improve student outcomes for low-performing schools. In alignment with ARRA of 2009, the Obama administration initiated the Blueprint for Reform (March 2010). The Blueprint for Reform initiative overhauled significant priorities of NCLB. The revamped priorities of this initiative include college and career-ready students, great teachers and leaders in every school, equity and opportunity for all students, raising the bar and rewarding excellence, and promoting innovation and continuous improvements.

As a result of the Blueprint for Reform initiative, some districts across the nation have aligned educational standards to reflect the common core areas of reform. More specifically, these educational standards favored an effective teacher in every classroom, an effective principal in every school, data-driven decision making, rigorous instructional practices, and a culture of trust built through action (USDOE, 2010). The alignment of district's educational standards with the core areas of the Blueprint for Reform initiative have caused a major shift in the way many districts conduct business.

In 2004, Marshall (2004) predicted that the field of school leadership would be repopulated by 2010 and vacancies would need to be filled. The people who have already filled and will fill these vacancies in the future will necessarily be required to engage in leadership practices which may appear very different from those that characterized past times. One might anticipate that these new leaders be representative of our culturally diverse society and potentially exemplify a more equitable gender representation in the field of educational leadership. As a matter of record, the number of women seeking the principalship has already increased, and women are pursuing the position as vigorously as their male counterparts (Mahitivanichcha & Rorrer, 2006).

There is a disproportionately low number of women who are occupying the principalship at the secondary levels (Holloway, 2000; Loder, 2005; Young & McLeod, 2001). With regard to the trend among women public school administrators, the US Department of Education (1997) cites an increase from 25% in 1988 to 34% in 1994. According to the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES, 2007), from 2003 to 2004, the percentage of female public school principals increased from 41% to 56% in elementary schools and from 14% to 26% in secondary schools. Although these increases demonstrate progress in terms of the percentage of women obtaining high-level school leadership positions, when compared to the percentages of women in teaching roles, there is a significant disparity (Sanchez & Thornton, 2010). In 1991, women accounted for 68.3 percent of the teaching population, and from 2003 to 2004 that

percentage increased to almost 75% (NCES, 2007). The reporting of annual data helps to establish trends across the field of education through a broader lens. However, federal and national organizations, including the National Center for Education Statistics, do not collect or report annual school principal data by gender. As such, it is extremely difficult to establish trends over time (Shakeshaft, Brown, Irby, Grogan, & Ballenger, 2007).

K-12 schools in the U.S. are governed by practices and policies colored by the gendered perceptions of educational and school leaders. In part, these perceptions may be linked to preferred masculine models of educational leadership within the United States of America. School leadership has been a male-dominated area for some time, and females have been challenged to “rise above” existing societal norms for women in order to fit into more widely accepted and well-defined leadership roles, which are often perceived as inflexible and unreasonable (Coleman, 2003; Larusdottir, 2007; Sanchez & Thornton, 2010).

In terms of style, leadership actions and behaviors of male campus leaders remain the fundamental standard. But, in recent years a paradigm shift that favorably considers feminine attributes of school leaders has occurred (Nixon, 2006). In Coleman’s (2003) study, for example, both males and females, when allowed to select descriptors that best convey who they are selected “managers and leaders”, which suggests leadership styles that may be systems and relationship based. In addition, male and female leaders selected other terms like “caring, intuitive, and tolerant” which may be regarded as female-inspired. Almost equal in proportion, 40% of women and 39% of the men who responded identified themselves as “collaborative or people-centered” (Coleman, 2003, pp. 335-336). Yet, when given a choice of adjectives, women selected words more autocratic in nature and men more collaborative in nature; other adjectives that males and females may have selected included “efficient” and “valued”. Male and female leaders’ choices of self-descriptive adjectives suggest that their self-perceptions are gendered.

The paradigm shift alluded to previously may be indicative of a trend suggesting that leadership approaches that are more feminine in essence are needed to frame or re-frame approaches to managing and leading change in schools across America. Perceptions associated with feminine-inspired approaches are more collaborative in nature and based in relationship building. Women, who are thought to be caring, tolerant, and gentle individuals are implementing feminine leadership approaches to lead change on K-12 campuses. The aggressive, assertive, and direct approaches which are more associated with masculine models of leadership may be losing ground as the primary framework for what is thought of as effective leader actions and behaviors (Bem, 1974; Gray, 1993); Kruger, 2008).

Male and female school leaders are expected to have the essential knowledge, skills, and dispositions required to manage and lead the change process (McREL, 2005). Administrative team members of school campuses who are seeking effective campus principals to take the helm and lead may hold perceptions that principal candidates lack the “talent” (intangible skills like honesty, support, dependability, etc.) (Rath & Conchie, 2008) and “fit” (further insight to talent, and its appropriateness in terms of match for campuses in the midst of or needing change) (Gordon, 2007) desirable for the principalship. The administrative team members may also perceive that aspiring campus principals lack the focus, situational awareness, and beliefs held by “rock star” principals who can lead schools within challenging environments (Haberman, 1999, 2002; Waters & Cameron, 2004, 2007).

Male campus principals are and have been managing and leading the change process for America’s secondary schools for quite some time, with the results being indicative of marginal improvements at best. The impact of female leadership in the field of education has been sparsely noted in educational research. Educational researchers are exploring new and innovative ways of improving student success at the secondary levels (Eckman, 2004; Marzano, Waters, & McNulty, 2005; McREL, 2004, 2007; Noddings, 1984).

The approach clarified in Noddings' (1984) work titled *Caring: A Feminine Approach to Ethics and Moral Education* is consistent with Hurty's (1995) five elements of power that could foster positive change whether led by male or female campus principals. These elements of power are *emotional energy* (which may translate to campus principals who sincerely express their thoughts and feelings in a transparent way), *nurtured growth* (which may be exemplified through campus principals who strategically operate from a continuous improvement model despite minimal growth), *reciprocal talk* (potentially represented by campus principals who attentively listen and learn from the perspectives of others), *pondered mutuality* (a practice which might be demonstrated in the work of campus principals who reflectively consider how work assignments will impact team members), and *collaboration* (which is indicative of campus principals who work in concert with administrative team members, faculty, staff, and other stakeholders). Noddings suggests that male and female principals who work strategically and deliberately within these five elements of power could be interpreted as utilizing both system-oriented (i.e. task) and person-oriented (relationship) approaches.

The leadership approaches under consideration, in terms of what currently characterizes best practices in leadership, appear to be less masculine and compliance driven and more feminine and collaborative in essence (Eckman, 2004). To that end, the participants in this study, administrative team members who work closely with campus principals, were asked to complete the LBDQ survey to rate their secondary school principals as system-oriented or person-oriented leaders based on their perceptions of how these leaders manage and lead the educational change process.

Definition of Terms and Phrases

Below is a list of terms and phrases included in the dissertation that provide clarity in order to increase understanding and awareness of some of the gender-specific issues in educational leadership:

- **Principalship** – person primarily responsible for leading and managing the overall operation of a school site (Davis, S., Darling-Hammond, L., LaPointe, M., & Meyerson, D., 2005).
- **Feminine-inspired educational frameworks** – educational leadership approaches based on female experiences, actions, and behaviors that may be collaborative, reflective, sensitive to emotional connections, people-centered, growth-influenced, and relational (Coleman, 2003; Noddings, 1984; Mahitivanichcha & Rorrer, 2006).
- **Gender issues in educational leadership** – perceptions of challenges or obstacles encountered by the males and females gender (Shakeshaft, 1988, 1999).
- **Leadership** – ability to lead, guide, direct, or influence individuals or groups of people (Northouse, 2001).
- **Leadership Styles** – the ways or approaches used to lead, guide, direct, or influence individuals or groups of people (Northouse, 2001).
- **Male dominated** – A majority in number, controls, or influences (Sanchez & Thornton, 2010).
- **Educational Reform** – a change in policy, practice, or organization that leads to deep, systemic, and sustained restructuring of public schools.
- **Collaborative** – involving the integration of work or effort toward common goals (Abele, 2011).

Delimitations and Limitations

The scope of this study was confined to 39 middle and 28 high school principals rated by administrative team members assigned to their secondary schools. Administrative team members, who had worked with the campus principals for at least six months or longer, were included in the research study. Due to specific variations in configuration of administrative teams; administrative team members assigned to traditional elementary, kindergarten through

eighth grade, early college high schools, and charter schools were not included in this study. Therefore, leadership actions and behaviors of principals assigned to elementary, K-8, early college, and charter schools were not examined. The administrative teams assigned to traditional middle and high schools were more consistent in the number of members assigned to their campus-based administrative teams. It was common for traditional secondary campuses to have at least five to seven members to their administrative teams; whereas traditional elementary, K-8, early college high schools and charter schools may have had administrative teams of two to three members.

CHAPTER II: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

In light of the relatively recent paradigm shift prioritizing gender equity, civil rights, and social justice within the educational and larger societal context, it is essential to highlight literature describing the educational landscape, concepts related to leadership styles, current themes in gendered educational leadership issues, and gendered differences in leadership styles. This literature review focused on leadership approaches, concepts, and gender perspectives in school leadership that have shaped what is referred to as effective leader behaviors.

Educational Landscape

No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act 2001

The No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act of 2001 was the federal government's attempt to improve the educational landscape by increasing national educational standards for America's students. NCLB was signed into the law on January 8, 2002, by President George W. Bush. States across the nation aligned educational priorities and standards with the tenets of this newly signed law. This educational reform initiative placed emphasis on increasing accountability for student performance, identifying educational research based strategies and best practices, reducing educational bureaucracy and increasing flexibility, and empowering parents (U.S. House Document 107-34).

Under NCLB, state educational agencies and school districts had to establish seamless processes to maintain compliance according to the law. Schools that failed to show adequate yearly progress (AYP) for disadvantaged students could lose Title I funding after three years (U. S. House Document 107-34, p. 8). Furthermore, states that failed to meet their performance objectives were likely to face reduction in federal funding for administrative expenses (U. S. House Document 107-34, p. 10). In addition, parents and students had the option to choose another school if their school was classified as a school in need of improvement (NCLB, 2001). This caused overcrowding in schools receiving new students and increased expenses for school

districts in the areas of hiring additional personnel, building expansion, etc. (Bracey, 2003). Some schools were reconfigured from traditional K-5 (elementary) and 6-8 (middle) to K-8 (combining elementary and middle schools). Under the new configuration, K-8 schools were considered elementary, and testing for grades 3 through 8 was required. Although some states absorbed the cost, several districts incurred the cost of purchasing additional tests for grades 4, 6, and 7 (Bracey, 2003). Finally, schools classified as Title I, if out of compliance for three or more years, risked certain sanctions, including a requirement that school districts offer supplemental educational services at a district's expense and/or that states close schools, or replace part or the entire school staff (NCLB, 2001).

The implementation of NCLB pressed school districts to examine their approaches to educating students in the US. This examination led to standardized testing of students' academic skills. Consequently, school districts soon discovered that students' performance on standardized tests was alarmingly low; therefore, immediate accountability and interventions were required. As a result, student performance was linked to teacher effectiveness, as well as to the identification and implementation of instructional strategies that yielded proven student outcomes. However, one of the most significant concerns under NCLB for school districts was the identification of campus principals who were equipped to manage and lead change during this era.

The implementation of NCLB crystallized the challenges campus principals faced in the midst of managing or leading change in America's schools. Author and researcher, G.W. Bracey (2003), strongly criticized the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act of 2001 in Chapter 1 of his book, *On the Death of Childhood and the Destruction of Public Schools*. In this work, he refers to the Act as a "trap" and a set-up for the failure of public schools. He states that the provisions outlined by NCLB are "impossible-to-meet" and that Annual Yearly Progress (AYP) is also difficult, if not impossible, for schools to attain simultaneously in each of the seven categories (special education; limited English proficiency; race: black, white, Hispanic;

economically disadvantaged; and all students). Former superintendent of schools and researcher, Mathis (2003), concurred with this thinking, stating, “There is no body of knowledge that says that all students and all subgroups of students can reach meaningful high standards, at the required AYP pace ...” (p. 683).

In addition, Bracey (2003) pointed out that, although the federal government promised to provide funding for NCLB, it was slow to do so. Perhaps there should have been an increase in public spending for K-12 education in order to fund NCLB (Mathis, 2003). It is estimated that a 20% to 35% increase of funding received from 2001 to 2002 could have supported the unfunded mandates passed down to school districts (Mathis, 2003).

Blueprint for Reform

The Blueprint for Reform is the most recent reauthorization of the Elementary and Secondary Act of 1965 (ESEA) signed by President Barack Obama in 2009. The Blueprint for Reform is an overhaul of the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act of 2001 and builds on reforms already highlighted by the American Recovery and Reinvestment Act of 2009. The reform effort aims to improve the quality and effectiveness of teachers and campus principals, to provide families with access to information that will empower them to improve the instructional environment and schools for children, to employ the use of rigorous standards that are aligned with college and career-ready principles and quality assessments, and to address student progress and achievement concerns of students who attend the lowest-performing schools by providing targeted interventions and support (ESEA Blueprint for Reform, 2010).

To accomplish its goal of educational reform, the Blueprint revamped the key priorities that facilitated competitive college readiness standards; highly effective teachers and leaders in schools, equitable educational opportunities for all students, increased rigor and performance incentives, and continuous improvement and innovation (ESEA Blueprint for Reform, 2010; Kerins & Perlman, 2008). The college-readiness standards priority may be accomplished by raising the standards for all students, providing better assessment for learning, and a well-

rounded educational experience (ESEA Blueprint for Reform, 2010; Kerins & Perlman, 2008). The highly effective teachers and school leaders' priority can be achieved by recruiting, training, and retaining the best and brightest teachers and school leaders, placing teachers and school leaders where they are needed most, and strengthening the knowledge, skills, and dispositions of teachers and school leaders to serve in high-needs schools (ESEA Blueprint for Reform, 2010; Kerins & Perlman, 2008). The equitable educational opportunities priority for all students can be attained by providing rigorous and fair accountability at all levels, meeting the individual and specific needs of all students (to include diverse learners), and assuring greater equity within and among schools (ESEA Blueprint for Reform, 2010; Kerins & Perlman, 2008). The increased rigor and performance incentives priority can be accomplished by providing monetary incentives such as Race to the Top money, providing school choice, and promoting a culture of college readiness and success (ESEA Blueprint for Reform, 2010; Kerins & Perlman, 2008). The continuous improvement and innovation priority can be leveraged by fostering innovation and acceleration by supporting, recognizing, and rewarding local innovations, and by supporting student success (ESEA Blueprint for Reform, 2010; Kerins & Perlman, 2008).

As the re-authorization became law, some districts aligned educational standards and priorities to reflect the Blueprint for Reform initiative. However, unlike NCLB, the Blueprint for Reform appears to be based in a "strengths" model as opposed to a "deficit" model. Whereas NCLB looked at penalizing states and districts for being non-compliant and handing down unfunded mandates, the Blueprint for Reform has allocated multi-million in grant funding to help districts prepare America's students to succeed in an beyond K-12 schooling. This funding positioned district to seek out school leaders who possess the knowledge, skills, disposition, passion, and talent, and values, the "strengths", needed to provide change for our nation's students. In addition, the Blueprint also prioritized the exploration of innovative ways to increase college readiness and access, place an effective teacher in every classroom, hire an effective principal for every school, and use data to drive instructional practices and the

identification of meaningful interventions (ESEA Blueprint for Reform, 2010; Kerins & Perlman, 2008). To that end, school leaders who can confidently operate within the possibilities of the Blueprint for Reform initiative are expected to experience greater success in managing and leading the change process; particularly if they utilize leadership approaches characterized by more collaborative and inclusive systematic processes (Kerins & Perlman, 2008).

As the educational landscape continues to shift, so does the face of the principalship. The knowledge, skills, and dispositions needed of male and female campus principals under NCLB may not be the same skill-set required for the Blueprint for Reform initiative. The shift from NCLB to the Blueprint for Reform initiative may require additional knowledge, skills, and dispositions that integrate both systems and relationships in managing and leading change. These blended approaches may be reflected in the seven major dimensions described as the roles and responsibilities of the campus principal.

Principalship

As a result of dramatic reform-based shifts designed to improve public education in America's current educational landscape, there are essential knowledge, skills, and dispositions required for current and aspiring school leaders to experience success in the principalship while managing or leading the change process. The roles of the principalship have been transformed from those associated with a building-centered manager to include seven major associated dimensions. The dimensions include the principal as leader, principal as instructional leader, principal as change agent, principal as supervisor, principal as manager, principal as politician, and principal as school climate developer (Davis, S., Darling-Hammond, L., LaPointe, M., & Meyerson, D., 2005; Darling-Hammond, L., LaPointe, M., Meyerson, D., Orr., M. T., & Cohen, C., 2007).

Principal as leader. Consistency among school districts is lacking, particularly in terms of what is considered key, in terms of the role of the campus leader (Waters & Cameron, 2007). Additionally, there is concern that the role of the principal as "leader" requires significant

clarification so that colleges of education and other principal certifying agencies can align and improve curriculum, training, and development programs for individuals who aspire to the principalship (Davis, S., Darling-Hammond, L., LaPointe, M., & Meyerson, D., 2005; Darling-Hammond, L., LaPointe, M., Meyerson, D., Orr., M. T., & Cohen, C., 2007). Role clarification, however, presents a challenging task since some literature (Davis, S., Darling-Hammond, L., LaPointe, M., & Meyerson, D., 2005; Darling-Hammond, L., LaPointe, M., Meyerson, D., Orr., M. T., & Cohen, C., 2007) asserts that the principalship is largely idiosyncratic in nature. Elementary and secondary principals' leadership actions and behaviors differ by gender (male and female), school levels (elementary, middle, and high schools), and demographics (urban, suburban, or rural).

Principal as instructional leader. Principal leadership does make a difference in improving instruction (Waters & Cameron, 2007). However, principals may not be effectively managing or leading instruction as they aspire to because of challenges that present themselves while leaders balance compliance tasks with instructional responsibilities. Some campus principals associate this challenge with the lack of understanding and awareness of the role of instructional leaders held by executive level leadership who place top-down compliance demands on principals. Training for executive leadership and central office personnel may be needed to communicate what highly effective instruction looks like, and what the commitments of faculty and staff must be for them to understand, teach, and test the approved curriculum (Marzano, Waters, & McNulty, 2005). Such training has the potential to reduce the amount of external distraction often imposed by district offices.

Principal as change agent. Principals are the change agents on K-12 school campuses. Campus leaders play a critical role in leveraging reform and change in every classroom on the campus (Marzano, Waters, & McNulty, 2005). Once a shared vision for change has been established, it must be supported, and effectively communicated with enthusiasm to others within and outside of the school community. Selling the idea of what could

be to decision-makers and decision-influencers requires gaining buy-in and involvement of faculty and staff members for foundational change to take place (Waters & Cameron, 2007).

Principal as supervisor. Principals spend less time supervising instructional practices and programs in comparison to other duties (Waters & Cameron, 2007). Supervision of faculty and staff is critical to improving the quality of the instruction delivered in K-12 classrooms. Educators agree, 'it is a vital function of the principalship' (Marzano, Waters, & McNulty, 2005). It is a major concern of school leaders in terms of time and resources available to successful principals to perform this function. While there seems to be some disagreement in research concerning what type of assessment should be considered (i.e., formative or summative), what is clear is that the principals should be the primary formative or developmental supervisor of faculty and staff members (McREL, 2007).

Principal as manager. Principals need to spend more time managing the instructional programs on K-12 campuses (Marzano, Waters, & McNulty, 2005). Campus leaders can accomplish this by establishing highly effective, efficient teams with strong systems and processes in place. The literature (e.g. Davis, S., Darling-Hammond, L., LaPointe, M., & Meyerson, D., 2005; Darling-Hammond, L., LaPointe, M., Meyerson, D., Orr., M. T., & Cohen, C., 2007) supports that principals and school leadership teams that schedule formal and informal classroom visits assessing the written, taught, and assessed curriculum have a better grasp on student progress and achievement. Schools which utilize research-based reforms and programs are more likely to have instructional programs characterized by clearly defined learning objectives, high level performance standards, and considerable individualized instruction (Marzano, Waters, & McNulty, 2005).

Principal as politician. Principals occupy key political positions in communities whether these positions are desired or not. One of the most common aspects of the principalship is linking the school to its surrounding community (McRel, 2007). The school leader has been referred to as a pillar in the community and reasonably well-respected by its

members. The principal's ability to understand and connect with a community is a powerful mechanism and contributes to the critical success of school campuses (Matthews & Crow, 2003).

Principal as school climate developer. Principals are the primary climate controllers on school campuses. Considerable emphasis has been placed on school climate and effectiveness. A focus on school climate in isolation does not influence student outcomes, but principals whose leadership can ignite the mission, vision, and values of a school campus are key to establishing a school climate that is purposeful (McREL, 2007). Schools with purposeful climates have established systems and processes in place. Resources are strategically and deliberately aligned with the needs of the school campus. School goals are inclusive of all stakeholders (faculty, staff, students, parents, and community), and a sense of belief that the school as a whole can accomplish its mission, vision, and operate from core values is key in establishing a purposeful and successful climate (Marzano, Waters, & McNulty, 2005; McREL, 2007).

Concepts Related to Leadership Styles

Transformational Approach

There are assumptions associated with male and female leaders that contribute to some of the existing distorted views regarding leadership actions and behaviors. One could suppose that men are more autocratic, and women more transformational because of the greater attention to the relational aspect that women exhibit, but without concrete data, this is mere speculation (Eckman, 2004; Noddings, 1984; Sanchez & Thornton, 2010). Therefore, research focused on leadership styles can provide greater insight into the concepts associated with leadership and the influence of gender on the perceptions of leadership styles.

Transformational leadership has been the focus of research study since the early 1980s. The term, *transformational leadership* was coined by Downton (1973) and evolved from Burns' (1978) work on transactional leadership. In the literature, transformational leadership is referred

to as visionary leadership, strategic leadership, and charismatic leadership (Bass, 1990; Hersey et al., 1996; Northouse, 2001).

Transformational leadership motivates followers to go beyond the call of duty by raising followers' knowledge and understanding of the goal, as well as by getting followers to place personal agendas behind them and place the good of the team first while working to have followers address higher level needs (Bass, 1985). Bass's model defines seven factors as contributing to leadership. Each of these seven is defined within one of three parts - - transformational leadership, transactional leadership, or laissez-faire leadership that fall onto a continuum (see Figure 1 below).



Figure 1. The Bass Leadership Continuum (Adapted from "Leadership and Performance Beyond Expectations," Bass, 1985)

Each of these leadership styles varies within the continuum, from the laissez-faire leader representing a lack of leadership presence to transformational leaders who are concerned with the growth of their subordinates. Transformational leaders acknowledge that such factors as idealized influence (charisma), inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration will move an organization farther than transactional leadership (Northouse, 2001). According to Bass (1985), a transactional leader is concerned with the group, but is not concerned with the development of individuals. On the other hand, a laissez-faire leader has little to no concern for employees or the task at hand.

The transformational approach has many merits, the strongest being that leadership not only acknowledges followers as influential and important parts of the organization but also suggests that positive exchanges between leaders and followers are how organizations move. The more the needs of the followers are met and developed, the further the organization will

progress. Critically, this conceptual model is the most ambiguous of all previously described. Also, as Bryman (1992) points out, most of the data supporting transformational leadership are qualitative in nature. Therefore, the transference of the findings from organization to organization is questionable. Considering gender as a factor in transformational leadership is equally difficult to transfer because of the lack of empirical data.

McREL Balanced Leadership Framework

As the educational landscape continues to shift and the need for more effective school leaders increases, there are additional opportunities to quantifiably examine the impact of leadership on managing and leading change within schools across America. An examination of the impact of leadership on school success can provide greater insight to the field of education in the area of leadership styles and approaches (McREL, 2007). Not surprisingly, school districts across the United States are implementing the McREL Balanced Leadership Framework as an approach to increase school leader effectiveness district-wide.

The McREL Balanced Leadership Framework consists of three major domains: focus of leadership, magnitude of change, and purposeful community. To develop the framework, McREL conducted a factor analysis to understand the nature of the relationships among factors. The analysis consisted of a 92-item online survey and responses from 652 principals. It's purpose was to examine principals' emphasis on leadership responsibilities, their use of the associated practices, responses to change, the relationship of change to leadership responsibilities, and the inter-correlations among the responsibilities. From the study, the 21 leadership responsibilities and 66 associated practices were identified and aligned with the domains.

McREL's research is internationally known for findings that directly link the impact of leadership to student progress and achievement (Waters & Cameron, 2007). The McREL findings computed the average effect of leadership at the school level, specifically labeled actions and behaviors of school leaders as responsibilities that had statistically significant

effects on student progress and achievement, revealed that leaders who are rated as effective by subordinates may not produce positive impacts on student achievement; noted a relationship between leadership and change, revealed that the 21 leadership responsibilities are all positively correlated with change perceived as first order; and documented that 11 of the 21 responsibilities are both positively and negatively correlated with change perceived as second order (McREL, 2007).

There are eleven leadership responsibilities that are positively and negatively correlated with second order change. The leadership responsibilities that are positively correlated with change perceived as second order are knowledge of curriculum, instruction, and assessment, optimize, intellectual stimulation, change agent, monitor/evaluate, flexibility, ideals/beliefs (Marzano, Waters, and McNulty, 2005). Leadership responsibilities that are negatively correlated with change perceived as second order are culture, communication, order, and input (Marzano, Waters, and McNulty, 2005). Marzano, Waters, and McNulty (2005) contend that knowledge of curriculum, instruction, and assessment is based on the conceptual guidance, principals must provide teachers. To that end, second-order change is defined, in part, as the acquisition of new knowledge. School leaders must be intellectually aware of best practices associated with curriculum, instruction, and assessment in order to provide appropriate guidance that may be needed by staff members in order to be successful.

Marzano, Waters, and McNulty (2005) contend that principals, who lead change perceived as both negative and second order, are most noticed in culture, communication, order, and input. Administrative team members, faculty, staff, students, and other stakeholders may verbalize a shift away from shared mission, vision, and values; resulting in a decrease in the flow of information, a breakdown in systems and processes, and fewer opportunities to collaborate with colleagues (Waters & Cameron, 2007). To that end, any leader who has dealt with implications of what is perceived as second-order change understands that these responsibilities should not be ignored or disregarded when managing and leading change. In

fact, deliberate steps to fulfill the leadership responsibilities of culture, communication, order, and input may be appropriate when managing and leading change with second-order implications.

Domains and responsibilities. The domains associated with the McREL's Balanced Leadership Framework are aligned with specific leadership responsibilities. The leadership domains describe targeted areas of school improvement that will impact instruction (Waters & Cameron, 2007). The leadership responsibilities directly aligned with identifying the right focus on a school campus are: contingent rewards, discipline, focus, involvement in curriculum, instruction, and assessment, order, outreach, and resources (McREL, 2007). The magnitude of change domain, for example, describes the level of involvement, understanding the implications associated with change efforts, and the ability to adjust leadership actions and behaviors accordingly (McREL, 2007). The leadership responsibilities directly associated with managing and leading change on a school campus are change agent, flexibility, ideals and beliefs, intellectual stimulation, knowledge of curriculum, instruction, and assessment, monitor and evaluate, and optimize (McREL, 2007). The purposeful community domain describes the communal belief that goals can be accomplished through the appropriate use of tangible and intangible resources, by identifying and establishing outcomes that matter to all parties, and through agreed-upon processes (McREL, 2007). The leadership responsibilities directly linked to building a purposeful community are affirmation, communication, culture, input, relationships, situational awareness, and visibility (McREL, 2007). Ideals and beliefs are also associated with building a purposeful community because it may be challenging for a school leader to effectively work toward creating a community that is purposeful, without revealing core values, thoughts and feelings. Although certain responsibilities are specifically aligned with a particular domain, effective school leaders are expected to operate within all 21 leadership responsibilities in concert (Marzano, Waters, & McNulty, 2005).

Sixty-six associated practices. The 66 associated practices are the research-based leadership actions and behaviors specific to the leadership responsibilities for school administrators (Waters & Cameron, 2007). Below you will find the leadership responsibilities and associated practices that describe effective leader behaviors of school administrators. These leadership responsibilities and associated practices are categorized according to the three balanced leadership framework domains. Tables 1, 2, and 3 provide a description of the associated practices by domains.

Table 1**Focus of Leadership Responsibilities and Associated Practices**

Leadership Responsibilities	Associated Practices
Contingent Rewards	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Use performance verse seniority as the primary criteria for rewards and recognition • Use hard work and results as the basis for rewards and recognition • Recognizes individuals who excel
Discipline	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Protects instructional time from interruptions • Protects/shelters teachers and staff from internal and external distractions
Focus	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Establish high, concrete goals and expectations that all students meet them • Establish high, concrete goals for curriculum , Instruction, assessment practices within the school • Establishes high, concrete goals for the general functioning of the school. • Continually keeps attention on established goals
Involvement in Curriculum, Instruction, and Assessment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is directly involved in helping teachers design curriculum activities and assessment and instructional issues.
Order	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provides and reinforces clear structures, rules, and procedures for teachers and staff • Provides and reinforces clear structures, rules, and procedures for students • Establishes routines for the effective running of the school that teachers and staff understand and follow
Outreach	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ensures the school complies with all district and state mandated. • Is an advocate of the school with the community at large • Is an advocate of the school with parents • In an advocate of the school with central office
Resources	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ensures that teachers and staff have the necessary materials and equipment • Ensures that teachers and staff have the necessary professional development opportunities that directly effect their teaching

Note. Seven of the twenty-one leadership responsibilities and associated practices aligned with focus of leadership (McREL, 2007).

Table 2**Magnitude of Change Leadership Responsibilities and Associated Practices**

Leadership Responsibilities	Associated Practices
Change Agent	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Consciously challenges the status quo. • Is willing to lead change initiatives with uncertain outcomes. • Systematically considers new and better ways of doing things. • Consistently attempts to operate at the edge versus the center of the school's competence.
Flexibility	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is comfortable with making major changes in how things are done. • Encourages people to express diverse opinions contrary to those held by individuals in positions of authority. • Adapts leadership style to the needs of specific situations. • Is directive or non-directive as the situation warrants
Ideals and Beliefs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Possesses well-defined beliefs about schools, teaching, and learning. • Shares beliefs about school, teaching, and learning with the teachers and staff. • Demonstrates behaviors that are consistent with beliefs
Intellectual Stimulation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Keeps informed about current research and theory on effective schooling. • Continually exposes teachers and staff to cutting-edge research and theory on effective schooling. • Fosters systematic discussion regarding current research and theory on effective schooling
Knowledge of Curriculum, Instruction, and Assessment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Possesses extensive knowledge about effective curricular, instructional, and assessment practices. • Provides conceptual guidance regarding effective classroom practices
Monitor and Evaluate	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Continually monitors the effectiveness of the school's curricular practices. • Continually monitors the effectiveness of the school's instructional practices • Continually monitors the effectiveness of the school's assessment practices • Remains aware of the impact of the school's practices on student achievement
Optimize	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provides and reinforces clear structures, rules, and procedures for teachers and staff • Is the driving force behind major initiatives • Portrays a positive attitude about the ability of teachers and staff to accomplish things that might be beyond their grasp

Note. Seven of the twenty-one leadership responsibilities and associated practices aligned with magnitude of change (McREL, 2007).

Table 3**Purposeful Community Leadership Responsibilities and Associated Practices**

Leadership Responsibilities	Associated Practices
Affirmation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Systematically and fairly recognizes the accomplishments of teachers and staff • systematically and fairly recognizes and celebrates the accomplishments of students • Systematically and fairly recognizes the failures of and celebrates the accomplishments of the school as a whole
Communication	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is easily accessible to teachers and staff • Develops effective means for teachers and staff to communicate with one another • Maintains open and effective lines of communication with teachers and staff
Culture	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Promotes a sense of well-being among teachers and staff • Promotes cohesion among teachers and staff • Develops an understanding of purpose among teachers and staff • Develops a shared vision of what the school could be like • Promotes cooperation among teachers and staff
Ideals and Beliefs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Possesses well-defined beliefs about school, teaching, and learning • Shares beliefs about school, teaching, and learning with the teachers and staff • Demonstrates behaviors that are consistent with beliefs
Input	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provides opportunities for teacher and staff input on all important decisions • Provides opportunities for teachers and staff to be involved in developing school policies • Uses leadership teams in decision making
Relationship	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Is informed about significant personal issues within the lives of teachers and staff • Maintains personal relationships with teachers and staff • Is aware of the personal needs of teachers and staff • Acknowledges significant events in the lives of teachers and staff
Visibility	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Makes systematic and frequent visits to the classroom • Is highly visible to students, teachers, and parents • Has frequent contact with students

Note. Seven of the twenty-one leadership responsibilities and associated practices aligned with purposeful community (McREL, 2007).

As previously noted the McREL's Balanced Leadership Framework is a fluid system that works in sync across each of the domains. More specifically, the leadership framework domain

entitled managing the magnitude of change also works seamlessly with the five elements of power that may facilitate positive change. The elements of power are *emotional energy, nurtured growth, reciprocal talk, pondered mutuality, and collaboration* (Noddings, 1984). This proposed study will examine to what extent male and female principals are engaged in leadership actions and behaviors that lead to managing the magnitude of change on middle and high school campuses as perceived by members of their administrative teams.

Gallup's PrincipallInsight™

In an attempt to find new ways of identifying and developing school leaders who are equipped to handle rapid change, Gary Gordon (2006), in his book *Building Engaged Schools*, highlights the Gallup's PrincipallInsight™ which measures the elusive talent dimensions of great principals and uses these measures to predict success in the principalship. The PrincipallInsight™ was developed by the Gallup Organization (2004) using qualitative and quantitative research methods which included focus groups of the best principals in Chicago, IL; Washington, DC; Lincoln/Omaha, NE; Los Angeles, CA; Mobile, AL; and Princeton, NJ.; and the development of a pilot assessment which contained 228 items, 73 multiple choice, 151 Likert, and 4 open-ended questions. The best principals in each of the cities mentioned above were encouraged to complete the administration of a web pilot assessment. The assessment was provided to supervisors and teachers, and then the ratings were compared to the principals' final performance evaluations. The performance evaluations were used to determine if alignment existed between principals' talents and the components of the district's school leader evaluation. The quantitative data collected were used to develop a field assessment which contained 131 items, 33 multiple choice, 96 Likert, and 2 open-ended questions which led to the final version of the Gallup's PrincipallInsight™.

Gordon (2006) contends that the critical attributes which truly set exceptional principals apart from the mainstream, stems from their innate qualities like beliefs, motivation, and ways of relating, adaptability, and orientation toward continuous improvement. These talents, combined

with existing knowledge and skills, may create strengths that lead to stellar campus outcomes. Districts across the United States of America hold similar assumptions regarding the primary knowledge, skills, and dispositions needed to be a successful campus principal (Rath & Conchie, 2008). A varying combination of skills is probably needed more now than ever before (Coleman, 2003).

Sometimes, outstanding principals do not fully recognize their path to success because the talents they operate in are natural to them (Gordon, 2006). They intuitively distinguish those aspects of running a school that are aligned with their strengths, and they also identify those areas that may need to be better addressed by delegating to other members of the administrative team. To that end, the school leader begins to develop a sense of self-awareness and begins to surround himself or herself with complementary talents, which adds value and potentially results in a stronger and more effective team. High productivity and effectiveness occur as a result of using knowledge and skills in exceptional ways based on the talents present and available within the school, beginning with the campus principal (Rath & Conchie, 2008). Similarly, other outstanding campus principals may achieve the same outcome, but their approach to attaining the goal may appear different. If a person's natural talents are matched with the demands of the principal's role at a particular campus, that leader can grow in the position.

According to Gallup (2004), aspiring principals who have the talent (as determined by the predictive information gained from the Principallnsight) for the principalship should be the top candidates in consideration for selection in the next wave of school-based educational leaders. Although some districts continue to seek school leaders with impressive compliance-management skills, Gordon (2006) contends that skills can be taught but talent cannot. The single most common mistake regarding professional development is the attempt to "teach" those qualities recognized as innate qualities to an individual in whom these qualities simply are not present. In some cases, these attempts are used to compensate for poor hiring decisions.

Therefore, districts provide additional training and support to individuals who do not possess the talent for the position, and as a result, time and resources are wasted. With the new demands on campus principals, the bar has been raised for school leaders with the necessary knowledge and skills, but the demand has also increased for school leaders with the talent for the principalship (Rath & Conchie, 2008). To that end, the PrincipallInsight™ expanded its research to examine the descriptive measure of talent and “fit”.

Gallup describes Principal “FIT” as **F**urther **I**nsight into **T**alent (Gallup, 2004). The further insight into talent questionnaire is administered as an interview protocol designed to gain greater insight about the principal candidate according to the predictive “talent” identified by the PrincipallInsight. The Gallup (2004) “FIT” interview protocol captures descriptive information in *motivation* (the candidate communicates a vision of what can be, a strong work ethic, or achieving goals collectively), *relationships* (the candidate communicates the importance of friendships, acknowledging the feelings of others, helping and working with others to grow and develop, or a sense of responsibility and personal ownership), and *impacting the school* (candidate communicates the belief of teaming and teamwork, recovering quickly from failures, celebration and excitement, ensuring that individuals have what they need to do their jobs, or task driven).

Gordon (2006) contends that existing and aspiring campus principals, whether male or female, who have the talent for the position should receive the top job, the principalship. According to Gordon (2006), principals and principal candidates who have talents like vision, the ability to relate to others, and positivity combined with further insight to talent may be better poised to manage and lead change within the current educational landscape. The concept of “talent” and “fit” is significant in terms of how male and female administrative team members perceive the leadership actions and behaviors of secondary school principals engaged in the change process.

Style Approach

Although there are more recent measures and tools that can be utilized to identify, match, assess, and develop school leaders, many of these measurements and tools lack the capacity to rate effective leadership actions (strategic next steps) and behaviors (style or approach utilized). Unlike the McREL Balanced Leadership Framework which focuses on leadership responsibilities and the Gallup PrincipallInsight™ which measures the talent and “fit” of leaders, the style approach to leadership continues to provide a relevant and significant conceptual foundation to rate leader effectiveness as determined by the actions and behaviors of school leaders. In addition, different from the talent approach, the style approach gave importance to the perceptions of subordinates in the relationship.

Many researchers have utilized a framework about leadership that encompasses two general dimensions: task behavior and relationship behavior. Northouse (2001) effectively defines *task and relationship behaviors* as follows: “Task behaviors facilitate goal accomplishment: they group members to achieve their objectives. Relationship behaviors help subordinates feel comfortable with themselves, with each other, and with the situation in which they find themselves” (p.35). Researchers have also sought to describe and analyze how leaders’ behaviors fell along these two dimensions. Studies conducted at Ohio State University, the University of Michigan, and the development of the Blake and Mouton’s Managerial (Leadership) Grid are the most often discussed (Bass, 1990; Hersey et al., 1996; Howell & Costley, 2001; Hoy & Miskel, 1991; Northouse, 2001). A more in depth discussion of each of these studies is provided below.

Studies conducted by Ohio State University. Studies of leadership at Ohio State University started in the 1940’s and expanded the research work of Stogdill (Hoy & Miskel, 1991). The Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LDBQ) was first developed by Hemphill and Coons (Stogdill, 1963) and designed to measure the behaviors exhibited by leaders. Using a framework similar to the one described above, the study utilized two terms to describe

leaders' behaviors. *Initiating structure* described any behavior that related to patterns of organization, channels of communication, and procedures. The term *consideration* was used to describe any behavior that indicated "friendship, trust, warmth, interest, and respect in the relationship between the leaders and members of the group" (Hoy & Miskel, 1991, p. 262).

From the LBDQ (Stogdill, 1963), four leadership styles emerged: the dynamic leader, the passive leader, the structured leader, and the considerate leader. The dynamic leader was characterized by above average scores on both consideration and initiating structure. The passive leader had scores that were below average on both areas. The structured leader was characterized by above average scores for initiating structure but below average for consideration. And, the considerate leader was defined by scores that fell below average for initiating structure but above average for consideration. Figure 2 provides a representation of the LBDQ model.

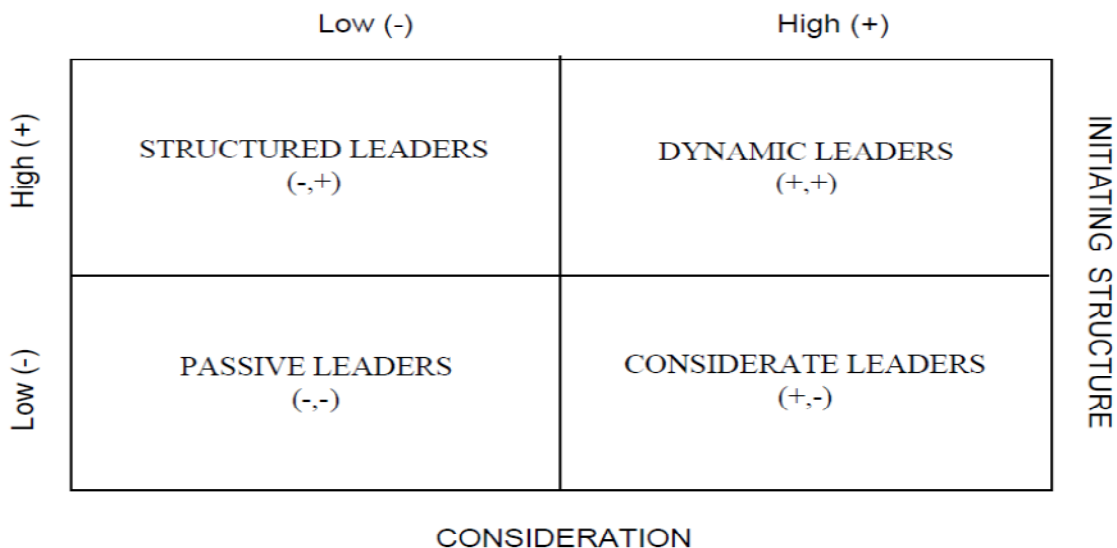


Figure 2. Leadership Styles Formed by Using the LBDQ (Adapted from "The Ohio State Leadership Project," Stogdill, 1963; Hoy & Miskel, 1991)

Studies conducted by the University of Michigan. While the LBDQ was being designed at Ohio State University (OSU), the University of Michigan Survey Research Center was conducting research on leadership behavior as it related to business and industry. Similar

to the OSU study, two styles of leadership emerged: *production-oriented* and *employee-centered* (Bass, 1990; Hersey et al., 1996; Howell & Costley, 2001; Hoy & Miskel, 1991; Northouse, 2001). Production-oriented leaders were characterized by behaviors that stressed the technical and production aspects of their work. Employee-centered leaders were described as taking an interest in the human side of work where there was a strong emphasis on the people doing the work rather than the work being done. The employee-centered leader was similar to the considerate leader as identified in the OSU study and the production-oriented leader, to the passive, structured leader.

The limitation of both of these programs of study was that they looked at leaders' behaviors and defined them according to an either/or scale. Today we know that leadership encompasses work in both areas. Once again, gender was not a consideration of these studies. As previously stated, this becomes problematic because the fundamental differences between males and females were still not recognized, in part because females in positions of leadership were still sparse during the time of these studies.

The Managerial/Leadership Grid

The Managerial Grid is a model developed in the early 1960s by Robert Blake and Jane Mouton. The model is more recently referred to as the Blake and McCauley's Leadership Grid (Blake and McCauley, 1991). The Grid offers leaders a way of communicating with their subordinates more effectively by helping them become cognizant of their own leadership style. To that end, the Leadership Grid identifies five different types of leaders in a quadrant type organization like that of the OSU study. However, the Grid utilizes the terms *concern for production* (task) and *concern for relationship* (people) as its axes. Although the labels for each type of leader differ slightly in the literature, Figure 3 provides an illustration of the five styles.

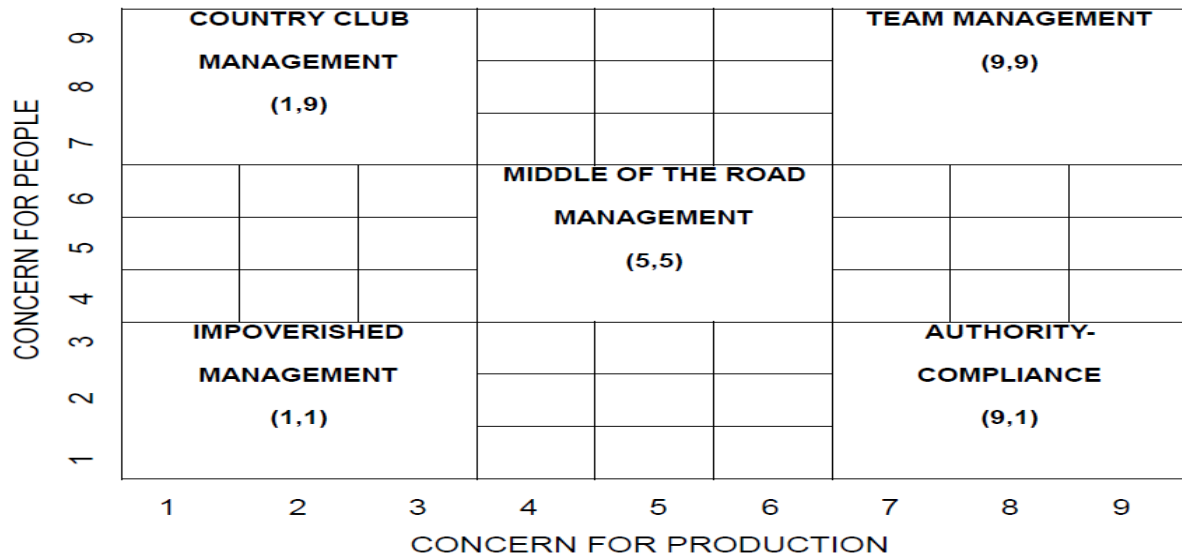


Figure 3. The Managerial/Leadership Grid (Adapted from “Leadership Dilemmas – Grid Solutions,” Blake & McCauley, 1991)

Blake and McCauley (Blake & Mouton, 1964; Hersey et al., 1996; Northouse, 2001)

describe five styles of leadership which include: impoverished management, authority-compliance, middle of the road management, country club management, team management. The *impoverished management* style leader is one who exerts the least amount of effort required to get the job finished. This leader is unconcerned with the task or relationship involved in his/her work and could be described as apathetic. The *authority-compliance management* style leader believes that individuals are instruments for getting the job completed. There is little to no contact with the people within the work environment or organization. This type of leader could be described as controlling and demanding. The *middle of the road management* style leader has interest in both the people and the organization while accomplishing the task. He/she tends to give attention to the needs of the employees while still emphasizing what is required for task completion. This type of leader could be described as one who compromises. The *country club management* style leader believes that a positive climate is most important to an effective organization, even at the cost of limited or delayed production. Therefore, the social, emotional, and physical needs of the workers are met. This

type of leader could be described as a people pleaser or one who is eager to help others. The *team management* style leader operates under the assumptions that work gets finished when people are committed to not only their work, but other people in the organization. There is a common purpose in the organization; and relationships are mutually respectful. This type of leader could be described as one who enjoys working and is committed to making work a positive experience for all members of the work community.

The style approach offers many merits to the study of leadership including the vast amount of research conducted, and the fact that within this approach, leadership becomes a tangible entity. Leaders can learn about how they behave in the work environment and adapt themselves accordingly to grow and change their style. However, a limitation of this approach is that there is no universally accepted style of leadership that one can utilize in all situations to achieve maximum effectiveness.

Moreover, at the time these studies were conducted, females were not commonly acknowledged as leaders. Therefore, the assumption exists that these styles are inherently framed from a masculine model. It is only when we begin to discuss societal expectations and commonly held gender stereotypes that we begin to identify “people” behaviors that are more common to women and “task” as those more common to men. Blake and Mouton’s (1964) work is the first study to begin to acknowledge a possible blending of task and relationship behaviors.

Current Themes in Gendered Educational Leadership Issues

Although numerous researchers have questioned why females have failed to enter school administration at the same rate as their male counterparts (Howell, 1985; Loder, 2005; Sanchez & Thornton, 2010; Shakeshaft, Brown, Irby, Grogan, & Ballenger, 2007; Young & McLeod, 2001), several general explanations are predominant in the literature. First, through the occupational socialization process (i.e., the method of learning the informal network and intricacies to an organization), women have been taught they are to work as teachers; their role is to teach, and they should aspire to nothing further (Mahitivanichcha & Rorrer, 2006; Riehl &

Byrd, 1997). This level of socialization is believed to begin first with departments of education as the first level of professional socialization. This theory coincides with the belief that sex-role stereotypes are prevalent not only throughout society in general, but are well engrained into educational society as well (Eagly, Karau, & Johnson, 1992; Riehl & Byrd, 1997). All the rules of the game of education, customs of position, and ways of operation in the role were first described and defined by the societal rules of the dominant culture (Schaefer, 1981; Shakeshaft, 1989). That is, men painted the picture of what an effective school leader should look like.

Consequently, women and ethnic minority members of society have assimilated to the role of educational leader according to the predetermined norms defined by a masculine leader. Moreover, women have had to reframe their thinking and responses as educational leaders within a more dominate cultural model in order to navigate the existing organizational terrain. These reframed sets of behaviors are in conflict or inconsistent with gender-based stereotypes surrounding the role of woman as leader. These behaviors do, however, follow the “rules” defined by the male culture. This becomes particularly problematic when job responsibilities, daily interactions, priorities, perceptions, and job satisfaction are situated in the forefront of discourse (Shakeshaft, 1989). Those same-sex role stereotypes have led to the assignment of a higher social value to behaviors that are characterized as masculine rather than feminine. Men are perceived to lack interpersonal sensitivity, warmth, and ability to express themselves, and women are perceived as less competent, independent, objective, and logical (Broverman, Vogel, Broverman, Clarkson, & Rosenkrantz, 1972; Coleman, 2003). When females are being socialized by males, they face pressures to conform to the male bureaucratic structures and norms and, therefore, go against what may be considered more natural (Cooper, 1995; Hart, 1995).

Research supports that a second explanation for women’s limited inclusion in educational administration is that they have only been acknowledged as “token” members of society (Kanter, 1977, Lee, Smith, & Cioci 1993; Ortiz, 1982). Within this belief of tokenism,

women are included by invitation only, and their inclusion in the world of administration is determined solely by the males in power. In a study designed to increase the understanding of the high school principalship by looking at how male and female principals examine and experience the role, Eckman, (2004), highlights the perceptions of four females describing hiring practices that favored male applicants. In essence, the women agreed, "I have no proof of this. I think they were just looking for men. Of course, they would never say that...I think token interviews have definitely happened" (p. 197).

Although not as common for women, men are exposed to natural networks and systems which open up doors toward the principalship. Men are afforded the opportunity to have role models to develop an interest in them moving up in the organization, while women had been considered for positions only after someone encouraged them to apply (Eckman, 2004). The "good ol' boys" network helped many men to become school principals. Coaches, who have effectively managed teams, were often led to principalships by their "sponsor" because of the implied transference of coaching skills to school leadership.

In urban and suburban districts, men have held and women have been removed from campus leadership positions, resulting in a reduction of the presence of female leadership within these schools. In previous times, the female leadership presence may be noted primarily in rural areas and as counselors in urban, suburban, and rural districts (Tyack & Hansot, 1982). The structures were arranged so that men were decision makers and held power over these decisions. Only through self-sacrifice and practices where women separate themselves from other female peers did they begin to experience organizational inclusion (Chase & Bell, 1990; Cooper, 1995). As Schmuck and Schubert (1995) pointed out, the predominately male administrative culture and the predominately female teaching culture differ considerably; they differ on educational concerns, perceptions of power and influence, and the people with whom one interacts as well as the type of work to be done (p.282).

These issues of gendered expectations and differences have begun to assert some of the fundamental differences in male and female leadership. Bernard (1981) supports this fact by suggesting that “in professions like education, rules and norms developed by women are different from those developed by men whether legislative or coercive in nature” (p. 72). Women, therefore, are often caught between the proverbial rock and a hard place. They experience both the need for belonging both to the group and to groups within the profession coupled with feelings of alienation towards the conforming conditions they are confronted with; they have to decide which practices they will adopt and which they will simultaneously reject (Westcott, 1979). In addition, male principals do not describe being faced with the same demands of balancing the challenges of both school and family lives to the extent of women leaders.

This “role conflict” (Eckman, 2004) is experienced to a greater extent by women and could be another reason women fail to climb to the top of the organizational ladder. Although “the primary issue facing both males and females was ‘managing their work and their time and coping with the stresses, tasks, and responsibilities of the job’” (p. 192), women encounter another phenomenon described by Hochschild (1989) as the “second shift.” Perhaps much less prevalent in today’s society, but certainly still existent, men leaving the workplace are often able to leave and begin processing their day while women begin their “second shift” of household duties that are a part of their role as parent and/or spouse. Similarly, women articulate the internal struggle to identify themselves as both a personal woman and a professional administrator (Schmuck & Schubert, 1995). This role commitment also results in an internal struggle within women as to whether they are “work-committed” or “personal life or family committed” (Burke, 2002). Being committed to both work and home is taboo.

In order for women to commit to both work and home, they may desire a solid contingency plan for their children. When children are the particular area of focus, men will most often list their wife as the primary caregiver, while women report a sitter, nanny, or daycare

as such. This may provide yet another conflict and sense of anxiety and guilt that women encounter with their dual roles (Coleman, 2003). The following excerpt exemplifies the continuing conflict women leaders' encounter when they are challenged by balancing work and serving as the primary child care provider. "One of the fears I had in my mind of course was that she might be damaged by the terrible life I'd given her. And until she was quite grown up, I used to wonder whether she would be damaged" (Coleman, 1996, p. 328).

Coleman (2003) aptly summarizes some of the main reasons why second shift" conflict for women. When summarizing the work of Davidson and Cooper (1992), Coleman states that when comparing men and women in management positions, "women are still likely to take the major responsibility for childcare and to feel it is their duty to do so, even in dual-career households; and it is only in the dual-career households that there is any evidence of change in the traditional balance of the woman taking major responsibility for the household" (p. 332).

Another belief as to why women may not readily ascend to leadership positions in schools is as simple as blatant or perceived discrimination based on gender. According to a 1995 study by Schmuck, school superintendents, when interviewed as to whether they had a preference of males or females for principalships often responded, "No," until specificity for secondary schools leadership came into question. Then men were preferred almost unanimously (Schmuck, 1995). Yet some superintendents said they would select an attractive (pleasing to the eye) woman for the position (Shakeshaft, 1999). Although dated, these citations point out an important issue in school leadership and support the need for more current information on the topic. Whether blatant or perceived, sex discrimination has overtime affected women's desire to aspire to move up the organizational ladder without a great deal of personal and professional sacrifice.

However, contrary to the notion of discrimination at the time of hiring, Schmuck and Schubert (1995) attest from their survey of 15 women, that the women they interviewed believed that they experienced no discrimination in getting the job, but instead experienced different

treatment following their being placed into the role. And, the discrimination they described once they were in the position was that of systemic mistreatment, unfair competition, and purposeful lack of access to information—the “good ol’ boy” network in action. Shakeshaft (1999) described a situation where although superintendents would select attractive women for positions, they would distance themselves from those school leaders for fear that school boards would feel something “unusual” was occurring, because of marital friction, and being afraid of their own feelings towards the women. Even as recently as 2002, Coleman reported in a survey of secondary head teachers, two-thirds acknowledged some sort of sexism present at their time of appointment and questioned credibility throughout their experiences following that appointment. According to the parties, sexism was apparent in the freedom men felt to comment on their physical appearance (Coleman, 2002).

The struggles that women in educational leadership experience are paralleled to how females are treated when they hold the same positions as their male counterparts. One particular difference is that women in educational leadership are much more often able to articulate the feeling of isolation associated with the position (Sherman, 2000). In fact, this isolation is one of the greatest pressures women encounter because women often draw strength from the groups with which they are identified (Cooper, 1995; Dunlap & Schmuck, 1995; Shakeshaft, 1989). In addition, Brunner (2000) recounts various women superintendents’ experiences with isolation and out-casting from male members of their position-alike group. These women articulated their isolation in terms of unnatural silencing. This took the form of being ignored, being interrupted, being purposefully left out of conversations. However, these same women often characterized their silence as merely “listening” to the conversations around them.

Another key theme emergent in the literature, yet similar in nature to those previously discussed, is the de-feminization of women themselves to survive in the world of educational leadership (Bell, 1995; Cooper, 1995; Dunlap & Schmuck, 1995; Schmuck & Schubert, 1995).

This de-feminization often occurs as women try to begin to form new relationships with their subordinates and even peers. Shakeshaft (1989) points out women typically view their position as one of master teacher, given the charge of instructional leadership, while men typically operate from a more operational, managerial perspective, thus relying on the knowledge and skills of their staff to make sound judgments about curriculum and practice.

Often, the de-feminization trends surface as women leaders begin to combine the role of manager and the role of instructional leader. Gross and Trask (1976) supported this view in that they defined the leadership and managerial style of women leaders as having a higher attention to task. According to Hurty (1995), women leaders who follow the trend of de-feminization are typically more in the know; they pay more attention to the details of the school, and are in control of what is occurring around them. These characteristics are much less feminine in nature than the skill-set women call upon when relationships are key to their success. Kahn (1984) asserted that when women exhibit low-disclosing, high-task behaviors, more hostility is often expressed toward that female leader than if a male were in the role. Therefore, when women ascend to leadership positions in schools, subordinates will often immediately form negative expectations of that female leader based on one prior experience with another female in a position of power or on the basis of cultural stereotypes surrounding women leaders (Hurty, 1995).

However, women, like men, must prove themselves to their employers. But unlike men, women must prove themselves to be different from a negative stereotype of others like them (Bell, 1995). This continues to be problematic for women in educational administration. Cooper (1995) attests, "As organizational members, women face pressures to conform, to follow and enforce rules, to adhere to and reproduce or support bureaucratic procedures" (p. 237). Further, Ferguson (1984) states that "the higher one moves in the organization, the more important impression management skills become" (p. 105). These same women are expected to show more loyalty and commitment to the organization as they move into positions of higher authority

(Cooper, 1995). However, Brunner (2000) maintains that women in positions of authority (i.e., superintendents) have a difficult time characterizing and owning their power as leaders. Wolf (1994) stated, "There is a taboo that makes it virtually impossible in 'women's language' to directly claim power or achievement" (p. 250). Though Tannen (1994) claimed when females downplay their authority it equates to being less valued or not recognized as accomplished; thus placing female leaders in a position of direct conflict with self and environment. Further, the skill sets needed to effectively operate with the members of the organization fall into direct conflict with those skills necessary for these educational leaders to conduct the business of schooling. This contrast could certainly be the source of the struggle Schmuck and Schubert (1995) described that women have over identity as female and administrator.

Gendered Differences in Leadership Styles

This issue becomes relevant when one begins to look at differences and perceived differences between male and female educational and school leaders. In addition, it is cutting-edge in terms of feminine-inspired leadership models being used to frame or re-frame leadership approaches that may be needed to manage and lead the magnitude of change in schools across America. Since school leadership has been a male-dominated area, females have been required to transcend societal norms of femininity to meet the socially defined role of leader with implied emphasis on hardness and reason (Coleman, 2003; Larusdottir, 2007; Sanchez & Thornton, 2010). However, in light of the exploration for new leadership frameworks that are inclusive of feminine-inspired approaches, more collaborative in nature, and based in relationship building, educational research may be at the brink of a shifting paradigm. Stereotypes that paint women as caring, tolerant, and gentle individuals may become the preferred framework to manage and lead the change process for K-12 campuses. The aggressive, assertive, and direct approach may be losing ground as the primary model for what is thought of as effective leader actions and behaviors (Bem, 1974; Gray, 1993; Kruger, 2008).

In terms of style, leadership actions and behaviors of male campus leaders remain the fundamental standard; however, there is a paradigm shift that considers feminine attributes of leadership (Nixon, 2006). Coleman (2003), in a study that examined the experiences of male and female secondary principals, contends that both males and females, when allowed to select descriptors that best convey who they are, selected “managers and leaders”. In addition, male and female leaders selected other terms like “caring, intuitive, and tolerant” which may be regarded as female inspired. Almost equal in proportion, 40% of women and 39% of men respondents identified themselves as “collaborative or people-centered” (Coleman, 2003, pp. 335-336). Yet, when given a choice of adjectives, women selected words more autocratic in nature and men words more collaborative in nature; including other adjectives as “efficient” and “valued” that both, males and females may have selected. Male and female leaders’ self-perceptions appear to be gendered.

Shakeshaft (1989) begins to articulate what the pertinent aspects of leadership are for women. She states that relationships are central to all actions of women administrators. The central foci for women administrators are effective teaching and learning. Thus, with regard to style, females may attempt to focus their leadership in the areas of curriculum and instruction within the context of collaborative conversations. Through meaningful and collaborative dialogues, effective relationships are fostered, authentic emotional connections are made, and new knowledge and strategies about curriculum and instruction are discovered (Eckman, 2004). Building a community is an essential part of women administrators’ leadership styles. Brunner (1995) states that “women who attain positions of power are most successful when they adopt female approaches to power which stress collaboration, inclusion, and consensus building models based on the belief that one person is not more powerful than another” (p. 24). Unlike female school leaders, male administrators who may have been mentored by other male educational leaders operate more like managers and may spend most of their time pontificating instead of collaborating with colleagues.

Several researchers have commented on the work environment of women to support these findings. Women elementary principals spent more time in unscheduled meetings, made fewer trips from school, and observed teachers more often than their male counterparts; thus placing increased emphasis on relationships within the school community (Kmetz & Willower, 1982). Women administrators have more contact with their superiors than do males (Berman, 1982), and women administrators are more likely to assist beginning teachers as well as spend more time with teachers (Shakeshaft, 1989).

A major characteristic of feminine-inspired leadership is the ability to building meaningful relationships. Shakeshaft (1989) also described the communication style of female leaders in that, women tend to use grammatically correct speech more than men, as well as more intensifiers, and more questions. They tend not to use pronouncements that would indicate there is only one way to look at the world. Females are described more often as polite and considerate, and demonstrate more cheerful speech patterns, listen more, and remember more than their male counterparts. Men have been described as being frank and straightforward in their social interactions, yet still maintaining intellectual competency and rationality while women strive for deeper personal interactions; they are interested in “social amenities, emotional warmth, and affective manners” (Banks, 2000, p. 41). Women are also perceived, according to Shakeshaft (1989), as more democratic and participatory in their decision making processes.

Varghese’s (1990) study also substantiated gender-based differences in leadership. Varghese’s study of time allocation of administrators, found that men spend approximately 27% of their time dealing with paperwork while women spend only 19% of their time dealing with the same. Continuing, men spend only 22% of their time in meetings and working with others while women leaders spend 34% of their time operating in this capacity. Riehl and Lee (1996) also described a 1990 study where common patterns in leadership styles of women emerged. The study found that women place a high priority on maintaining positive relationships among workers. They also found ways to share information with members of the organization and

beyond, had “complex and multi-faceted identities,” (Riehl & Lee, p. 884) valued both work and family roles, and worked to integrate them. Females also formed organizational structures that were more web-like with interconnections with the leader at the middle rather than at the top.

Noddings (1984) concurred with the belief that female leaders’ actions are based on caring; they enable those around them to bring positive change. A final summarizing concept about women as leaders identifies female leaders as having five elements of power (Hurty, 1995). Women have *emotional energy*; they are willing to honestly and openly use a full range of emotions in their work with teachers, students, and the community. Female leaders foster a sense of *nurtured growth*. They possess the ability to nurture even small evidences of learning development. Female leaders also engage in *reciprocal talk*; they talk with and not at others by listening to and learning from other points of view. In addition to the other elements, they also foster *pondered mutuality* where they keep others in mind as they reflect on the decision making aspects of their work. Lastly, they foster *collaborative change* working with and involving others in the transformation of schooling. Hurty (1995) suggested that women possess a high level of “emotional energy” which involves acknowledging members of the educational community at the feeling level, and showing compassion and sharing joy. Females are willing to do the emotional work necessary to engage others around them effectively. This emotional work would manifest itself in other ways as well. In a school where there was a strong sense of “emotional energy” there would likely be high levels of trust and autonomy present as well, because the teachers would feel a strong sense of personal value from their leader.

In Goleman’s (1998) work with Emotional Intelligence (EI), he contends that school leaders must possess a variety of relational and emotional competencies in order to be highly effective while most of these competencies may overlap each other. In one of the first delineations, Goleman (1998) listed attributes such as the ability to communicate a shared mission and vision with conviction and passion, the ability to assume unexpected leadership

positions and roles, coaching and supervising others while holding them to high standards, and modeling effective leadership actions and behaviors.

The description of the competencies has been refined over time. A recent version of the competencies can be grouped into four categories: self-awareness, social-awareness, self-management, and social skills (Boyatzis, Goleman, & Rhee, 2000). The competency approach may offer promise for preparing aspiring administrators to become effective campus principals or at least, turning good leaders into better leaders. However, realizing this “promise” may represent the biggest challenge for increasing the utilization of feminine-inspired leadership approaches in the field of educational leadership.

Goleman (1998) suggested campus principals set the ‘emotional tone’ for the school by transmitting positive emotional energy to administrative team members as well as to the entire faculty, staff, and community stakeholders. Such school leaders can balance a warm, people-oriented approach while being focused and professional. Goleman (1998) emphasized that the leader’s emotions must be compelling and sincere rather than being manipulative. Unfortunately, campus principals who may set a negative emotional tone can sap the emotional energy of the school, campus-wide. A great campus principal establishes an atmosphere of openness and interest in members of the school community; while the mediocre campus principal may appear to be invisible.

Gender role expectations tend to be represented in gender stereotypes (Coleman, 2003b; Brooking, 2008; Kruger, 2008). That is, “men are said to be independent, competitive, active, rational, sure of themselves, aggressive, dominant and strong” (Kruger, 2008, p. 164). In contrast, “woman are said to be dependent, conformist, cooperative, passive, emotional, uncertain of themselves, kind, helpful, understanding, sensitive and weak, to name just a few of these preconceptions” (Kruger, 2008, p.164). In Eagly’s (1992) meta-analytic study, she ascertained that “gender stereotypic differences, as well as counter-stereotypic differences were present for task style. The most substantial sex difference was the tendency for female

principals to lead in a more democratic and less autocratic style than did male principals. This finding suggests that women who occupy the principal role are more likely than men to treat teachers and other organizational subordinates as colleagues and equals and to invite their participation in the decision making process. Evidently, men adopt a less collaborative style, and are relatively more dominating and directive than women” (p. 91). Female principals are more often found to act in a democratic and participative manner than males; as men are directive and autocratic (Lee, Smith & Cioci, 1993). However, Eagly et al. (1992) also found female leaders to be more task-oriented than their male counterparts. The researcher suggested that this difference is based on the emphasis of role identity rather than gender identity for the leader. This leads to a continuing assertion that the tension between sex and power in this role is a continuing conflict for women (Coleman, 2003).

Leadership is defined by numerous factors: knowledge, skills, disposition, talents, styles, and actions and behaviors. We, as a society, struggle to define leadership as a blend of management (maintenance and control) and leadership (creation and inspiration), rather than characterize it in mutually exclusive terms (Bennis, 1989). Being a school principal is one position in which the perception of leadership styles must blend (Eckman, 2004; Mahitivanichcha & Rorrer, 2006; Sanchez & Thornton, 2010). This may become a challenge when consideration is given to the varied set of techniques males and females may bring to the position and role of principal (Eckman, 2004). There are no perfect models, styles, or approaches that could be implemented that would be inclusive or reflective of the diverse personalities and perspectives of male and female leaders. Although Eckman (2004) finds it difficult to make generalizations about male and female leaders, she readily acknowledges that the female perspective is different from the male, thus leading, in my opinion, to gender differentials in behaviors.

Recent Studies on Gendered Leadership

A number of recent research studies have focused on the use of system-orientation (initiating structure/production-oriented) and person-orientation (consideration/employee-centered) and/or leadership classifications (i.e., dynamic leaders, considerate leaders, passive leader, structured leaders) by gender in educational leadership using the LBDQ (e.g., Canales, Tejada-Delgado, & Slate, 2008; Fatemeh & Fatemeh, 2012; Nixon, 2006). In 2006, a study conducted by Nixon examined the leadership actions and behaviors of high school principals by gender revealed that male and female principals had high levels to both system-orientation and person-orientation leadership styles (Nixon, 2006). The study revealed a statistically significant difference ($p = .02$) between male and female principals on the system-orientation dimension and a statistically significant difference ($p = .01$) between male and female principals on the person-orientation dimension. Male and female principals had meaningful difference in how they expressed leadership actions and behaviors that are associated with systems and processes as well as building relationships. With regard to leadership classifications (i.e., dynamic, considerate, passive, structured), female principals were identified more often as dynamic leaders than their male counterparts.

Fatemeh and Fatemeh (2012) conducted a study investigating male and female secondary school administrators' leadership styles using the LBDQ. This study hypothesized a relationship between leadership styles of male and female gender in systems-orientation (initiating structure) and person-orientation (consideration). The results of the study revealed no significant relationship between the leadership styles (system-oriented and person-oriented leaders) and gender of secondary principals. In addition, no significant relationship existed between leadership styles of secondary principals and other variables such as educational degree, field of study, or educational leadership/management experience.

In 2008, Canales, Tejada-Delgado, and Slate examined leadership behaviors of the superintendents/principals in small rural school districts in the southwest using the twelve

subscales associated with the LBDQ (see Table 8). The results of the study revealed statistically significant relationships between six (representation, $p = .01$), (problem-solving, $p = .01$), (flexibility $p = .01$), (persuasion, $p = .01$), (need for order and control, $p = .01$), and (role assumption, $p = .01$) of the twelve LBDQ subscales and school/central office-based employees and representatives (teachers, school board presidents, and superintendents/principals). These works contribute to increasing the awareness of the public regarding gender related issues in the field of educational leadership and research from a broader perspective, particularly since gender is a factor which is typically under-investigated in research on educational leadership. Therefore, highlighting feminine-inspired leadership styles may help to reshape existing models of leadership that are mostly exclusive of female voice and presence.

To that end, the research study investigated whether male and female administrative team members' perceptions of secondary principals' leadership actions and behaviors in the context of change differed according to gender. In addition, the study determined if the subordinate's gender impacts his or her perception of the leader. Data collected from this study drew upon the critical roles and responsibilities associated with the campus principalship. The conceptual framework for this study described the parameters and structure of the research project.

Conceptual Framework

When the essential roles and responsibilities of a school leader are examined, they can be categorized as either (a) System-oriented (i.e., task) or (b) Person-oriented (i.e., relationship). Nixon (2006) contends that the relationships school leaders have to develop may contribute more to their effectiveness than the actual tasks they are required to complete. Therefore, the conceptual framework for this proposed study is based on the style approach to leadership previously discussed and the above stated theories with regard to men and women in leadership. Male principals, because of gender norms may perform more in a system-oriented (i.e. task) manner when compared to their female counterparts, who also because of

gender norms, may perform more in a person-oriented (i.e. relationship) manner. Using the style theory of leadership, the following framework clarified findings for gender related leadership behaviors:

1. *Dynamic Leader*: High attention to systems and people;
2. *Considerate Leader*: Low attention to systems, high attention to people;
3. *Passive Leader*: Low attention to both systems and people;
4. *Structured Leader*: High attention to systems and low attention to people; and
5. *Accommodating Leader*: Mid-level attention to both systems and people.

The figure (4) below contains a graphic reconstruction of the style theory of leadership based on the work of both the Ohio State University Studies (1962) and Blake and Mouton (1964). Hoy and Miskel (1991) blended the two works of the LBDQ and the Managerial Grid in to the LBDQ Chart shown below.

5

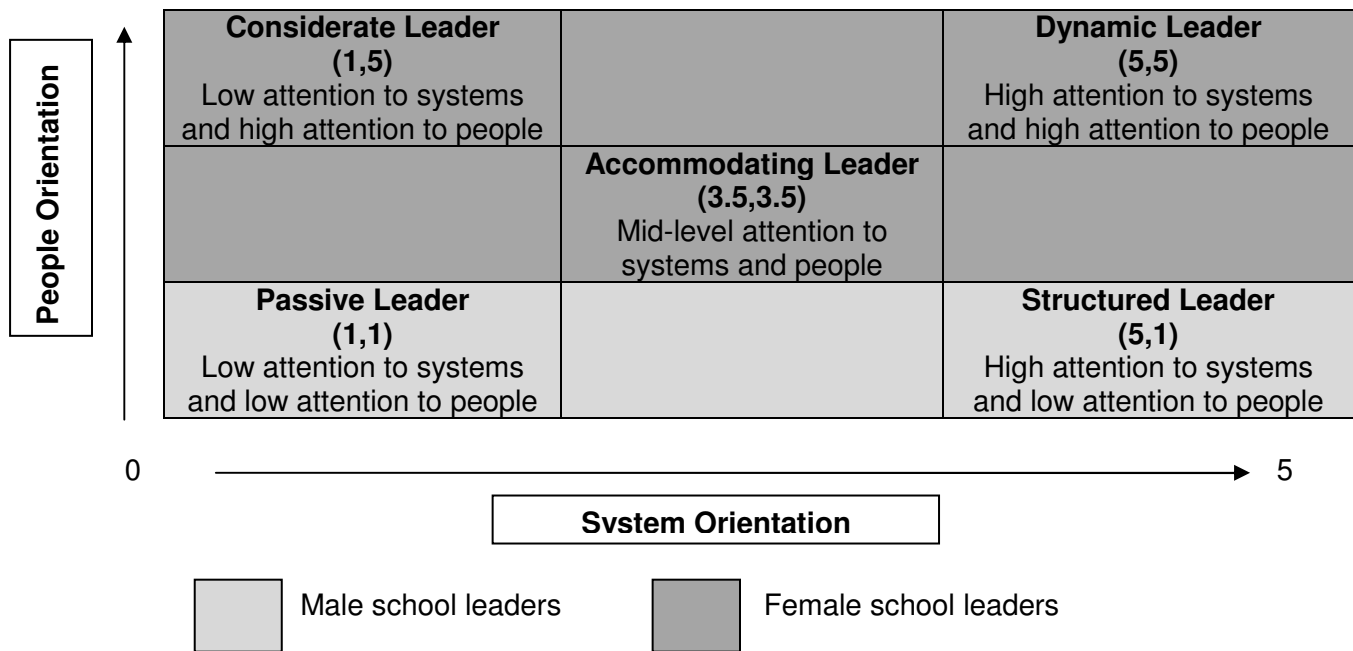


Figure 4. Theoretical Framework for Gender and Leadership Study (Adapted from “Leadership Dilemmas – Grid Solutions,” Blake & McCause, 1991 and The Ohio State Leadership Project,” Hoy & Miskel, 1991)

Description of Leader Classification

The description of the leader classification includes the following: 1) the *passive leader* lacks attention to systems and people. This leader assigns task and leaves individuals to complete the task; 2) the *structured leader* has a high orientation towards task completion. Performance is monitored. Communication is formal; 3) the *accommodating leader* seeks compromise. An understanding exists that both people and systems are important to complete given tasks; 4) the *considerate leader* lends a great deal of attention to the people in the organization. This leader is concerned more with making friends and keeping peace in the organization than with completing tasks; 5) the *dynamic leader* has high levels of attention to both people and the systems around it. High activity and participation are prevalent in this organization.

Also, pertinent to this conceptual framework is the understanding that, for male and female leaders, there are two sets of normative expectations, one that is gender based and one that is position based (Nixon, 2006). For male leaders, these normative expectations align with the gender specific actions and behaviors discussed in the literature. However, on the contrary, there is a disconnection in terms of specific leadership actions and behaviors associated with female leaders (see Figure 5). Male and female administrative team members' perceptions of their principal may be impacted by both gender and position norms. This is extremely evident when similar events transpire at schools where one principal is a female and one is a male; although the principals' actions and reactions might be equal, the reaction of the administrative team members may not be, simply based on the gender of the principal.

Normative Expectations

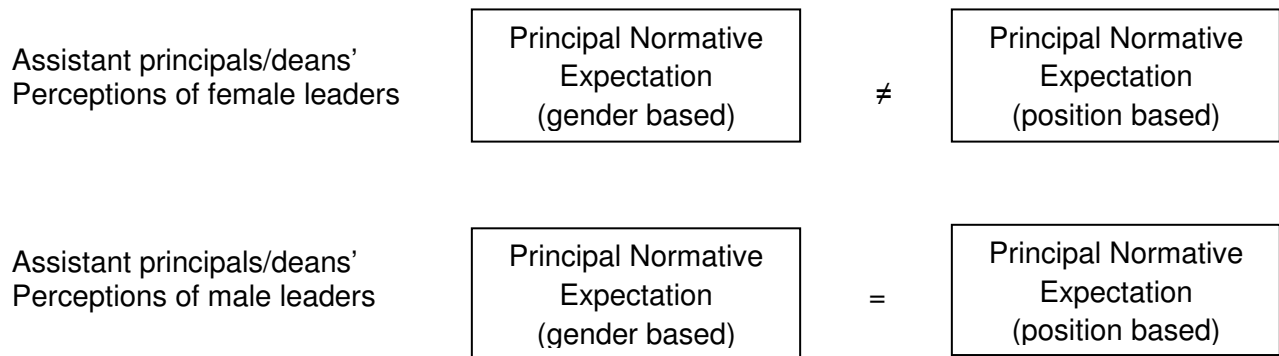


Figure 5. Conceptual Framework for Gender Differences in Behavior (Adapted from "An Investigation into the Behaviors of High School Leaders," Nixon, 2006)

In Chapter 3, the methodology used to investigate my research curiosity, sample population, survey instrument, and approach are discussed.

CHAPTER III: METHODOLOGY

Chapter 3 addresses the methods and research design used in the dissertation study. In this chapter, the research questions, research design, participants, sampling procedures, independent and dependent variables, and data collection procedures are discussed.

Research Questions

This study answers the following research questions:

Research Questions

1. Does the gender of the principal and/or the gender of the administrative team members influence members' ratings of principal leadership actions and behaviors?
2. Are there differences in how the administrative team members classify the leadership styles of male and female principals?
3. Do other variables, such as school level, length of time working with the principal, and perception of closeness, influence the classification of the principals' leadership styles?

The study design also allows for examination of the interaction of gender of principal with gender of administrative team members, in order to determine if there are differences in perceptions of leadership that relate to the different pairings.

Research Design

This study was conducted using a non-experimental quantitative approach (Isaac & Michael, 1995; Wiersma & Jurs, 2005). More specifically, a cross-sectional survey design was utilized. A cross-sectional survey design is flexible as well as cost-effective; it allows the researcher to reach a larger sample and is appropriate for the administration of Likert scale instruments (Dillman, 2000). In addition, the design was selected for this study because it is appropriate for use with groups having a relatively large membership, such as the approximate 226 to 234 administrative team members asked to participate in this research study.

The utilization of an on-line electronic survey mode added value to the research design. Benefits included but were not limited to quicker dissemination and receipt of responses in a

shorter period of time (Dillman, 2000). However, with surveys delivered through an on-line electronic mode, consideration to response rate must be noted. Dillman (2010) highlighted three different studies (e.g., the Lewiston and Clarkston Rural Region Survey (2007), the Washington Community Survey (2008), and the Washington Economic Survey (2009) whose response rates suggested that two-thirds of survey participants can be motivated to respond to on-line electronic surveys, particularly with the use of incentives which may potentially lead to more favorable response rates (Dillman, 2010).

Survey Monkey (1999-2012)

Survey Monkey is a web-based survey development company that allows researchers to purchase access to software as an avenue to create and disseminate surveys through electronic media. The survey instrument was entered into Survey Monkey format and then data were collected through the software. Although less expensive means to collect data existed, Survey Monkey was utilized because of its special SPSS integration component designed to run raw data and its database and server security features as well as the system's capability to secure transmissions and capture informed consent.

Secure Sockets Layer (SSL) encryption features allow sensitive data to be transmitted across web-based pathways between respondents' computers and Survey Monkey servers. The researcher captured implied consent via the respondents' attempts to complete the survey. Respondents had the option to "not respond" or "prefer not to respond" for every question. Requiring respondents to answer every question before proceeding to the next question would have been in violation of respondents' right to withhold information. In addition, participants had the right to withdraw from the survey at any point.

Survey Monkey has physical and environmental controls in place to protect data. The data collected are kept anonymous, private, and confidential. The researcher is the owner of the data collected and uploaded into surveys. Data were used in accordance with the privacy

procedures previously outlined. Survey Monkey will not use any of the information collected from the surveys submitted in any way, shape or form.

Setting of Study

The school district for this proposed study is located in the southwestern United States. To protect its identity, it will be referred to as the Southwest School District (SSD). SSD is one of the ten largest school districts in the United States. With an operating budget that exceeds 1.6 billion dollars, SSD serves over 200,000 students and employs over 29,000 personnel. The per-pupil expenditure for this district averaged nearly eight thousand dollars during the 2009-2010 school year. SSD has 298 schools. The district is ethnically diverse, with most of the students being of Hispanic descent (61.7%), African American descent (26.5%), and Caucasian (7.8%). Students who identify as American Indian, Asian, and multi-racial represented 4% of the district student population.

For the first time in the history of SSD, there exists a leadership development model that frames leader effectiveness in terms of actions and behaviors exhibited by campus principals. The district is not only using the model as its framework for leadership development, but effective July 1, 2012, the framework was adopted district wide as the school leader appraisal system. This leadership development model is based on the McREL's Balanced Leadership Framework (Waters & Cameron, 2007) research, which has 21 leadership responsibilities and 66 associated practices. From this same research SSD has developed the School Leadership Framework (McREL, 2011; SSD, 2012) to determine and measure school leader effectiveness.

Participants

Target Population

The initial populations of interest for the proposed study included 97 secondary school principals within the Southwest School District and the school administrative team members affiliated with their schools. Due to a district-wide reconfiguration of secondary schools, conversion to charter schools, and school closures, the target populations for the study were

reduced to 67 secondary school principals and the administrative team members associated with their campuses. Only traditional middle and high schools were selected for participation in the study. Thus, early college high schools were not included for participation. An *administrative team* is described as assistant principal, dean, counselor, instructional coordinator, instructional specialist, team leader and/or department head without an assigned teaching load of more than one class period during a given instructional day. There were, at minimum, five to seven potential respondents affiliated with each of the middle and high schools identified in the study.

Sampling Procedures

All administrative team members who met the criterion of having worked with principal at least 6 months were invited to participate. This criterion was selected because it usually takes at least 6 months for administrative team members to establish a working relationship with the principal (Nixon, 2006). A query for secondary school principals and administrative team members' hire dates and e-mail addresses was made through the district's research and accountability office. Based on confirmed hire dates (at least six months of working with principal) and e-mail addresses, an e-mail was sent to administrative team members assigned to traditional middle and high school campuses. Four hundred eight e-mails were sent (67 schools with approximately five to seven administrative team members) to administrative team members who met the exclusionary criterion.

An appropriate response rate for this study was determined to be 45% to 50% (Survey Monkey, 2011). The calculated response rate for the study was 58%. The response rate was calculated and monitored every five to seven days in order to determine if a reminder e-mail, which was linked directly to Survey Monkey, should be sent to participants. Through the use of a mock campus code each school was assigned, the total number of respondents per campus was available to the researcher. Survey response data were linked to the mock school campuses only and not the respondents.

Sample

The sample consisted of administrative team members assigned to 39 middle and 28 high schools providing a pool of approximately 335 to 469 middle and high school administrative team members within SSD. The sample is representative of five to seven administrative team members who work directly with principals assigned to each of the middle and high schools. According to a sample size chart, an appropriate sample size for this study was between 150 to 235 respondents (Ricker, Brown, Leeds & Leeds, Bouton, Volgstadt, 1998). Middle and high schools have more administrative team members assigned to secondary campuses than elementary schools. Thus, it was more likely that both genders would be represented in the larger administrative teams at the secondary level.

Characteristics of the Sample

The sample for this study was drawn from administrative team members who are employed by the Southwest School District and assigned to traditional middle and high schools. Criteria for participation included being a member of the administrative team, being assigned to a traditional secondary school, and having worked with the principals for 6 months or longer. Sixty-seven schools and their affiliated administrative team members were targeted for participation in the study. However, due to the elimination of incomplete surveys, 62 of the targeted 67 campuses were represented in the data set.

Study participants were contacted via e-mail. Of the 408 e-mails sent to potential respondents, zero were returned undeliverable. Surveys were returned by 237 respondents associated with 67 secondary schools, representing a response rate of 58%. Twenty-seven surveys were incomplete and, therefore, excluded, thus reducing the number of secondary schools to 62. The remaining 62 secondary schools and principals were rated in 210 usable surveys. Fifty-six of the 62 secondary schools rated had two or more respondents' ratings. Of the 62 school principals rated, 28 were rated by administrative team members of the same gender. More specifically, twenty female principals were rated by administrative team members

who were also women; 17 of them were assigned to middle schools, and the remaining three were assigned to high schools. The remaining eight male principals were rated by administrative team members of the same gender; seven of the principals were assigned to middle schools, with one assigned to the high school. For the results of administrative team members' responses by middle and high schools, see Tables 4 and 5.

Table 4

Administrative Team Members' Responses by Middle School Level

School Level	Gender of Principals	Gender of Admin. Team Members		# of Respondents by Gender		Total # of Respondents
		Male	Female	Male	Female	
Middle School – 1	Female	√	√	1	1	2
Middle School – 2	Female	-	√	-	1	1
Middle School – 3	Female	-	√	-	3	3
Middle School – 4	Female	√	√	2	5	7
Middle School – 5	Male	√	√	1	1	2
Middle School – 6	Male	√	-	1	-	1
Middle School – 7	Male	√	√	2	3	5
Middle School – 8	Male	-	√	-	3	3
Middle School – 9	Female	√	√	2	8	10
Middle School – 10	Male	√	√	1	3	4
Middle School – 11	Male	√	√	2	1	3
Middle School – 12	Female	√	√	1	1	2
Middle School – 13	Male	-	√	-	4	4
Middle School – 14	Male	√	-	1	-	1
Middle School – 15	Female	-	√	-	2	2
Middle School – 16	Female	√	√	1	2	3
Middle School – 17	Male	√	√	2	3	5
Middle School – 18	Male	√	√	2	2	4
Middle School – 19	Male	-	√	-	3	3
Middle School – 20	Female	-	√	-	3	3
Middle School – 21	Female	-	√	-	4	4
Middle School – 22	Female	-	-	-	-	-
Middle School – 23	Female	√	√	1	2	3
Middle School – 24	Male	-	√	-	5	5
Middle School – 25	Male	√	√	1	2	3
Middle School – 26	Female	-	√	-	2	2
Middle School – 27	Female	-	√	-	3	3
Middle School – 28	Female	-	-	-	-	-
Middle School – 29	Female	-	√	-	1	1
Middle School – 30	Female	-	-	-	-	-
Middle School – 31	Female	-	√	-	3	3
Middle School – 32	Female	-	-	-	-	-
Middle School – 33	Female	√	√	2	1	3
Middle School – 34	Female	√	√	4	8	12
Middle School – 35	Female	√	√	1	3	4
Middle School – 36	Male	√	-	1	-	1
Middle School – 37	Female	-	-	-	-	-
Middle School – 38	Female	√	-	1	-	1
Middle School – 39	Male	√	√	1	1	2

Table 5

Administrative Team Members' Responses by High School Level

School Level	Gender of Principals	Gender of Admin. Team Members		# of Respondents by Gender		Total # of Respondents
		Male	Female	Male	Female	
High School - 1	Male	√	-	1	-	1
High School - 2	Male	-	2	-	2	2
High School - 3	Male	√	-	2	-	2
High School - 4	Male	√	√	2	2	4
High School - 5	Male	√	-	2	-	2
High School - 6	Female	-	√	-	1	1
High School - 7	Female	-	√	-	3	3
High School - 8	Female	-	√	-	1	1
High School - 9	Male	√	-	1	-	1
High School - 10	Female	√	√	3	3	6
High School - 11	Female	√	√	2	2	4
High School - 12	Male	√	√	2	3	5
High School - 13	Male	-	√	-	2	2
High School - 14	Female	√	√	2	2	4
High School - 15	Female	√	√	2	4	6
High School - 16	Male	√	√	2	1	3
High School - 17	Female	√	√	3	2	5
High School - 18	Female	√	√	1	1	2
High School - 19	Male	-	√	-	2	2
High School - 20	Male	√	√	1	2	3
High School - 21	Male	√	√	2	3	5
High School - 22	Male	-	√	-	1	1
High School - 23	Female	√	√	1	1	2
High School - 24	Male	√	√	2	5	7
High School - 25	Male	-	√	-	3	3
High School - 26	Male	√	√	1	4	5
High School - 27	Male	√	√	1	2	3
High School - 28	Female	√	√	2	6	8

Instrumentation

A two-part instrument was utilized for the study. The first part of the instrument was a demographic questionnaire designed to capture not only specific information about the research participants (such as gender, race/ethnicity, age, school campus), but also to gather information about administrative team members' length of employment in the district, length of time working with the principal, and a description of closeness to the principal with regard to administrative roles and responsibilities and/or job title. In addition, since the study captured responses from both middle and high school respondents, data were also reported by school levels.

The second part of the instrument used was the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ), Form XII – fourth revision (Stogdill, 1963), a public domain tool (permission not required for use) located on the website of Ohio State University. This 100-item, Likert scale survey was designed to measure subordinates' (administrative team members) perceptions of leadership actions and behaviors of superiors (in this case, school site principals). The LBDQ was selected for this study because it has been widely used, and the reliability and validity of the instrument has been well-established (Black and Porter, 1991). Initially, the LBDQ had only two basic constructs of leadership behavior described as "Consideration" and "Initiation of Structure" (Fleishman, 1957; Halpin and Winer, 1957; Hemphill and Coons, 1957; subsequently, the LBDQ was revised to include the 12 subscales of leadership behavior (LBDQ – Form XII) (Ohio State University, 1962).

Table 6 below represents the updated subscales which reflect terminology and descriptions that apply more widely to the knowledge and trends of educational leadership (Nixon, 2006).

Table 6

Systems Oriented Behaviors vs. Person-Oriented Behaviors

System-Oriented Behaviors	Person-Oriented Behaviors
<i>Production Emphasis:</i> Leader applies pressure for productive output	<i>Trust and Autonomy:</i> Leader allows followers scope for initiative, decision, and action
<i>Need for Order and Control:</i> Leader clearly defines their role and lets subordinates know what is expected	<i>Flexibility:</i> Leader is able to tolerate uncertainty and postponement without anxiety or upset
<i>Representation:</i> Leader speaks and acts as the representative of the group	<i>Consideration:</i> Leader regards the comfort, well-being, status, and contributions of followers
<i>Role Assumption:</i> Leader actively exercises the leadership role rather than surrendering leadership to others	<i>Problem-Solving:</i> The leader is able to reconcile conflicting demands and reduces disorder to the system
<i>Persuasion:</i> Leader uses persuasion and argument effectively; exhibits strong convictions	<i>Vision:</i> Leader exhibits foresight and ability to predict outcomes accurately
<i>Concern for Advancement:</i> Leader maintains cordial relations with superiors, has influence with them, and strives for higher status	<i>Conflict Resolution:</i> Leader maintains a close-knit organization and resolves inter-member conflicts

Note. Expanded subscales for *initiating structure* and *consideration* which are aligned with system-oriented behaviors and person-oriented behaviors (Hoy & Miskel, 1991; Nixon, 2006).

The Systems-oriented (i.e. task) vs. Person-oriented (relationship) classification contextualizes leadership actions and behaviors based on routine roles and responsibilities of campus principals. The roles and responsibilities of campus principals are inclusive of specific compliance/management systems and collaborative/leadership systems. The systems-orientation is inclusive of “*initiating structure*” with an expanded subscale to reflect *production emphasis, need for order and control, representation, role assumption, persuasion, and concern for advancement* (Hoy & Miskel, 1991; Nixon, 2006). The person-orientation is inclusive of “*consideration*” with an expanded subscale that reflects *trust and autonomy, flexibility, consideration, problem-solving, vision, and conflict resolution* (Hoy & Miskel, 1991; Nixon, 2006). This blended style to managing change may shape or alter existing perception held by male and female members of administrative teams, therefore possibly re-shaping or altering associated gender-specific stereotypes.

Reliability and Validity

Popham (2002) defines reliability as the “the consistency with which a test measures whatever it is measuring” (p. 27). In statistical analyses, reliability is measured most commonly with Cronbach’s coefficient alpha (Pallant, 2010). Reliability is important because it is the consistency in measurement that allows us to collect results for a given instrument. In a study conducted by Nixon (2006), which investigated teacher’s perceptions of high school principals, using the LBDQ – Form XII – fourth revision was reported to have had a reliability rating of $\alpha=.98$; an analysis inclusive of the subscales reflects a reliability rating of $\alpha=.92$.

The LBDQ addresses actions and behaviors and has been used to examine leader actions and behaviors in contexts other than the field of education. The instrument was developed to obtain descriptors associated with leader actions and behaviors by their subordinates based on the approach style theory of leadership. The LBDQ Form XII – fourth revision has been extensively used in a variety of business and educational settings. Additionally, it has been used globally in research studies (Littrel, 2002). The instrument was used in Singapore, resulting in high reliabilities (Putti and Tong, 1992). A year earlier, Black and Porter (1991) used the LBDQ – Form XII to compare the leadership actions and behaviors of three samples of managers: American managers in the United States, American managers in Hong Kong and Chinese managers in Hong Kong; they found the reliability to be consistent at acceptable to moderately high levels for all of the samples.

The validity of the LBDQ – Form XII – fourth revision, although very closely linked to reliability, is the more significant concept. Validity, the degree to which a scale measures what it purports to measure, was tested on the various subscales of the LBDQ by Stodgill (1963). Stodgill employed the assistance of a playwright who developed scenarios based on patterns of action and behavior using items from the subscales of the LBDQ. Role performances for each scenario were made into a motion picture. Observers rated the supervisor roles using the LBDQ. No significant differences were found between the two actors playing the same role

(Leary, Sullivan and McCartney-Simon, 2001). Overall, the results provided important support for the validity of the LBDQ instrument in leadership.

It is important to note that the LBDQ instrument was developed in a Western cultural context, creating a Western bias. Therefore, the normative characteristics of the instrument may appear differently in cultures outside of the Western Hemisphere (Littrel, 2002). The guiding assumption of the LBDQ Form XII is that there are some universally effective leader actions and behaviors, and these can be assessed by asking subordinates about the actions and behaviors of their superiors (Littrel, 2002). One of the major empirical contributions to “validity” from the behavioral school of leadership was the identification of two broad classes of leader actions and behaviors, *task-oriented and person-oriented* behaviors (Littrel, 2002). The 12 subscale factors defined by Stogdill may appear to be culture-specific, at least in terms of how frequently “leaders” should engage in the 12 subscale factor actions and behaviors. Therefore, a set of dimensions developed from literature could be used to describe ways in which culture can differ, and how these differences may impact gender perception of school leaders (Fisher & Bibo, 2003).

Data Scoring

Data were organized and scored according to the revised subscales mentioned (see Table 6). The scale analyses were formed using the questions in accordance with Table 7 below. All items were scored on a 5 to 1 Likert scale (with 5 representing always and 1 representing never) with the exception of the following items: 6, 12, 16, 26, 36, 42, 53, 56, 61, 62, 65, 66, 68, 71, 87, 91, 92, and 97, which were scored using a reverse 1 to 5 scale.

Table 7**Subscale Formation**

Subscale	Question Numbers	Reliability Rating	
		Nixon (2006)	This study
<i>System Orientation</i>			
Production Emphasis	8, 18, 28, 38, 48, 58, 68 , 78, 88, 98	.784	.775
Representation	1, 11, 21, 31, 41	.749	.694
Role Assumption	6, 16, 26, 36 , 46, 56, 66 , 76, 86, 96	.813	.738
Persuasion	3, 13, 23, 33, 43, 53 , 63, 73, 83, 93	.928	.911
Need for Order and Control	4, 14, 24, 34, 44, 54, 64, 74, 84, 94	.866	.860
Concern for Advancement	10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60, 70, 80, 90, 100	.766	.812
<i>Person Orientation</i>			
Trust and Autonomy	5, 15, 25, 35, 45, 55, 65 , 75, 85, 95	.946	.933
Consideration	7, 17, 27, 37, 47, 57, 67, 77, 87, 97	.919	.810
Problem-Solving	51, 61, 71 , 81, 91	.885	.858
Vision	9, 29, 49, 59, 89	.908	.886
Conflict Resolution	19, 39, 69, 79, 99	.915	.898
Flexibility	2, 12, 22, 32, 42, 52, 62, 72, 82, 92	.892	.733

Note. Subscale formation and the reliability rating for each individual subscale aligned with system orientation and person orientation (Hoy & Miskel, 1991; Nixon, 2006).

Each participant was prompted to respond to survey questions using a Likert Scale 5 to 1, where 5 indicated the leader always exhibits the behavior, and 1 indicated the leader never exhibits the behavior. The items scored in reverse were used converted to the 5 to 1 scale for data analysis. Data were exported from Survey Monkey into an Excel Spreadsheet and uploaded in SPSS, a statistical data management software program. Raw data consisted of individual participants' responses to each survey question. Subscale scores were determined by totaling the scores of each participant based on the survey response in accordance with the subscales above (Table 7). In addition, items that relate to the two major constructs (system orientation and people orientation) were totaled and reported in the actual dissertation study. The mean of each sum was determined in order to standardize the variance between the subscales.

Cronbach's Alpha is the internal consistency measure that is appropriate for Likert scales. Although other measures of internal reliability exist and have been used with this survey instrument in the past, Cronbach's Alpha is readily used among social scientists and was used

for this study. A high level of internal consistency benchmarked for good reliability is .80 (Howell, 1985). The reliability of this instrument as a whole is $\alpha=.98$. However, the reliability of the instrument inclusive of the formed subscales is $\alpha=.92$ (Hoy & Miskel, 1991, Nixon 2006). In this study, the Cronbach alpha coefficient was $\alpha=.97$; and inclusive of the subscales, the coefficient was $\alpha=.90$. See Table 7 (above) for the individual subscale reliability ratings.

LBDQ Leadership Classification and Scoring

Additionally, ratings received on the LBDQ were categorized according to the following leadership classification: dynamic leaders, considerate leaders, passive leaders, and structured leaders. The researcher used a mean score breakpoint (3.5) to categorize principals rated by administrative team members in leadership classifications. The same breakpoints were used to classify principals as system-oriented and person-oriented leaders. In studies conducted by Hoy and Miskel (1991) and Nixon (2006), comparative mean score breakpoints (3.0 to 3.5) were utilized to classify leaders as dynamic, considerate, passive, and structured. The leadership classifications, descriptions, and scoring are represented in Table 8.

Table 8**Leadership Classifications, Descriptions, and Scoring**

Leadership Classification	Description	Scoring
System-Oriented Leaders	Relates to task completion, and patterns, channels, and procedures of an organization.	System-oriented leaders received a higher rating (≥ 3.5) in attention to systems (structured or dynamic).
Person-Oriented Leaders	Relates to relationship, friendship, trust, warmth, interest, and respect.	Person-oriented leaders received a higher rating (≥ 3.5) in attention to people (considerate or dynamic leaders).
Dynamic Leader	High levels of attention to both people and systems. High activity; and participation are common in this organization.	Dynamic leaders received both a higher rating (≥ 3.5) in attention to system and higher rating (≥ 3.5) in attention to people on the LBDQ.
Considerate Leader	Lends a great deal of attention to people within the organization. Greater concern with relationship/friendship and keeping peace than task completion.	Considerate leaders received both a lower rating (≤ 3.5) in attention to systems and higher rating (≥ 3.5) in attention to people on the LBDQ.
Passive Leader	Assigns task and leave individuals to complete task. Lacks attention to systems and people.	Passive leaders received both a lower rating (≤ 3.5) in attention to system and lower rating (≤ 3.5) in attention to people on the LBDQ.
Structured Leader	A high orientation towards task completion. Performance is monitored. Communication is formal. Low attention to people.	Structured leaders received both a higher rating (≥ 3.5) in attention to systems and lower rating (≤ 3.5) in attention to people on the LBDQ.

(Adapted from "Leadership Dilemmas – Grid Solutions," Blake & McCanse, 1991 and The Ohio State Leadership Project," Hoy & Miskel, 1991)

Data Collection Procedures

Approval to conduct the proposed study was requested from the UNO's Institutional Review Board (IRB). A formal letter of request to conduct a research study was submitted to the Southwest School District's Office of Research and Accountability to gain access to e-mail addresses of administrative team members assigned to secondary school campuses within the district. In addition, a letter of endorsement was received from the SSD Secondary School's Office to conduct the study within middle and high schools.

The primary mode for collecting data was e-mail notification, providing participants access to the Survey Monkey link. E-mail addresses were supplied by the district office, and

this list was kept on a password-protected computer. Each potential participant received an e-mail from the investigator's UNO e-mail address inviting them to participate. The e-mail contained a link to the survey on Survey Monkey, but responses to the survey were independent from the e-mail. No personally identifying information was on the survey. The electronic survey contained a demographics page at the beginning of the survey to capture the following information about the research participants: 1) gender, 2) school campus (middle or high school), 3) length of time working with the principal, and 4) a question that describes the participant's closeness (1 – not close, 2 – somewhat close, 3 – close, 4 – very close, or 5 – extremely close) to principal. Closeness was described as the respondent's working relationship with the principal with regard to job title and/or administrative roles and responsibilities on the campus. Survey responses and e-mail addresses were linked and coded by using the initials of the school assignment and identifying respondents by male (m) or female (f). This allowed the researcher to send a second e-mail communication if needed. The identifiers were separated during the analysis of data.

Upon receipt of the link, the completed and submitted on-line electronic survey served as consent to participate in the research study. A secondary means for capturing data included use of the US Postal Service to mail paper-pencil surveys (including a self-addressed, postage paid envelope) to potential respondents who were without access to adequate internet and/or e-mail service. A third approach for data collection, only when other methods were unsuccessful, included a formal letter/e-mail request to principals asking for permission to place surveys in administrative team members' campus mailboxes. The researcher coordinated an appropriate time to pickup surveys from the campus. Due to the high response of participants, secondary options to collect data were not implemented.

Data Collection Timeline

Upon approval from all involved institutions and access to the e-mail addresses of participants (administrative team members assigned to secondary schools), the researcher

utilized a timeline to begin and monitor data collection. The data collection timeline outlined the timeframe during which data were gathered and associated actions steps for collecting data. The original date to close out the survey was August 14, 2012, but the researcher extended the data collection timeframe to August 28, 2012. This allowed administrative team members who were returning from summer vacation the opportunity to participate in the research study. A description for the data collection timeline is presented in Table 9.

Table 9

Data Collection Timeline

Timeline	Action Steps
July 20, 2012 to July 25, 2012	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Tested all e-mail addresses in database to ensure transmittal of information.• Confirmed a solid transmittal. The first wave of invitations to participate in the study was sent.• Invitations included the survey link and the description of all details associated with the study. Contact information for researchers and methodologist was included in the description.• Monitored and recorded response rate.
July 25, 2012 to August 1, 2012	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Determined from response rate if a follow-up (second) invitation to participate in the study was needed.• A second wave of invitations was sent via e-mail to participants.• Monitored and recorded response rate.
August 1, 2012 to August 8, 2012	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Determined from response rate if a follow-up (third) invitation to participate in the study was needed.• A third wave of invitations was sent via e-mail to participants.• Monitored and recorded response rate.
August 8, 2012 to August 14, 2012	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Determined from response rate if a follow-up (fourth and final) invitation to participate in the study was needed.• A fourth wave of invitations was sent via e-mail to participants.• Monitored and recorded response rate.
August 28, 2012	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• The response rate was determined to be 58%.• A final closeout e-mail was sent to all participants providing one last opportunity for participation in the study. The final e-mail thanked respondents for their consideration, time, and participation in the study.

Data Analysis

Independent and Dependent Variables

The study utilized a variety of analyses based on the data gathered to examine the difference in leadership actions and behaviors in male and female secondary school principals. The data analysis included the use of descriptive and inferential statistics. In addition, a One-way between-groups ANOVA or a 2 x 2 factorial MANOVA (Two-way between-groups

MANOVA) were utilized in this study. The following independent and dependent variables were examined through the data analysis:

- **Independent Variable 1:** a) Gender of administrative team members
b) Gender of principal
- **Dependent Variable 1:** Rating on the System-Oriented construct
- **Independent Variable 2:** a) Gender of administrative team members
b) Gender of principal
- **Dependent Variable 2:** Rating on the Person-Oriented construct.
- **Independent Variable 3:** a) Gender of administrative team members
b) Gender of principal
- **Dependent Variable 3:** Rating on the Dynamic Leader chart.
- **Independent Variable 4:** a) Gender of administrative team members
b) Gender of principal
- **Dependent Variable 4:** Rating on the Considerate Leader chart.
- **Independent Variable 5:** a) Gender of administrative team members
b) Gender of principal
- **Dependent Variable 5:** Rating on the Passive Leader chart.
- **Independent Variable 6:** Gender of administrative team members
Gender of principal
- **Dependent Variable 6:** Rating on the Structured Leader chart.

Descriptive and Inferential Statistics

Descriptive statistics were drawn from the indexed data for the purpose of characterizing an entire set of data. Inferential statistics allowed for the formulation of inferences about a large group from a sample of that group (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2000). Descriptive statistical data were gathered and calculated on gender, campus level (middle or high school), length of time working with principal, and closeness to principal. In addition, calculation was performed on the associated subscale within the constructs (system orientation and people orientation) to quantify the mean and standard deviation.

One-way Between Groups ANOVA or 2 x 2 - Factorial MANOVAs

The one-way between groups ANOVA or 2 x 2 Factorial MANOVAs (also known as two-way between-group MANOVA) were used to examine the individual and joint effect of male and female administrative team members and secondary school principals as determined by ratings and/or pairings on the LBDQ (Pallant, 2010). In addition, the ANOVAs tested the main effects of gender on the rating the principals received on the LBDQ. The interaction effect was tested by examining the ratings male and female principals received by male and female administrative team members (Pallant, 2010).

Non-Parametric Statistics

A cross-tabulation was used to identify leadership classifications of male and female secondary school principals rated by male and female administrative team members. The cross-tabulation calculated the percentages of male and female secondary school principals as dynamic, considerate, passive, or structured leaders as rated by male and female administrative team members using the LBDQ. A chi-square test was performed to determine whether the observed frequency is significantly different from the expected frequency with regard to the relationship between the gender of administrative team members and gender of secondary school principals (Pallant, 2010). A mean score was calculated from the ratings of 62 principals (individually by gender and team) to classify each principal as a dynamic, considerate, passive, or structured leader. To that end, the perceptual differences of male and female principal leadership actions and behaviors are reported in the results of the dissertation study. Data analyses were performed using SPSS 20.0 through the SPSS integration component of Survey Monkey Gold.

CHAPTER IV: RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to examine leadership actions and behaviors of school principals as perceived by administrative team members. The target populations for this study were traditional middle and high school principals within the Southwest School District and the school administrative team members affiliated with their schools. The differences in leadership actions and behaviors were examined based upon administrative team members' gender, school campus level, length of time working with principal, and closeness to principal as determined by roles and responsibilities on the campus. Administrative team members are described as assistant principals, deans, counselors, instructional coordinators, instructional specialists, team leaders and/or department chairs. Additionally, this study endeavored to ascertain whether the gender of the administrative team member influenced that member's perceptions of leadership actions and behaviors of the principal.

An Overview of the Analysis

All of the quantitative data collected for this study were used to examine differences in leadership actions and behaviors in male and female secondary school principals as determined by male and female administrative team members' ratings of these principals on the LBDQ. Data were collected electronically through the use of Survey Monkey. The data were analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics to characterize the entire data set. Descriptive data were calculated on gender, school campus level, length of time working with principal, and closeness to principal to determine the number and percentage of respondents. In addition, calculations were performed on the twelve LBDQ subscales within the constructs of system and people orientation to determine the mean and standard deviation scores of respondents.

A one-way between groups ANOVA or a two-way between groups MANOVA was conducted on the data. This allowed the researcher to examine the main effects and interaction effects of male and female administrative team members and secondary principals as determined by the ratings on the LBDQ (Pallant, 2010). In addition, a one-way between groups ANOVA or

a two-way between groups MANOVA were also conducted using the demographic data: gender, school campus level, length of time working with the principal, and closeness to principals to secondary principals. The analysis was used to determine if there were statistically significant main effects or significant interaction effects as determined by the ratings on the survey instrument.

In addition, a cross-tabulation of the data was performed to classify male and female administrative team members' averaged ratings of secondary principals into four leadership categories: dynamic, considerate, passive, and structured. In addition, a chi-square was utilized to examine the relationship between the gender of administrative team members and the gender of secondary school principals (Pallant, 2010), as well as the gender of the principal and the leadership classification. The test compared the observed and expected frequencies relevant to the gender of administrative team members and leadership classification they assigned to principals and the gender of principals and the leadership classifications associated with them.

Frequency Distribution of Respondents by Gender, School Level, Length of Time Working with the Principal, and Closeness to Principal

To characterize the frequency distribution of respondents by gender, school level, length of time working with the principal, and closeness to the principals of administrative team members, descriptive statistics were conducted. There were a total of 210 respondents who completed surveys. Of those, 143 or 68% were female, and 67 (31%) were male.

Sixty-two secondary schools within SSD were represented in the study. Of those, 34 were middle schools and 28 were high schools. Females (68%) represented a majority of respondents at both middle (40%) and high (28%) school levels. Male respondents represented 32%, 15% at the middle school and 17% at the high school level.

A majority (51%) of the respondents identified themselves as working with the principal for 1 – 3 years. The second largest category was 6 months to 1 year, reflecting the responses

of 22% of respondents. The third largest category was 4 – 6 years, reflecting 15% of respondents. The remaining 12% represents 6% of respondents who had worked 7 – 9 years, 4% of respondents who had worked 10 – 12 years, and 1% of respondents who had worked 13 – 15 years. Less than 1% of respondents indicated that they had worked with a principal 31 or more years. Respondents who worked with the principal for “0 – 5 months” were ineligible to participate in the study and are not represented in the descriptive data.

The description of closeness to the principal was described by the roles and responsibilities associated with respondents’ job title/code. The largest category of respondents who described their closeness to the principal as “very close” reflected the experiences of 33% of respondents. The second largest category, which described a “close” relationship, reflected the experiences of 24% of respondents. The third largest category, which represented an “extremely close” working relationship between the principal and administrative team member reflected the experiences of 21% of respondents. Sixteen percent, of respondents described their working relationship with the principal as “somewhat close”, while the remaining 6% described it as “not close”. The results for frequency distribution of respondents by gender, school level and length of time working with the principal, and closeness to the principal are presented in Table 10.

Table 10

Frequency Distribution of Respondents by Gender, School Level, Length of Time Working with Principal and Closeness to Principal (N = 210)

<u>Characteristics</u>	Male		Female	
	<u>#</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>#</u>	<u>%</u>
Respondents				
Gender	67	100	143	100
School Level				
Middle School Level	31	46	84	59
High School Level	36	54	59	41
Length of time working w/principal				
6 months to 1 year	15	22	32	22
1 – 3 years	37	55	70	49
4 – 6 years	10	15	23	16
7 – 9 years	4	6	8	6
10 – 12 years	0	0	8	6
13 – 15 years	0	0	2	1
31 years and over	1	2	0	0
Closeness to the principal				
Extremely close	14	21	30	21
Very close	20	30	48	34
Close	17	25	33	23
Somewhat close	8	12	25	17
Not close	8	12	7	5

Note. Zero respondents described length of time working with the principal between “16 – 30 years”.

Research Questions

The primary purpose of this quantitative study was to investigate whether male and female administrative team member perceived principals' leadership actions and behaviors in the context of change differently. Perceptions of principal leadership were quantified in this study along two dimensions: system-oriented and person-oriented along with twelve associated

subscales. In addition, male and female principals were classified by leadership styles (i.e., dynamic, considerate, passive, structured) as rated by administrative team members using the LBDQ. The following research questions were answered using descriptive statistics, one-way between groups ANOVAs, two-way between groups MANOVAs, and non-parametric analyses proposed in the methodology. In addition to the gender of the administrative team members and the gender of the secondary principals, each of the demographic variables was used to address the research questions. The results of the inquiry are presented below.

Research Question 1

Does the gender of the principal and/or the gender of the administrative team members influence members' ratings of principal leadership actions and behaviors?

The data were first analyzed by calculating the twelve subscales from the items of the LBDQ. These subscales are production emphasis, representation, role assumption, persuasion, need for control and order, concern for advancement, trust and autonomy, consideration, problem solving, vision, conflict resolution, and flexibility. The analyses examined whether or not the gender of 210 administrative team members and/or the gender of 62 principals influenced the members' ratings of principals across the twelve subscales. A two-way between groups MANOVA was conducted on the independent variables gender of administrative team members and gender of principal and the dependent variables (production emphasis, representation, role assumption, persuasion, need for control and order, concern for advancement, trust and autonomy, consideration, problem solving, vision, conflict resolution, and flexibility) drawn from the twelve subscale ratings. The results of the MANOVA revealed no statistically significant main effect for the gender of administrative team members for the twelve subscales, Wilks' $\lambda = .904$, $F(12, 210) = 1.73$, $p = ns$, $\eta^2 = .10$. In addition, there was no significant interaction effect between the gender of administrative team members and gender of secondary principals for the twelve subscales, Wilks' $\lambda = .899$, $F(12, 210) = 1.83$, $p = ns$, $\eta^2 = .10$. Therefore, gender had no impact on whether or not principals received high or low ratings

across the twelve subscales associated with the LBDQ. The results for the two-way between groups MANOVA and the means and standard deviations of principals rated on the twelve LBDQ subscales by gender are presented in Tables 11 and 12.

Table 11

Two-Way Between Groups MANOVA of Principals' 12 Subscale Ratings by Gender (N=210)

<u>Variable</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>SS</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>P</u>	<u>ES</u>
Gender of Adm. Team Members						
System-Orientation						
Production Emphasis	1	.058	.058	.222	.638	.001
Representation	1	.079	.079	.270	.604	.001
Role Assumption	1	.244	.244	.703	.403	.003
Persuasion	1	.496	.496	.987	.322	.005
Need for Control and Order	1	.059	.059	.172	.678	.001
Concern for Advancement	1	.506	.506	1.56	.213	.008
Person-Orientation						
Trust and Autonomy	1	.020	.020	.039	.884	.000
Consideration	1	.053	.053	.139	.710	.001
Problem Solving	1	9.82E	9.812E	.000	.997	.000
Vision	1	.000	.000	.001	.982	.000
Conflict Resolution	1	1.57	1.57	2.07	.152	.010
Flexibility	1	.001	.001	.002	.965	.000
Gender of Principal						
System-Orientation						
Production Emphasis	1	1.01	1.01	3.89	.050	.019
Representation	1	.099	.099	.339	.561	.002
Role Assumption	1	1.71	1.71	4.91	.028	.023
Persuasion	1	.590	.590	1.17	.028	.006
Need for Control and Order	1	1.87	1.87	5.51	.020	.026
Concern for Advancement	1	.300	.300	.924	.338	.004
Person-Orientation						
Trust and Autonomy	1	.034	.034	.066	.797	.000
Consideration	1	1.09	1.09	2.88	.091	.014
Problem Solving	1	1.46	1.46	2.41	.122	.012
Vision	1	1.29	1.29	2.76	.098	.013
Conflict Resolution	1	3.89	3.89	5.14	.024	.024
Flexibility	1	.333	.333	1.04	.310	.005

Table 11 continued

<u>Variable</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>SS</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>P</u>	<u>ES</u>
Gender of Adm. Team Members						
Gender of Principal						
System-Orientation						
Production Emphasis	1	.147	.147	.569	.452	.003
Representation	1	.011	.011	.037	.848	.000
Role Assumption	1	.014	.014	.040	.842	.000
Persuasion	1	.002	.002	.004	.948	.000
Need for Control and Order	1	.305	.305	.897	.345	.004
Concern for Advancement	1	.084	.084	.259	.611	.001
Person-Orientation						
Trust and Autonomy	1	.817	.817	1.59	.209	.008
Consideration	1	.131	.131	.344	.558	.002
Problem Solving	1	.034	.034	.056	.814	.000
Vision	1	.326	.326	.695	.405	.003
Conflict Resolution	1	.410	.410	.541	.463	.003
Flexibility	1	.354	.354	1.10	.295	.005
<hr/>						
Total						
Production Emphasis	210	54.45				
Representation	210	60.47				
Role Assumption	210	73.82				
Persuasion	210	104.75				
Need for Control and Order	210	72.00				
Concern for Advancement	210	67.66				
Trust and Autonomy	210	107.26				
Consideration	210	79.47				
Problem Solving	210	126.01				
Vision	210	99.02				
Conflict Resolution	210	163.37				
Flexibility	210	66.69				

Table 12

Mean and Standard Deviations for Principals' 12 Subscale Ratings by Gender (N=210)

<u>Characteristics</u>	Gender of Administrative Team Members					
	Male			Female		
	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
Gender of Principal						
Production Emphasis						
Male	35	3.66	.545	65	3.76	.497
Female	32	3.87	.517	78	3.85	.499
Total	67	3.77	.531	143	3.81	.498
Representation						
Male	35	4.06	.683	65	4.12	.557
Female	32	4.13	.522	78	4.15	.435
Total	67	4.10	.603	143	4.14	.496
Role Assumption						
Male	35	3.52	.637	65	3.61	.611
Female	32	3.73	.640	78	3.79	.526
Total	67	3.63	.639	143	3.70	.569
Persuasion						
Male	35	3.81	.843	65	3.91	.656
Female	32	3.92	.835	78	4.03	.626
Total	67	3.77	.531	143	3.81	.498
Need for Control and Order						
Male	35	3.87	.709	65	3.99	.562
Female	32	4.16	.540	78	4.11	.554
Total	67	4.02	.625	143	4.05	.558

Table 12 continued

<u>Characteristics</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
Concern for Advancement						
Male	35	3.69	.693	65	3.84	.541
Female	32	3.82	.563	78	3.88	.532
Total	67	3.76	.628	143	3.86	.537
<hr/>						
Trust and Autonomy						
Male	35	3.93	.729	65	3.82	.677
Female	32	3.82	.861	78	3.98	.681
Total	67	4.02	.625	143	4.05	.558
<hr/>						
Consideration						
Male	35	3.49	.681	65	3.51	.593
Female	32	3.70	.678	78	3.62	.579
Total	67	3.60	.680	143	3.57	.586
<hr/>						
Problem Solving						
Male	35	3.80	.918	65	3.83	.697
Female	32	4.01	.848	78	3.98	.742
Total	67	3.91	.883	143	3.91	.720
<hr/>						
Vision						
Male	35	3.63	.835	65	3.54	.678
Female	32	3.71	.765	78	3.79	.573
Total	67	3.67	.800	143	3.67	.626
<hr/>						
Conflict Resolution						
Male	35	3.71	.950	65	3.43	.868
Female	32	3.91	.974	78	3.82	.788
Total	67	3.81	.962	143	3.63	.828
<hr/>						
Flexibility						
Male	35	3.25	.513	65	3.15	.582
Female	32	3.07	.592	78	3.16	.566
Total	67	3.16	.553	143	3.16	.574

The second analysis examined whether there were gender differences on the composite scores of system-orientation or person-orientation. The related subscale scores were combined to produce the two overall scores. A two-way between groups MANOVA was run with independent variable, gender of 210 administrative team members and the dependent variable,

system-oriented or person-oriented on the LBDQ. The results of the MANOVA revealed no statically significant main effect for the gender of administrative team members for system-oriented, $F(1, 210) = .90, p = .ns$. In addition, there was no significant interaction effect between the gender of administrative team members and gender of secondary principals for system-oriented, $F(1, 210) = .26, p = .ns$ classifications. There was no significant main effect or interaction effect for gender of administrative team members or gender of the principal. Therefore, gender had no impact on whether principals were rated as system-oriented leaders (see Table 13).

In addition, the results of the MANOVA revealed no statistically significant main effect for gender of administrative team members for person-oriented, $F(1, 210) = .08, p = ns$. There was no significant interaction effect between the gender of administrative team members and gender of secondary principals for person-oriented, $F(1, 210) = .40, p = .ns$, classifications. Therefore, gender had no impact on whether principals were rated as person-oriented leaders (see Table 13). The means and standard deviations for the principals rated as system-oriented and person-oriented by gender are presented in Table 14.

Table 13

Two-Way Between Groups MANOVA of Principals' System-Oriented (SO) and Person-Oriented (PO) Ratings by Gender (N=210)

<u>Variable</u>		<u>df</u>	<u>SS</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>P</u>	<u>ES</u>
Gender							
Gender of Adm. Team Member	SO	1	.212	.212	.901	.344	.004
Gender of Principal	SO	1	.877	.877	3.73	.055	.018
Gender of Adm. Team Members Gender of Principals	SO	1	.060	.060	.255	.614	.001
Gender of Adm. Team Member	PO	1	.028	.028	.082	.775	.000
Gender of Principal	PO	1	.390	.390	1.16	.282	.006
Gender of Adm. Team Members Gender of Principals	PO	1	.135	.135	.400	.528	.002
Total	SO	210	3209.37				
	PO	210	2814.28				

Table 14

Mean and Standard Deviations for Principals' System-Oriented (SO) and Person-Oriented (PO) Ratings by Gender (N=210)

<u>Characteristics</u>		Gender of Administrative Team Members						
		Male			Female			
		<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	
Gender of Principal								
	Male	SO	35	3.74	.615	65	3.85	.457
	Female	SO	32	3.92	.536	78	3.95	.416
Total		SO	67	3.83	.576	143	3.90	.437
	Male	PO	35	3.61	.644	65	3.53	.536
	Female	PO	32	3.65	.692	78	3.68	.533
Total		PO	67	3.63	.668	143	3.61	.535

Research Question 2

Are there differences in how the administrative team members classify the leadership styles (actions and behaviors) of male and female principals?

The third analysis examined how administrative team members classified the leadership styles of male and female principals. To identify leadership classifications (i.e. dynamic, considerate, passive, or structured leaders) of male and female secondary school principals, a cross tabulation was performed. Thirty-four (55%) of the principals rated were male and 28 (45%) of the principals were female. Of the 62 principals, 39 were classified as dynamic leaders, three were classified as considerate leaders, 10 were classified as passive leaders,

and 10 were rated as structured leaders. Secondary principals rated as dynamic leaders made up the majority, as represented by 20 (51%) males and 19 (49%) females. The cross-tabulation for leadership classifications of principals by gender is presented in Table 15.

Table 15

Cross-tabulation of Principals' Leadership Classification by Gender (N=62)

Leadership Classification	Gender of Principals			
	Male		Female	
	#	%	#	%
Dynamic Leader				
Observed	20	61	19	65
Expected	21	62	18	63
Considerate Leader				
Observed	1	3	2	7
Expected	2	6	1	3
Passive Leader				
Observed	8	24	2	7
Expected	5	16	5	17
Structured Leader				
Observed	4	12	6	21
Expected	5	16	5	17
Total	34	100	28	100

In addition, the fourth analysis examined whether or not the of gender team members and/or the gender of principals influenced the ratings of leadership actions and behaviors. To determine if a relationship exists between the gender of 62 principals and the leadership classification, a chi-square test of independence was performed. The relationship between

these variables was not significant, $X^2(3, N = 62) = 4.12, p = .ns$. The gender of the principal had no impact on whether or not principals were classified as dynamic leaders, considerate leader, passive leaders, or structured leaders. The results for the chi-square test for independence of leadership classification of principals by gender are presented in Table 16.

Table 16

Chi-Square Test for Independence of Principals' Leadership Classification by Gender (N=62)

	<u>Value</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>Asymp. Sig (2-sided)</u>
Pearson Chi-Square	4.118	3	.249
Likelihood Ration	4.365	3	.225
Linear-by-Linear Association	.028	1	.867
Total	62		

Research Question 3

Do other variables such as school level, length of time working with the principal, and perception of closeness, influence the classification of the principals' leadership styles?

The fifth analysis examined how administrative team members classified the leadership styles of secondary principals by school levels. To identify leadership classifications (i.e. dynamic, considerate, passive, or structured leaders) of middle and high school principals, a cross tabulation was performed. Thirty-four (55%) of the principals rated worked in a middle school context, and 28 (45%) of the principals worked in high schools. Of the 62 principals, 21 middle and 18 high school principals were rated as dynamic leaders; one middle and two high school principals were rated as considerate leaders; six middle and four high school principals were rated as passive leaders, and six middle and four high school principals were rated as structured leaders. The majority of middle and high school principals were rated as dynamic

leaders, representing the leadership of 21 (54%) middle schools and 18 (46%) high schools. The cross-tabulation for leadership classifications of principals by campus school level are presented in Table 17.

Table 17

Cross-tabulation of Principals' Leadership Classification by Campus School Level (N=62)

Leadership Classification	School Levels			
	Middle School		High School	
	#	%	#	%
Dynamic Leader				
Observed	21	61	18	64
Expected	21	61	18	65
Considerate Leader				
Observed	1	3	2	6
Expected	2	5	1	5
Passive Leader				
Observed	6	18	4	15
Expected	6	17	4	15
Structured Leader				
Observed	6	18	4	15
Expected	6	17	4	15
Total	34	100	28	100

In addition, the sixth analysis examined whether or not school campus level had an impact on team members' perceptions of principals' leadership actions and behaviors; a chi-square test for independence was performed. The relationship between the school campus level of the principal and leadership classification was not significant, $X^2(3, N = 62) = .791, p = ns$. The school campus level was not linked to whether or not principals were

classified as dynamic leaders, considerate leaders, passive leaders, and structured leaders.

The results of the chi-square test for independence of leadership classification of principals by school campus level are presented in Table 18.

Table 18.

Chi-Square Test for Independence of Principals' Leadership Classification by Campus School Level (N=62)

	<u>Value</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>Asymp. Sig (2-sided)</u>
Pearson Chi-Square	.791	3	.852
Likelihood Ration	.795	3	.851
Linear-by-Linear Association	.170	1	.680
<hr/>			
Total	62		

The seventh analysis examined whether there were differences in the administrative team's ratings of closeness to the principal by leadership classification. The variable, leadership classification, was presented earlier in the chapter and was developed based on the ratings of principals by the administrative team members. The two summary scores, people-orientation and systems-orientation, were used to classify the principals into four leadership categories: dynamic, considerate, passive, and structured.

A one-way between groups ANOVA was conducted using leadership classification as the independent variable and closeness to principal was the dependent variable. The results of the ANOVA revealed a statistically significant main effect for leadership classification of the principals, $F(3, 210) = 19.27, p = .00$. There was no main effect for gender and no significant interaction effect between the leadership classification of the principal and the gender of secondary principal, $F(3, 210) = .11, p = ns$. In addition, the ANOVA revealed a large effect

size (partial eta squared = .22) for leadership classification of the principal, explaining 22% of the variance in closeness to principal by leadership classification (see Table 19). .

In addition, a post-hoc analysis using Tukey's test revealed that dynamic leaders, had higher average ratings of closeness to principal when compared to passive and structured leadership classifications. No other comparisons were significant. The mean and standard deviation for closeness to principals by leadership classification are presented in Table 20. Therefore, closeness ratings to the principal were related to leadership classifications, but the gender of the principal did not relate to ratings of closeness, nor was there an interaction between the gender of the principal and leadership classification.

Table 19

One-Way Between Groups ANOVA of Principals' Leadership Classification for Closeness to Principal by Gender (N=210)

<u>Variable</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>SS</u>	<u>MS</u>	<u>F</u>	<u>P</u>	<u>ES</u>
Gender						
Leadership Classification	3	64.70	21.57	19.27	.000	.222
Gender of Principal	1	.612	.612	.547	.461	.003
Leadership Classification* Gender of Principal	3	.370	.123	.110	.954	.002
Total	210	2785.00				

Table 20

Mean and Standard Deviations for Principals' Leadership Classification and Closeness to Principal by Gender (N=210)

<u>Characteristics</u>	Gender of Principals							
	Male			Female			Total	
	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	M	SD
Leadership Classification								
Dynamic	57	3.75	.931	73	3.97	.897	3.86	.914
Considerate	2	3.00	1.41	2	3.50	2.12	3.25	1.77
Passive	23	2.52	.947	16	2.56	1.41	2.54	1.18
Structured	18	2.83	1.34	19	2.95	1.35	2.89	1.35
Total	100	3.03	1.16	110	3.25	1.44	3.14	1.30

Finally, the eighth analysis examined whether or not there were a correlation between closeness to the principal and the length of time working with the principal. A Pearson's Correlation test for variance was computed to assess the relationship between closeness to the principal and time working with the principal. There was a small correlation between the two variables ($r = .27$, $n = 210$, $p = .00$). Apparently, administrative team members' determination of their closeness to the principal was based, to some extent, on the amount of time they had worked with the principal.

Summary

This chapter presented the characteristics of the respondents and the results of the study. The answers to all research questions were obtained from data collected via the Leader Behavior Descriptive Questionnaire (LBDQ) and a demographic survey of 210 respondents

affiliated with 62 secondary school principals. Demographic data included gender, school level, length of time working with principal, description of closeness to principal of administrative team members and the gender of the secondary school principals.

Research Question 1: Does the gender of the principal and/or the gender of the administrative team members influence members' ratings of principal leadership actions and behaviors? For the 62 principals in the study, gender had no impact on whether or not principals received high or low ratings across the 12 subscales associated with the LBDQ. In addition, the gender of team members and gender of secondary principals had no impact on whether or not principals were rated as dynamic, considerate, passive, or structured leaders within the sub-delineation of system-orientation and person-orientation.

Research Question 2: Are there difference in how the administrative team members classify the leadership styles of male and female principals? Of a total of 62 secondary principals, the majority of the principals were classified as dynamic leaders 63% (n=39). Remaining classifications included 5% (n=3) as considerate leaders, 16% (n=10) as passive leaders and 16% (n=10) as structured leaders. In addition, the relationship between the gender of the principal and the leadership style was not significant. Therefore, the gender of the principal had no impact on whether or not principals were classified as dynamic leaders, considerate leader, passive leaders, or structured leaders.

Research Question 3

Do other variables such as school level, length of time working with the principal, and perception of closeness, influence the classification of the principals' leadership styles?

School Level

The relationship between the school campus level of the principal and leadership classification was not significant. The school campus level was not linked to whether or not

principals were classified as dynamic leaders, considerate leaders, passive leaders, and structured leaders.

Closeness to Principal

A one-way between groups ANOVA was conducted using leadership classification as the independent variable and closeness to principal was the dependent variable. The results of the ANOVA revealed a statistically significant main effect for leadership classification of the principals. In addition, a post-hoc analysis using Tukey's test revealed that dynamic leaders had higher average ratings of closeness to principal when compared to passive and structured leadership classifications.

Length of Time Working with Principal

A Pearson's Correlation test for variance indicated a relationship between closeness to the principal and time working with the principal. The correlation was small between the variable of closeness to the principal and time working with the principal. Administrative team members who classified principals rated themselves as close to the principal based on the amount of time they worked with the principal.

CHAPTER V: DISCUSSION

Introduction

This cross-sectional survey study investigated middle and high school administrative team members' leadership classifications and perceptions of secondary principals' leadership actions and behaviors in the context of change and to what extent these perceptions are gender specific. One intent of the study was to highlight the under-representation of female principals at the secondary levels and the lack of research that showcases the contributions of feminine-inspired leadership within the field of education leadership and research. As stated in Chapter 1, there is an increase in the number of females who are serving as secondary principals. However, there continues to be a disproportionately low number of females who occupy the principalship at middle and high school campuses (Holloway, 2000; Loder, 2005; Young & McLeod, 2001). With consideration for the marginal increases in the proportion of females who are serving as secondary principals, the researcher investigated school leaders' actions and behaviors based on LBDQ classifications and discovered what appears to be an alignment between the dynamic leader classification, the classification selected most often to describe perceptions of the principals in the study and feminine-inspired leadership behaviors.

Chapter 5 offers a discussion of the results and situates the findings within theory and research. The chapter is organized in six sections, including an introduction, an overview of the study, a discussion of the findings by research questions posed and framed with the context of theory and current literature, the limitations of the study, implications for future study, and conclusions regarding gendered perceptions of administrative team members regarding secondary school principals of their schools.

Overview of the Study

The research questions investigating gender perceptions of administrative team members regarding secondary principals' leadership actions and behaviors in managing change were explored through the use of the Leader Behavior Descriptive Questionnaire (LBDQ), Form

XII – fourth revision (Stogdill, 1963). The three research questions that guided the inquiry were

1) Does the gender of the principal and/or the gender of the administrative team members influence members' ratings of principal leadership actions and behaviors? 2) Are there differences in how the administrative team members classify the leadership styles of male and female principals? and 3) Do other variables, such as school level, length of time working with the principal, and perception of closeness, influence the classification of the principals' leadership styles?

According to Blake and McCauley (1991), leaders that are considered the most effective are those who are highly skilled in both system-orientation and person-orientation. As such, this study examined the leadership actions and behaviors of secondary school leaders, as rated by their subordinates on the LBDQ. The instrument is comprised of fifty-five (55) questions focused on administrative team members' perceptions of secondary principals as system-oriented leaders, and the remaining 45 questions centered on person-oriented leaders. Through the ratings of male and female administrative team members and based on the questions characterizing the two leadership dimensions of the LBDQ, secondary principals who participated in the study were classified as dynamic, considerate, passive, and structured leaders. More specifically, this study examined a number of factors that literature has suggested influence perceptions of leadership (Coleman, 2003; Mahitivanichcha & Rorrer, 2006; Nixon, 2006; Sanchez & Thornton, 2010; Shakeshaft, Brown, Irby, Grogan, & Ballenger, 2007) such as, gender, school level, length of time working with principals, and closeness to principal.

Discussion of Findings

12 LBDQ Subscales

The 12 LBDQ subscales were analyzed to determine if the gender of secondary principals and/or the gender of administrative team members would influence the team members' ratings of principals across the all subscales. These subscales are associated with

system-orientation (production emphasis, representation, role assumption, persuasion, need for control and order, and concern for advancement) and person-orientation (trust and autonomy, consideration, problem solving, vision, conflict resolution, and flexibility). Of the 210 administrative team members who rated 62 secondary principals, the results of the study determined that neither the gender of principal nor the gender of the administrative team members had any influence on the ratings principals received across the 12 subscales. This finding is consistent with the findings of a study conducted by Nixon (2006), which examined gender perceptions of teachers on high school principals' ratings across the 12 subscales using the LBDQ.

System-Orientation and Person-Orientation Dimensions

The system-orientation and person-orientation dimensions were determined from the combined 12 LBDQ subscales ratings. System-orientation is associated with establishing systems and processes that focus on paying high attention to tasks, details, production, and outcomes (Blake and Mouton, 1964; Eckman, 2004; Hoy & Miskel, 1991). Person-orientation is associated with relationship building that leads to mutual respect, collaboration, and shared decision-making (Blake and Mouton, 1964; Eckman, 2004; Hoy & Miskel, 1991).

The two sub-categories (system-orientation and person-orientation) were analyzed to determine if the gender of secondary principals and/or the gender of administrative team members would influence the team members' ratings of principals. Of the 210 administrative team members who rated 62 secondary principals, the results of the study determined that neither the gender of principal nor the gender of the administrative team members had any influence on the ratings principals received on either of the two dimensions, system-orientation and person-orientation. This finding is consistent with the findings of a study conducted by Nixon (2006), which investigated gender perceptions of teachers on high school principals' leadership actions and behaviors using the LBDQ. Nixon's study revealed high levels of system-orientation and person-orientation for both male and female high school principals but

no significant relationship between the gender of teachers and the gender of the principals. Therefore, neither the gender of high school principals nor the gender of the teachers influenced the ratings principals received on either of the two dimensions, system-orientation or person-orientation.

LBDQ Leadership Classifications

The LBDQ leadership classifications were determined by combined mean scores of administrative team members' ratings of principals on each of the two dimensions, system-orientation and person-orientation. Based on ratings, male and female principals were classified as dynamic, considerate, passive, or structured leaders. Of the 62 principals, 39 were classified as dynamic leaders, three were classified as considerate leaders, 10 were classified as passive leaders, and 10 were rated as structured leaders.

According to the LBDQ classifications and the actions and behaviors associated with them, the 39 principals classified as dynamic leaders would potentially be likely to pay high attention to both systems/processes and relationship aspects of leadership. This finding seems to typify more feminine-inspired educational leadership approaches, which are characterized as both collaborative and systematic in nature and tend to readily support the work necessary for educational reform today. Those principals classified as considerate leaders would likely be thought to pay low attention to systems/processes and high attention to the relationship aspects of leadership. Principals classified as passive leader would be expected to pay low attention to both the systems/processes and relationship aspects of leadership. Principals classified as structured leaders would be regarded as likely to pay high attention to systems/processes and low attention to the relationship aspects of leadership.

Each of the leadership classifications was analyzed to determine if differences existed in the way male and female administrative team members classified secondary principals. The analysis examined whether or not the of gender team members and/or the gender of principals influenced the ratings of leadership styles (actions and behaviors). Of the 62 principals, there

was no relationship that existed between the gender of secondary principals and the leadership classification. Therefore, the gender of the principal had no impact on the principals' ratings as dynamic leaders, considerate leaders, passive leaders, or structured leaders.

Participants Profile/Demographics

School Level

An analysis of the LBDQ leadership classifications of principals by administrative team members, based on school campus level, was conducted to determine if administrative team members' perceptions were linked to school campus level of secondary principals. Based on the ratings, 21 middle and 18 high school principals were rated as dynamic leaders; one middle and two high school principals were rated as considerate leaders; six middle and four high school principals were rated as passive leaders, and six middle and four high school principals were rated as structured leaders.

The relationship between the school campus level of the principal and leadership classification was not significant, $\chi^2(3, N = 62) = .791, p = ns$. Despite this finding, it must be acknowledged that middle and high school principals are faced with different challenges. Middle school principals are mostly challenged by creating a schooling environment that is nurturing and fosters independence and responsibility all at the same time (Blackwell, Trzesniewski, & Dweck, 2007). High school principals are challenged by changing the mindsets of some teaching faculty that really believe as long as they teach, students should learn (Dweck, 2010). Both of these challenges are connected to student progress and achievement, and they are inter-related and inter-connected.

In order to truly create solid learning environments that support student progress and achievement at the highest level, we need dynamic leaders in K-12 schools across America (Marzano, Waters, & McNulty, 2005; Waters & Cameron, 2007). Although 63% of the principals in this study were classified as dynamic leaders within the context of educational change, there were still 27% of the principals in this study who were not perceived to be dynamic leader by

their administrative team members. The literature suggest that school leaders who possess the ability and skill to facilitate the implementation of systems and processes, and to develop and sustain meaningful relationships with faculty, staff, parents, and students are more likely to establish a school culture that is conducive to student progress and achievement (Nixon, 2006; McRel, 2005).

Closeness to Principal

Administrative team members' ratings of closeness to the principal by leadership classification were examined. A statistically significant effect for leadership classification of principals, $F(3, 210) = 19.27, p = .00$, was noted in the study. In addition, Tukey's post-hoc analysis revealed that dynamic leaders engendered administrative team members' perceptions of closeness to them, particularly when compared to principals rated as passive or structured. This finding is consistent with literature regarding more feminine-inspired leadership approaches, which are often linked to emotional competencies because they are associated with emphases such as honesty, development, communication, reflection, and collaboration (Jensen, Kohn, Rilea, Hannon, & Howells, 2007). It is also consistent with the work of Gordon (2006), which suggests that principals who have the allusive talent, knowledge, skills, and disposition for the principalship are better able to create professional learning communities in which administrative team members, faculty and staff, and all stakeholders can develop a sense of closeness to the principal in an engaging school environment. This implies that dynamic principals are skilled leaders or managers who are strategic and deliberate, effective and efficient in terms of establishing strong systems and processes (Davis, S., Darling-Hammond, L., LaPointe, M., & Meyerson, D., 2005; Darling-Hammond, L., LaPointe, M., Meyerson, D., Orr., M. T., & Cohen, C., 2007) that facilitate the ability of administrative team members to perform their roles and responsibilities. As discussed in the literature, the "principal as manager" spends more time managing the instructional programs on K-12 campuses, while dynamic principals accomplish this in the way duties are assigned and in the way that stakeholders share

leadership (Davis, S., Darling-Hammond, L., LaPointe, M., & Meyerson, D., 2005; Darling-Hammond, L., LaPointe, M., Meyerson, D., Orr., M. T., & Cohen, C., 2007).

Length of Time Working with Principal

A Person's Correlation test for variance revealed a small relationship between the length of time working with the principal and closeness to the principal, $r=.27$, $n=210$, $p=.00$. This indicated that administrative teams associated the "length of time" they had worked with the principal with the extent to which they felt "close" to the principal. As male and female team members perform their roles and responsibilities, they interact with the principal on a routine and more intimate basis. Closeness to the principal occurs when male and female administrative team members and the principal are directly engaged in working on tasks and/or assignments together over time. Administrative team members who had worked with the principal from "6 months to 1 year" reported a certain level of closeness to the principal. However, team members who had worked with the principal "1 – 3 years" or "4 – 6 years" reported a greater level of closeness. It is usually at the "6 month" or longer mark when principals and team members begin to develop meaningful relationships with a targeted focus on task or product (Nixon, 2006). Thus, the finding that administrative team members rated themselves as close to the principals based on the amount of time they worked with the principal mirrors the literature.

Limitations of the Study

This study was originally confined to 42 middle school and 55 high school principals rated by administrative team members assigned to their secondary schools. Due to district reconfiguration of schools and closures, a reduction in the number of targeted schools and sample populations occurred. Therefore, the study was limited to 39 middle schools and 28 high schools and the administrative team members affiliated with their schools.

Implications for Future Study

This research is among the first to explore the systems-oriented and person-oriented leadership actions and behaviors of secondary school principals as perceived by male and female members of their affiliated administrative teams. Based on the results, there are strong implications for conducting further study on the topic. Recommendations for future research are found below:

A quantitative research study in which principals rate themselves using the LBDQ while their administrative team members utilize the same measure to denote their gender-specific perceptions of leaders' actions and behaviors would provide a glimpse into the views principals hold of themselves as leaders as compared to those held by the stakeholders who work most closely with them. Research of this type will increase awareness of gender related issues in the field of education and educational leadership while illuminating both the perspectives of school principals and administrative team members.

1. Another recommendation for future research is a quantitative research inquiry examining secondary teachers' gender-based perceptions of leadership actions and behaviors of administrative team members and the administrative team members' self-ratings using the LBDQ. Very few studies to date have explored the perceptions and perspectives held by secondary teachers who work closely with administrative team members.
2. Research exploring the leadership actions and behaviors of "turnaround" principals in schools undergoing educational reform and schools that are considered successful is needed.
3. While the present study examined principals' behaviors and actions with regard to leading change, a quantitative research study investigating the relationship of principals' leadership actions and behaviors (as measured via the LBDQ and as perceived by administrative team members) to student achievement results has implications for

expanding the extant literature regarding the types of leadership needed to further student achievement.

Conclusions

Gender is a highly sensitive subject. This study is not intended to misrepresent or under-represent any one group of individuals. Instead, it is my hope as a researcher that we can collectively learn from this inquiry and continue to examine leadership actions and behaviors in a manner that embraces gender-based differences. Literature on feminine-inspired approaches, such as Noddings' (1984) work regarding a feminine approach to education and Hurty's (1995) work detailing the five elements of power (emotional energy, nurtured growth, reciprocal talk, pondered mutuality, and collaboration) certainly support this stance. Perhaps some of the existing gender-based differences which distinguish sound leadership practices may serve as instruments that assist us in better serving the nation's students while simultaneously attending to the needs of aspiring and current school principals. Indeed, not only does our future as school leaders depend on it, but the future generations of children in our great nation, the United States of America, is dependent upon it as well.

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APPENDCIES

**University Committee for the Protection
of Human Subjects in Research
University of New Orleans**

Campus Correspondence

Principal Investigator: Tammie Causey-Konate
Co-Investigator: Shannon Lachlin
Date: July 9, 2012
Protocol Title: "Gender Perceptions of Administrative Team Members
regarding Secondary Principals' Leadership Actions
and Behaviors in Managing Change"
IRB#: 04Jul12

The IRB has deemed that the research and procedures described in this protocol application are exempt from federal regulations under 45 CFR 46.101 category 2, due to the fact that the information obtained is not recorded in such a manner that human subjects can be identified, directly or through identifiers linked to the subjects.

Exempt protocols do not have an expiration date; however, if there are any changes made to this protocol that may cause it to be no longer exempt from CFR 46, the IRB requires another standard application from the investigator(s) which should provide the same information that is in this application with changes that may have changed the exempt status.

If an adverse, unforeseen event occurs (e.g., physical, social, or emotional harm), you are required to inform the IRB as soon as possible after the event.

Best wishes on your project.
Sincerely,



Robert D. Laird, Ph.D., Chair
UNO Committee for the Protection of Human Subjects in Research

Dear Administrative Team Member,

I need your assistance! You are being invited to participate in a research study that will investigate the leadership behaviors and actions of your school principal in the context of change. You were selected to participate in this study because you are an employee and administrative team member assigned to a middle or high school in the Southwest School (SSD) where you have worked with the principal for at least six months or longer.

As a senior manager for leadership development and a former principal, I have a great interest in learning about the different leadership styles that principals use. In order to do this, your input is necessary. After clicking on the link below, you will be asked several questions about your perception of your principal's leadership actions and behaviors. The statements are brief and your response will be measured on an "always to never" scale. You need only describe your principal's leadership actions and behaviors as accurately as possible. The survey should take you no longer than thirty minutes to complete.

In case you are concerned about your principal learning what you said about him or her, I can assure you that your identity will be protected. In fact, the only information I will ask about who you are, which will be limited to school campus type, gender, race, age, position, number of years in education, and length position time working with the principal, will be collected. The information will be managed and reported on in such a way that your name, the name of your principal, and school district will never be acquired or included in the study itself. Raw data regarding this study will be securely stored and will be destroyed three years after the end of the study.

YOUR PRINCIPAL WILL NOT HAVE ACCESS TO THIS DATA. As a study participant, you and your principal are welcome to a copy of the results once the study is completed. Participating in this study will potentially allow me to identify leadership actions and behaviors of principals that are engaged in the change process. Therefore, the potential to have campus principals skilled in managing and leading the change process may lead to models of effective leader behaviors that reflect success. Other benefits include learning how gender affects the leadership actions and behaviors of school leaders. Additionally, your responses to the survey will not affect the principal in any way (e.g. principals will not be negatively documented or fired based on the survey).

By choosing to advance beyond this page, you agree and understand the procedures and any risks and benefits involved in this research. You are free to refuse to participate or withdraw your permission to participate in this study at any time without penalty or prejudice. Your participation is completely voluntary.

The University of New Orleans Institutional Review Board, which ensures that research involving people follows federal regulations, has approved this research and consent form. Questions concerning your rights as a participant in this research project can be answered by calling Dr. Ann O'Hanlon, (504) 280-3990. If you have any questions about the research study, you may call me, Shannon L. Verrett, at (713) 454-9692 or my doctoral advisor, Dr. Tammie Causey-Konate, at (504) 280.6453.

By continuing, you are agreeing to participate in the research project described to you above. Please print this page for your records. Thanks again for our help. Survey link is <https://www.surveymonkey.com/s/NJKS9FH>.

Sincerely,

Shannon L. Verrett

Shannon L. Verrett
UNO Doctoral Candidate

Respondents' Response Rates by Dates

The response rate by dates tracked the flow of survey completion on a day-to-day basis. It represents the number and percent of surveys completed, survey launched date, dates of the 2nd through final request to complete survey, and the message indicating that the survey was closed. In addition, the response rate by dates allowed the researcher to monitor and calculate if an appropriate response rate was obtained based on the number of survey request sent. The results for respondents' response rates by dates are presented below.

Respondents' Response Rates by Dates (N=237)

Characteristics		<u># of Respondents</u>	<u>Total # of Respondents</u>	<u>%</u>
July 20, 2012	(Survey launch)	7	7	1.71
July 21, 2012		6	13	3.18
July 22, 2012		7	20	4.90
July 23, 2012		16	36	8.82
July 24, 2012		14	50	12.26
July 25, 2012	(2 nd request)	7	57	13.98
July 26, 2012		15	72	17.65
July 27, 2012		6	78	19.12
July 29, 2012		2	80	19.61
July 30, 2012		7	87	21.32
July 31, 2012		6	93	22.79
August 1, 2012		4	97	23.77
August 2, 2012	(3 rd request)	9	106	25.98
August 3, 2012		8	114	27.94
August 6, 2012		6	120	29.41
August 7, 2012		5	125	30.64
August 8, 2012		5	130	31.86
August 9, 2012		9	139	34.07
August 10, 2012		9	148	36.28
August 11, 2012		2	150	36.77
August 12, 2012		1	151	37.01
August 13, 2012		14	165	40.44
August 14, 2012	(Final request)	18	183	44.85
August 15, 2012		18	201	49.27
August 16, 2012		6	207	50.74
August 17, 2012		2	209	51.23

Table continued

Characteristics	<u># of Respondents</u>	<u>Total # of Respondents</u>	<u>%</u>
August 18, 2012	1	210	51.47
August 19, 2012	5	215	52.70
August 20, 2012	5	220	53.92
August 21, 2012	3	223	54.66
August 22, 2012	7	230	56.37
August 23, 2012	1	231	56.62
August 24, 2012	2	233	57.11
August 27, 2012	3	236	57.84
August 28, 2012 (Survey closed)	1	237	58.09

Note. Four hundred eight (408) surveys were sent to the e-mail addresses of administrative team members assigned to traditional secondary schools within the Southwest School District (SSD).

VITA

Shannon L. Verrett earned a Bachelor of Science in Special Education in 1994 from Austin Peay State University in Clarksville, Tennessee. He earned a Master of Education degree in K-12 Education Administration and Supervision from the University of New Orleans in 1998 and completed the Doctor of Philosophy degree in K-12 Educational Leadership at the University of New Orleans in December 2012.

Shannon has experience as a high school teacher and dean of students. In addition, he has junior high, K-8, and high school principal experience. He is known as the first “Takeover” principal in the state of Louisiana where he established a solid educational foundation conducive for teaching and student learning for students in one of the neighborhood schools in the city of New Orleans. Under his leadership, the school made significant gains in student progress and achievement within the first 100 days of school.

He reopened the K-8 “Takeover” school in its original location in one of the most devastated areas in the city of New Orleans, in January 2006, during the aftermath of hurricane Katrina. Because of the success he experienced as a “turnaround” principal, the Louisiana State Department of Education and the University of New Orleans, in May 2006, tapped Shannon to launch the state’s first dual partnership early college high school in the city. The concept of the early college high school model provided the New Orleans areas with a high-quality secondary school option for its returning citizens.

Currently, Shannon serves as a Senior Manager for Secondary Leadership Development in one of the largest urban school districts in the United States of America. He is responsible for leadership development of aspiring school leaders, induction for first-time administrator, and on-going leadership learning experiences for veteran principals and veteran assistant administrators. In addition, he is also responsible for the district-wide implementation of the school leadership framework for his district.