

TEACHER PERCEPTION OF ADMINISTRATORS' LEADERSHIP QUALITIES
BASED ON THE ADMINISTRATOR'S BIOLOGICAL SEX

by

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Liberty University

A Dissertation Presented in Partial Fulfillment

Of the Requirements for the Degree

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ABSTRACT

Determining the criteria necessary for an educational leader or principal to be effective by including employees, such as teachers in evaluating their principals, may aid in strengthening educational leadership overall. The purpose of this quantitative causal-comparative study was to determine if there is a difference between teacher perception of their administrator's leadership qualities of *inspiring a shared vision*, *modeling the way*, and *enabling others to act* based on the biological sex of their administrator. The Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) Observer form was used to measure the leadership quality of educational administrators as perceived by their teachers. The population for the study was 107 Kentucky Pre-K–12 public school teachers from five different school districts. A quantitative causal-comparative design was used to determine if a difference exists between the independent variable, biological sex of the administrator, and the dependent variable of teacher perception of their principal's leadership qualities *inspiring a shared vision*, *modeling the way*, and *enabling others to act*. An independent samples *t*-test was used to test the null hypotheses. The results revealed that there was no statistically significant difference in teacher perception of their principal's leadership qualities of *inspiring a shared vision*, *modeling the way*, and *enabling others to act* based on the biological sex of the principal. The small and very small effect sizes found between male and female principals on each leadership quality indicate that the gender gap in educational leadership is narrowing. Recommendations for future research include expanding higher education leadership programs to promote doctrines that address the gender gap in leadership and enlarging the collection site to increase participation in the study.

Keywords: educational leadership, feedback, social-role theory, teacher perception

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List of Abbreviations

Association of Christian Schools International (ACSI)

Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA)

Institutional Review Board (IRB)

Interstate School Leadership Licensure Consortium (ISLLC)

Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI)

National Center for Education Statistics (NCES)

No Child Left Behind (NCLB)

Race to the Top (RTTT)

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Overview

Over the past 30 years educational leadership has evolved into one of the most integral parts of the K–12 public school system in the United States of America. Regardless of the numerous educational trends that have attempted to revamp the educational system, educational leadership has been and remains the driving force behind any hope of change in the educational arena. Determining the criteria necessary for an educational leader or principal to be effective will aid in revamping the educational system. Furthermore, including employees, such as teachers, in evaluating their principals may aid in strengthening educational leadership overall. Chapter One includes background information, the problem statement, the purpose, significance of this study, research questions, and definitions.

Background

The majority of literature about educational administration has fixated solely on the leadership effectiveness and skills of the principal (Rachel, 2006) instead of the actual leadership qualities that are essential traits of an effective educational leader, which can result in an increase in student academic achievement and teacher efficacy (Orphanos & Orr 2014; Oyer, 2015). Munir and Khalil (2016) state that “Countries all over the world are facing challenges in improving their schools and maintaining the standards of quality teaching and learning against the backdrop of ineffective school leadership and low performing teachers” (p. 45). Throughout history the vocation of an educational administrator has undergone numerous changes in hopes of improving student achievement and the overall educational system in general.

At one time, educational administrators such as principals and assistant principals were expected to act as mere facilitators of Pre-K–12 schools; however, over time the administrators’

job has become more of a collaborative position. Principals are required to collaborate regularly with their faculty members and other stakeholders. In order to build working relationships, communicate the school vision, and enrich school culture principals form collaborative relationships with faculty members, parents, and community members. Sehgal, Nambudiri, and Mishra (2017) found that collaboration between educational leaders and teachers holds the possibility of emphatically affecting or impacting teacher efficacy overall. This study also revealed that schools that seek to improve teacher effectiveness should turn their attention to building up the self-efficacy of their teachers and focus on fostering an environment of collaboration between principals and teachers (Sehgal et al., 2017).

According to Andreas (2012) a principal is considered a quality leader when he or she can elicit high performance from faculty members and train them to be effective at increasing the academic achievement of students. In the past, unless there was a discipline problem or something of that nature, principals had minimal contact with students and parents. Over the last two decades, students and parents have slowly become major educational stakeholders with a voice and influence in the educational school system. In addition, faculty or teachers also gained status as stakeholders and acquired a voice within the school system (Odhiambo & Hii, 2012). As the leader of the school, the principal serves as a collaborative partner to teachers, students' parents, and other stakeholders in the surrounding community. Kouzes and Posner (2010) "...describe how the workforce has also changed from what previous generations knew, becoming increasingly diverse, multicultural, dispersed, horizontal, and distributed-and, consequently, requiring more collaboration than competition" (p. xiv).

Furthermore, educational reports indicate that the only way for the United States to improve the educational system is to recruit and appoint exceptional leaders for the schools

(Munir & Khalil, 2016; Hitt, Tucker, & Young, 2012). While the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) of 2001 placed pressure on states, school districts, administrators, and teachers to increase student achievement in English, Reading, Mathematics, and Language Arts, the NCLB Act failed to specifically address any training or strategies that would help educational leaders become more effective.

Government Legislation and Educational leadership

The NCLB Act required educational leaders such as administrators, principals, and even teachers to implement strategies and programs that would increase student achievement in each of these educational areas. Administrators bereft of strategies to help them become effective leaders were instead provided with specific guidelines for curriculum structure, student instruction and assessment, and teacher evaluation. Rigorous testing was instituted to assess advancement toward these goals. Thus, the 21st century educational focus of the NCLB Act quickly turned to assessment through high-stakes testing to improve student achievement. The NCLB Act tasked administrators with the responsibility to ensure that all educators were of high quality, students were academically challenged, and high-stakes test scores met preset standards.

Although the NCLB Act highlighted numerous educational changes for students and teachers, Pre-K–12 administrators or principals were merely seen as the enforcer of the NCLB Act mandates instead of as a vital part of the educational system. Society's call for educational reform to increase the effectiveness of our school system briefly shifted the focus from students and teachers to school leadership as a possible means to increase student achievement (Agosto, Karanxha & Bellara, 2015; Odhiambo & Hii, 2012). There was a definite need for Pre-K12 principals to be evaluated to ascertain if they possess the leadership qualities necessary to bring about the plethora of changes mandated by the NCLB Act. According to researchers, in the

high-stakes testing accountability system touted by the NCLB Act, only a small number of schools are in favor of a system that includes evaluation and feedback for educational leaders such as principals and assistant principals (Goff, Goldring, & Bickman, 2014).

The Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA, 2015) replaced the NCLB Act (2001); however, both acts contain similarities in the testing accountability requirements and student growth. The major difference between NCLB Act and ESSA is that ESSA places an emphasis on providing training to help administrators become more effective leaders, whereas the NCLB Act (2001) does not. The original draft of the ESSA includes provisions and funding to increase administrators training and professional development opportunities (Collins et al., 2005; Davis & Darling-Hammond, 2012; 2017). ESSA suggests that revamping principal preparation programs may aid in helping leaders be more effective (ESSA, 2015). Under ESSA “evidence-based” is exhibited in a series of four tiers or levels, Tier I (strong evidence), Tier II (moderate evidence), Tier III (promising evidence), and Tier IV (interventions rationale based on high-quality research) (ESSA, 2015; Gandhi, Holdheide, & Edmonds, 2016). Each Tier must include an intervention based on a minimum of one well-designed study with different research designs (Herman, Gates, Chavez-Herrerias, & Harris, 2016).

Although research clearly shows the vital role of the educational administrator in improving schools, in the past programs that would help this initiative remain grossly underfunded or in many cases unfunded until ESSA (Haller, Hunt, Pacha, & Fazekas, 2016; Manna, 2015). In the past the NCLB Act (2001) and other educational legislation have lumped principals into the same categories as teachers and other educational leaders which leaves administrators bereft of the specific help necessary to improve their leadership qualities; however, ESSA has built-in provisions specifically to develop effective administrators. Haller et

al. (2016) proposed that unlike the NCLB Act, ESSA contains specific empirical research-based program strategies to aid principals in becoming effective school leaders. In addition, individual states are tasked with using creativity and strategic planning to incorporate and provide relevant training opportunities for principals through professional development. It remains to be seen whether state involvement in the development of educational leaders will be effective in closing the achievement gap for students especially students in low performing schools (Boerma et al., 2017).

Characteristics of an Effective Administrator

Two experts on effective leadership, Kouzes and Posner (1987), have studied leadership and the assessment of leadership extensively for three decades. Beginning in the 1980s Kouzes and Posner started focusing on the concept of “exemplary leaders” and began identifying the factors necessary for an administrator to become an exemplary leader. Kouzes and Posner (1987, 2013) and other researchers have found that the perception that colleagues or subordinates have of their leaders seems to have a high amount of predictive validity when it comes to identifying competent or exemplary leaders (Lewin & Zwany, 1976; Oyer, 2015; Shore, Shore, & Thornton, 1992). Educational administrators are typically considered to be superintendents, principals, assistant principals, and teachers; however, for the purposes of this study educational administrators were principals only.

An effective principal is capable of garnering the allegiance, support, and trust of subordinates, which in the school setting are members of the faculty or teachers (Notman & Henry, 2011; Oyer, 2015; Rachel, 2006). In order to do this, the principal must invest time and attention in forming positive relationships with teachers in their employ. Subordinates are more apt to follow a leader that cares about the well-being of all educational stakeholders including

students, parents, teachers, and the community. A principal who cares possesses an attitude of serving, listening, supporting, and promoting the welfare of all educational stakeholders above his or her own. According to Notman and Henry (2011), principals who place an emphasis on forming relationships with stakeholders display warmth and loyalty to all stakeholders, remain approachable, and possess a caring and open demeanor. Educational stakeholders perceive that an effective principal is genuinely concerned about their welfare, desires what is best for the school overall, and values the opinions of all stakeholders.

As the most important stakeholder, students have the right to receive a quality education in a safe environment, and the principal is responsible for ensuring that this happens. In addition to the myriad of duties required of principals, at the top of the list are hiring quality teachers and ensuring that the school safety measures are adequate and enforced (Eren, 2014; Grissom, Kalogrides, & Loeb, 2014). The principal serves as the paramount authority of a school, the catalyst for educational changes, and the glue required in forming and maintaining collaborative relationships among all stakeholders. While numerous studies have been conducted on the various types of the leadership styles employed by educational leaders, little research exists about the effect(s) that the principal's biological sex has on teacher perception of the principal's quality of leadership.

Gender and Leadership

Traditionally administrative jobs in education have been occupied by males who were mentored by the "old boy's network" (Aziz, Kalsoom, Quraishi, & Hasan, 2017; Gardiner, Enomoto, & Grogan, 2000; Mertz, Welch, & Henderson, 1988). Over the last two decades women have slowly managed to infiltrate educational administrative positions despite numerous hurdles. The lack of female representation in educational administration can be attributed to

“sex-role differences, leadership styles, organizational structure, lack of females in the pipeline, and sex-role stereotypes” (Scott, 2003, p. 83). As society continues to change demographically the face of educational leaders will also change particularly the biological sex of the administrator (Jean-Marie, Williams, & Sherman, 2009). Agosto et al. (2015) posit that the way to aid women in securing more higher-level educational leadership positions is to confront the blockades that prevent their admission and advancement through the proper channels. Furthermore, Jean-Marie et al. (2009) purport that the demographic biological sex may play an important role in how subordinates (teachers’) perceive the competency of their administrator.

Perception and Leadership

An educational leader or administrator is often defined by their leadership style and positive results from or failures to make needed changes in an organization. Educational perception studies regarding the effect administrators have on their schools involved the perception of other educational stakeholders which include students, parents, and teachers (Odhiambo & Hii, 2012). Many times the way a leader perceives his or her job performance and attitude differs from how their teachers and staff members perceive their leadership skills. The relationship between leader and follower is important because it is invariably linked through the perception the follower has of the leader’s abilities and the willingness of the follower to be led by the leader (Oyer, 2015).

Problem Statement

Although there has been a plethora of studies about educational administrators and the impact that they have on student achievement, (Bastian & Henry, 2014; Branch, Hanushek, & Rivkin, 2013; Brewer, 1993; Coelli & Green, 2012; Dhuey & Smith, 2014a; Eberts & Stone, 1988; Miller, 2013; Munir & Khalil, 2016), few studies have been completed on the perception

that teachers have of the leadership effectiveness of their administrator. When considering how teachers perceive the leadership quality of their administrator, the administrator's biological sex has the potential to affect teacher perception. Often the quality of service or professionalism that a person perceives they are performing differs markedly from the perception of other observers. While other educational stakeholders' perception of the principals' leadership quality certainly merits interest, the teachers' or subordinates' perceptions of leadership can provide more relevant insight into what makes a leader effective (Liang, Liu, Wu, & Chao, 2015; Odhiambo & Hii, 2012; Oyer, 2015).

In a study that explored the influence a principal's administrative skills have on teacher performance, Nandi (2011) found that a principal with strong administrative skills did, in fact, influence teacher performance. Pugh, Fillingim, Blackborne, Bunch, and Thomas (2011) found that the most important factor in identifying principal effectiveness was how faculty members perceived the leadership attributes of the principal. Oyer (2015) concluded that principals who solicit feedback from their teachers about the quality of their leadership performance exhibit a willingness to increase their overall effectiveness as an educational leader. Therefore, teacher perception of the leadership quality of their administrator has the potential to impact the school's overall performance (Orphanos & Orr, 2014).

Although studies on multisource or upward feedback in educational leadership have shown a significant gap between the perception of the leaders and teachers, the factors that influence the gap remain to be identified (Goff et al., 2014). The problem is that the literature has not addressed how accurately teacher perception of the leadership style of their administrator can be predicted based on the biological sex of the administrator. Therefore, the impact of

teacher perception of the leadership effectiveness of their principal warranted further investigation.

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this quantitative causal-comparative study was to determine if there is a difference between teacher perception of their administrator's leadership qualities of *inspiring a shared vision, modeling the way, and enabling others to act* based on the biological sex of their administrator. The population for the study was Kentucky Pre-K–12 public school teachers from five different school districts.

In order to assess the way that each teacher perceives the leadership qualities that were currently exhibited by their school administrator, teachers were asked to rate their administrator using the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) developed by Kouzes and Posner (1987). The LPI provides an assessment of the leadership quality of any leader and includes an LPI self-assessment for the principal and an LPI observer-assessment for subordinates to complete. This study only utilized the observer-assessment to see how accurately teacher perception of their principal's leadership qualities could be predicted based on the biological sex of the principal. The independent variable in the study was the biological sex of the administrator.

The specific leadership qualities that were examined in the study were modeling the way, inspiring a shared vision, and enabling others to act (Kouzes & Posner, 1993, 2013; Leech & Fulton, 2008; Pastian-Undersahl, Walker, & Woehr, 2014). The dependent variable was teachers' perception of the leadership quality of their principal in modeling the way, enabling others to act, and inspiring a shared vision. *Modeling the way* is employed as a description of an educational leader setting a professional example for teachers to follow (Kouzes & Posner, 1993, 2013; Pucic, 2015). The principal who *inspires a shared vision* develops a vision for the school

and solicits faculty input and adoption of the vision (Kouzes & Posner, 1993, 2013; Leech & Fulton, 2008). An educational leader who *enables others to act* empowers their subordinates by providing opportunities for professional development and the applicable training to help them be successful (Pastian-Undersahl et al. 2014).

Significance of the Study

Numerous studies on educational leadership have dealt solely with the concept of what makes one an effective administrator (Khan & Tauqeer, 2015). Over the last five decades numerous researchers have provided more than 65 different organized categories to define the concept of leadership (Fleishmann et al., 1991; Mehdinezhad & Sardarzahi, 2016). This has been the focus as effective school leadership can serve as the impetus to motivate staff members, create collaboration within the organization, and foster meaningful relationships with all educational stakeholders (Goff et al., 2014; Hauserman, Ivankova, & Stick, 2013). Since the principal serves as the leader of the school, all educational stakeholders expect the principal to promote the well-being of students, steer the school to success based on their vision, create positive relationships of trust with all stakeholders, and provide support and leadership opportunities to subordinates (Kouzes & Posner, 2001). Furthermore, as the head of the educational organization the principal has the responsibility of providing the vision for the school, a blueprint to execute the vision, delegating tasks to team members, and maintaining morale among the team members (Kiranh, 2013; Mills, Huerta, Watt, & Martinez, 2014).

All of these factors have led researchers to define what is effective when leading educational institutions and how one can enact these leadership approaches. However, these investigations have not considered the possibility that the biological sex of the principal might impact how efforts to be an effective leader are perceived by the teachers. This study addressed

the way that teachers perceive the effectiveness of their principal's leadership qualities based on the independent variable the biological sex of the principal. This quantitative causal-comparative study expanded the understanding beyond that provided by previous research studies that gauged the impact that teacher perception has on the leadership quality of their administrator.

Research Questions

RQ1: Is there a difference in teachers' perceptions of their administrator's leadership quality of *inspiring a shared vision* between male administrators and female administrators?

RQ2: Is there a difference in teachers' perceptions of their administrator's leadership quality of *modeling the way* between male administrators and female administrators?

RQ3: Is there a difference in teachers' perceptions of their administrator's leadership quality of *enabling others to act* between male administrators and female administrators?

Definitions

1. *Administrator* - leader in a school setting (principal) that influences, controls, and coordinates the activities of others (teachers) to achieve the desired results (Bakhsh, Hussain, & Mohsin, 2015).
2. *Biological Sex* - sex typically assigned at birth (or before during ultrasound) based on the appearance of external genitalia (American Psychological Association, 2015).
3. *Collective leadership* - refers to the extent of influence that organizational members and stakeholders exert on decisions in their schools. The leaders in this leadership approach can be administrators, teachers, students, and parents (Leithwood & Seashore-Louis, 2011).

4. *Contextualized feedback intervention theory* - suggests that cognitive dissonance, stimulated by evidence that the principal's view of their own leadership is somehow incongruous with teacher's perception of their leadership, also can be used to motivate behavioral changes that lead to improved leadership (Goff et al., 2014).
5. *Enabling others to act* - an educational leader that makes themselves visible to all stakeholders and invites subordinates to join in the decision-making process enables others to act for the good of the school community (Tatlah, Iqbal, Amin, and Quraishi, 2014).
6. *Inspiring a shared vision* - includes the educational leader possessing a plan for the overall school and taking the necessary steps to create faculty buy-into the vision or plan (Kouzes & Posner, 2007).
7. *Instructional leadership* - educational oversight that focuses on the core functions of the school such as teaching, student learning, and resources that support these activities (Austin, 1979; Bossert, Dwyer, Rowan, & Lee, 1982; Cotton & Savard, 1980).
8. *Modeling the way* - reflects appropriate role modeling and clarity about one's philosophy (Herold & Fields, 2004).
9. *Social role theory* - proposes that there are qualities and behavioral tendencies demonstrated by each gender (descriptive roles) and also expectations regarding roles men and women should occupy (prescriptive roles) (Wood & Eagly, 2012).
10. *Transactional leadership* - the communication that occurs between the leader, their peers, and the followers wherein the leader conveys the expectations, structure, and incentives necessary to fulfill the needs of the organization (Bass, 1998).

11. *Transformational leadership* - inspiring followers to commit to a shared vision and set of goals for the organization, and then seeking to develop management and supervisory skills in the followers (Bass & Riggio, 2005).
12. *360-degree feedback, multisource feedback* - a self-evaluation by the leader with parallel evaluations provided by subordinates, peers, and superiors (Atwater, Ostroff, Yammarino, & Fleenor, 1998).

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

Overview

The chapter begins with the theoretical framework that guided this study. These theories include the social-role theory (Wood & Eagly, 2012) and the role congruity theory (Eagly & Karau, 2002). The theoretical framework is followed by a thorough review of the literature in the Related Literature section. Topics included are educational reform, teacher perception, teacher background, and hours of professional development. This chapter concludes with a summary.

Theoretical Framework

The theories that drive this study were the social role theory by Wood and Eagly (2012), and the role congruity theory by Eagly and Karau (2002). Each of these theories add depth to the study through the implicit connections between social roles and the category of biological sex. The social role theory and the role-congruity theory, respectively, will be discussed next.

Social Role Theory

This study was driven primarily by the social role theory by Wood and Eagly (2012). The social-role theory developed by Wood and Eagly (2012) is applicable for perception studies that are based on learning through observation (Koffman & Walters, 2014). In leadership perception studies observational learning is the way that a person (leader or subordinate) interprets behaviors, mannerisms, or communication that are modeled (McNae & Vali, 2015). In studies on teacher perception of administrators, teachers believed effective leaders are transparent, possess a professional attitude, and have the willingness to collaborate with other stakeholders (Blasé & Blasé, 1999, 2000; Blasé & Kirby, 1992).

The social role theory by Wood and Eagly (2012) purports that society places specific expectations on the roles that males and females fulfill to include descriptive and prescriptive roles. Descriptive role pertains to the facets and behavioral norms exhibited by each gender, whereas prescriptive role refers to the prescribed duties that men and women should fulfill in society (Weiner & Burton, 2016). Females are perceived to more readily display “communal” characteristics which include displaying affection, aiding, and nurturing attributes, while males are more inclined to and even expected to display “agentic” characteristics such as aggression, puissance, and self-assurance (Abele, Uchronski, Suitner, & Wojciszke, 2008; Bakan, 1966; Deaux & Lewis, 1983; Koenig, Eagly, Mitchell, & Ristikari, 2011; Williams & Best, 1990; Wood & Eagly, 2012).

Furthermore, female administrators are judged more harshly and are afforded fewer career opportunities than their male counterparts (Eagly, 1992; Eagly & Carli, 2007; Hoyt, 2010; Hoyt & Burnette, 2013). Effective female leaders who display stereotypical agentic leadership attributes that are associated with male leaders are often considered to be out of character because they are violating standards for their gender by not displaying stereotypical female communal qualities (Eagly et al., 2002). Due to the expected societal and personal roles attributed to males and females the social role theory is applicable to educational studies like this one that seek to determine if a difference exists between the perception that subordinate employees have of their principal’s leadership skills in conjunction with the biological sex of the principal. The second theory that guided this study was the role congruity theory by Eagly and Karau (2002).

Role Congruity Theory

Eagly and Karau (2002) propose that the role congruity theory acknowledges that the opportunity for discrimination manifests when social perceivers embrace stereotypical attitudes about certain groups which conflict with the qualities that are viewed as necessary for effectiveness in specific roles in society. Specific role expectations and discriminatory practices are also evident in educational leadership. Glazer-Ramo (2001) discovered that as women receive degrees in educational administration, they are still not given the same opportunities as their male counterparts and are often subjected to systematic discrimination. The disparity between the female (communal) gender role and the male (agentic) leader role precipitates two varieties of prejudice wherein: (a) females are perceived to be incompatible for leadership roles, and (b) even when females effectively fulfill leadership roles they are not evaluated favorably like male leaders (Eagly & Karau, 2002). In other words, perceivers' idiosyncrasies, ideologies, and personal preferences coupled with the stereotypical roles that society assigns for males and females in leadership positions create and foster an atmosphere of prejudice. Role congruity theory is explicitly tethered to the social role theory's view of specific gender roles and the significance of the behavior of the different sexes (Eagly, Wood, & Diekmann, 2000). Furthermore, role congruity theory extends beyond the social role theory by including the congruity or consistency that exists between traditional male and female gender roles and particularly leadership roles including specific identifiers that predispose perceptions of consistency and the subsequent repercussions associated with preconceptions and the behavior that accompanies this mindset (Eagly et al., 2002).

Traditionally males have held most of the leadership positions in society and many of the qualities of leadership are associated with male attributes such as courage, assertiveness,

decisiveness, resilience, and strategic thinking. These qualities comprise the agentic aspect of leadership which is credited to male leaders such as principals. Unlike their male counterparts female leaders are viewed firstly through a feminine lens, secondly through a communal attribute lens, and finally through a leadership quality lens (Hoyt & Burnette, 2013; Wood & Eagly, 2012). Each lens contains certain elements of prejudice that serve as filters through which female educational leaders must pass before being judged or perceived based on their capabilities and experience as an educational leader (Eagly et al., 2002). These filters detract from the female educational leaders' actual leadership effectiveness and cause the perceivers' focus to center on society's perceived role of a leader instead of individual performance. Female educational leaders and women leaders, in general, are constantly battling prejudices that stem from the prescribed roles that society has assigned to them as women first and then as leader. The communal lens views women as nurturing, relational, and supportive which are attributes that society fails to associate with strong, effective leaders (Hoyt & Burnette, 2013).

A study by Heilman and Okimoto (2007) revealed that successful women leaders that function in accordance with the perceived typical gender stereotype are usually celebrated; however, these same women may encounter punishment in professional arenas when they are perceived to transgress the perceived gender roles. Thus, perceivers that value traditional gender roles may view these effective women leaders negatively based purely on their perceived violation of the gender role by these women leaders. The perception discrepancy surfaces when perceivers interpret and attribute leadership roles in agentic terms which are associated with male leaders and prefer that women leaders exhibit communal traits which are associated with women leaders (Eagly et al., 2002). In fact, an effective women leader may receive both positive and negative evaluations based on the way perceivers interpret gender roles in our society (Heilman,

Block, Martell, & Simon, 1989). A study performed by Johnson, Murphy, Zewdie, and Reichard (2008) revealed that in order to be perceived as an effective leader, women may have to exhibit both male and female behaviors. Ye, Wang, Wendt, Wu, and Euwema, (2016) propose that female managers utilize specific managerial coaching to ensure that they are effective managers and to garner favorable evaluations within their organizations. Female managers who engage in “coaching behavior” are less dependent on societal culture and more dependent on relationship building through collaborating, supporting subordinates, and providing relevant feedback (Ye et al., 2016).

Heilman (1983) developed the lack-of-fit model of bias in work environments which suggests that when a person’s workplace role fails to match up with their assigned gender qualities, perceivers would evaluate the worker based on the lack-of-fit model. The lack-of-fit assignment may then lead to a diminished performance outlook, an uptake in anticipation of failure, and decreased expectation of a favorable outcome which correlates with the role congruity theory (Eagly et al., 2002). In a study on industry gender composition, Ko, Kotrba and Roebuck (2015) posit that most leadership positions in many organizations have traditionally been dominated by males. As more women have entered the workforce gender roles in many of these organizations have changed in the areas of leadership and the overall gender composition which may in turn have some bearing on how leadership effectiveness is perceived.

Related Literature

During the 1980s and 1990s the call for total educational reformation and restructuring became the mantra of numerous scholars and researchers (Chubb, 1988; Conley, 1991; Murphy, 1991; Sarason, 1990; Schlechty, 1990; Sizer, 1984). McCune (1989) felt that the successful restructuring of schools would require extensive knowledge of organizations and the

transformations needed to meet the needs of society. Furthermore, Davies (1991) proposed that educational restructuring consisted of an emphasis on student achievement and restructuring of the educational system overall. According to Leech and Fulton (2008), the national cry to overhaul and correct the educational system was undergirded by 20 years of attempts to reform and restructure education.

According to Leech and Fulton (2008) the initial call for educational reform was revealed in *A Nation at Risk* (National Commission on Educational Excellence, 1983) which specifically proposed vigorous leadership as a way to improve the nations school system. Shortly thereafter, Purkey and Smith (1985) suggested that the effective schools movement acknowledged the significance of strong leaders by constantly recognizing robust didactic leadership as influential in establishing and maintaining a positive school climate. The second wave of school reformation proposed restructuring that emulated a tenacious obligation to school-based management (Leech et al., 2008).

The educational focus on a school's academic performance surged to the forefront of educational reform and principals have been tasked with making academic performance increase (Eren, 2014; Grissom et al., 2014). Gray and Lewis (2013) found that the responsibilities of educational leaders shifted when the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act of 2001 required schools to ensure that students made Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP) in mathematics, reading, science, and social studies by 2014. Under NCLB (2001) the government required all public schools to administer rigorous assessments and provide guided accountability of progress (Hull & Schultz, 2002). Usher (2011) reported that from 2001 to 2010, even after concerted collaborative efforts to attain the desired NCLB (2001) results, 91,000 K–12 schools or roughly 38% of the public schools in the United States, were unsuccessful in attaining the AYP standards. Furthermore,

Hoff (2008) stated that one out of every five public schools was currently in some phase of federally mandated process to advance student achievement. NCLB (2001) was defunct in addressing the educational inequities among the diverse student populations that receive federal funds.

Since the inception of the NCLB in 2001, the major educational goal has been to increase student achievement; however, the fact that an administrator plays a role in increasing student achievement has largely been ignored. Gray et al. (2013) contend that while NCLB terminology regarding the use of research-based best practices in classrooms and for professional development was abundant, guidance was nonexistent for how principals could have a positive effect on student achievement. While the Bush administration promoted NCLB with its rigorous testing and accountability, incoming president Obama sought to expand NCLB by instituting the Race to the Top (RTT) educational reform. Unlike its predecessor NCLB, RTT supplied states with inducements to reorganize their school system (Lohman, 2010).

The educational objectives of NCLB in conjunction with those of RTT were to establish meticulous standards and assessments, devise relevant detailed statistics to keep stakeholders apprised of student progress, and to maximize funding to reform aid to low performing schools (Lohman, 2010; Miller & Hanna, 2014; The White House, 2014). The call for increased student academic achievement and career readiness skills has been and continues to be a great concern and challenge for educational leaders. In response to this call instructional leaders shifted their attention to common assessments, content standards, instructional strategies, federal policies, professional development, and leadership styles (Eaker, DuFour, & Burnett, 2002; Hallinger & Heck, 2010; Lambert, 1998, 2002, 2006; Levine & Marcus, 2007; Lohman, 2010; Miller & Hanna, 2014; Murphy, Elliott, Goldring, & Porter, 2007; NCLB, 2002).

Leadership Preparation Programs

Although K–12 educational administrators are required to go through rigorous collegiate programs, these programs may be inadequate at instilling essential leadership qualities in our future school leaders. A host of accrediting agencies, organizations, and educational panels have determined that effective principals are more concerned with promoting change and dominating learning arenas than they are at performing true managerial duties (Gray et al., 2013). The United States educational system seeks means of creating new categories of leadership and professional communities that foster collaboration (Squires, 2015). Leadership programs for Pre-K–12 administrators should include training that focuses on shared leadership, leadership mentoring, and creating a sense of community with all stakeholders. Tschannen-Moran and Gareis (2015) found that perceptive educational leaders realize the interdependent connections between the students' home and the school in addition to how essential these relationships are to the school.

The grave and increasing paucity of educational leaders is directly associated with an ineffective leadership evaluation system that fails to encourage effective leaders, withholds support from ineffectual leaders, and seldom acknowledges the goal of enhanced leadership performance (Hoyt & Burnette, 2013; Reeves, 2004). Furthermore, Reeves (2004) examined numerous leadership evaluation systems and analyzed a plethora of documentation in an attempt to identify a viable system to imitate.

Administrators or principals are responsible for many tasks within the school including safety, curriculum and instruction, professional development, hiring quality teachers, communication with all stakeholders, discipline, and budgeting. Educational leadership programs need to provide wholesome and extensive leadership training to ensure that

administrators are equipped to handle these responsibilities. Weiner and Burton (2016) contend that if the structure of the leadership programs for principals favors a certain gender due to preconceived ideas or societal roles and the basis for principal evaluation follows this same track, a potential consequence is that a female student may be viewed as inadequate or inferior for the task and as such may in turn experience discrimination during the hiring process unlike their male counterparts.

Leadership that is effective utilizes time, personnel, finances, technology, and all other resources to ensure that the learning environment addresses the needs of the major stakeholder students and is both safe and cost effective (Bossi, 2008). Researchers agree that in order to revolutionize educational leadership, leadership practices need to include “diversified perspectives and equity-based” leadership techniques which in turn may lead to an overall transformation of leadership and advance educational opportunities for a greater number of multifarious students from Pre-Kindergarten to college (Jean-Marie, 2006; Normore, 2008; Santamaria & Santamaria, 2012; Sergiovanni, 2007; Tillman, 2003, 2007; Tooms & Boske, 2010).

Educational leaders shoulder an enormous amount of responsibility to all stakeholders, including students, parents, faculty, district, and the local community. Stakeholders inside of the school include students, parents, teachers, and support staff (David, Teddlie & Reynolds, 2000). Stakeholders outside of the school are members of the community that support the school or are in close proximity to the school. This allows the educational stakeholders that are aware of any issues, such as the teachers, parents, students, and the surrounding community, to aid in formulating solutions that will benefit all (Squires, 2015). Although others may be involved in the school’s overall success, the leader ultimately is responsible for all the negative and positive

aspects of the school. As the number one stakeholder, students are and should be the major concern for the principal or administrator. Bossi (2008) proposes that while teachers are responsible for instructing students, the educational leader has the responsibility of ensuring that all students learn.

Effective educational leadership is leadership that must be shared between the administration and the educators, stable but flexible enough to adapt to mandated changes, and inspires others to lead through collaboration and leadership training (Bossi, 2008). Only then will administrators and educators begin to reap the benefits of increased student learning.

According to Bossi (2008) a strategic leader is a person that is honorable, proficient, qualified, reliable, and takes the initiative to use personal errors as an example to turn those mistakes into learning opportunities.

Perception of Effective School Leadership

Odhiambo and Hii (2012) propose that interpreting teacher perception of the quality of their principal and the principal's self-evaluation of their own performance may shed light on the relationship between these two perceptions and how this data can be used to create effective schools. Two people may perform the same task or witness the same event but have totally different views or interpretations of each based on their perception of what occurred (Nandi, 2011). According to Lord and Maher (1991), observers use perception to evaluate leaders and to supply a foundation for social power and prestige. Nandi (2011) refers to employee perception as a type of filter through which the learned behaviors that make up each person's perceptions, such as age, understanding, past experiences, present circumstances, interests, and a host of other variables, form a distinct filter for each employee which produces different responses and actions when presented with the same issues. Teacher perceptions of their principal's professional

behavior is essential in determining how effective the principal is in fulfilling their duties (Pugh et al., 2011). Lee and Nie (2013, 2014, 2017) propose that the effectiveness of an educational leader can be gauged by how teachers may perceive and define their principal's actions as the school leader.

Over the last three decades a limited amount of research has been conducted on how key stakeholders perceive the leadership quality of school administration in conjunction with the administrators' demographic information. Hoyt et al. (2013) contend that leadership is an innate collective system that is based on social perceptions. Understanding how key stakeholders perceive the quality of school leadership and delving into how school administrators interpret and carry out their role in the school may provide some insight into any relationship between these two variables (Goff et al, 2014; Oyer, 2015; David et al., 2000). Durrah (2009) found that how teachers perceive the effectiveness of their administrator is directly linked to the overall climate of the school. Furthermore, the school culture or climate directly influences the overall perception that subordinates, or teachers have of their leaders or administrators (Lord & Maher, 1991). Lee and Nie (2017) conducted a study in Singapore to gauge how teachers perceived their principal's and immediate supervisor's leadership behaviors and found that these teachers felt empowered by the leadership behaviors of their principals and immediate supervisors. Therefore, teacher perception has the ability to identify effective leadership qualities that principals should possess.

According to Kouzes and Posner (1990), effective leadership relies mainly on how teachers perceive their principal's leadership capabilities and not on the principal's perception of their own abilities. Oyer (2015) suggests that educational leaders should solicit feedback about the positive and negative aspects of their leadership which shows their willingness to improve

their leadership style. Therefore, 360-degree or multisource feedback serves a valuable purpose in gauging the effectiveness of the educational administrator. 360-degree or multisource feedback consists of a comprehensive self-evaluation for the leader and subordinate evaluations of the qualities of a leader.

Leadership Styles

Leaders developed styles and characteristics based on environmental conditions such as economic, social, and cultural factors which in turn dictated the conditions of effective leadership styles (Hackman & Wagman, 2007; Lunenburg, 2011; Sergiovanni, 2005). Pre-K–12 educational leaders employ various styles of leadership to effectively lead their schools towards sound goals and objectives. Capelluti and Nye (2004) contend that principals who utilized an ineffective leadership style had a negative effect on teacher efficacy, the school environment or climate, and student achievement overall. According to Fullan (1991) research shows that the principal greatly impacts the opportunity to effect change within the school system. Complete comprehension of the leadership styles and programs that are effective enhances the awareness of and investment in practices that impact student achievement, school culture, and teacher competence (Ross & Cozzens, 2016).

A study by Pietsch and Tulowitski (2017) found that a principal's behavior had both a direct and indirect effect on the instructional practices of their teachers. Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt, and Van Engen (2003) found that any differences between the behavior of women and men leaders is paramount because each individual leader's behavior is an excellent predictor of their overall leadership effectiveness and the opportunity for them to move up the leadership pipeline. Sergiovanni (1990) contends that an auspicious leader promotes the leadership abilities in subordinates and focuses on being an exemplary leader. Educational administrators that invest

in developing leaders within their faculty create a collaborative, connected work atmosphere which provides teachers with more opportunities to excel (Zhu, Devos & Tondeur, 2014; Lee & Nie, 2014, 2017).

Leithwood, Jantzi, and Steinbach (1999) suggest that in addition to instructional leadership, transformational leadership will be necessary for 21st century schools to be effective learning institutions. Several studies on educational leadership styles found that both transformational and transactional leadership skills positively influenced the perceptions of employees especially in the areas of motivation and job satisfaction (Biggerstaff, 2012; Callaghan & Coldwell, 2014; Oberfield, 2012). The leadership styles reviewed for the purposes of this study were the transactional, transformational, and instructional.

Transactional leadership. The facets of a transactional leader include contingent reward, active management-by-exception, and passive management-by-exception (Jacobsen & Andersen, 2015). The transactional leader identifies a desired work outcome and attempts to provide these desired outcomes based on performance, uses rewards to applaud the effort of subordinates, and responds to the self-interests of subordinates if by doing so the task will be completed (Bass 1985). A leader practices active management-by-exception by defining goals and then carefully monitoring the progression towards the goals, correcting any deviation from the goals as they arise (Jacobsen & Andersen, 2015). On the other hand, a leader who practices passive management-by-exception unassertively waits for deviances from the goals to occur and only reacts when these deviances pose a great threat to the organization (Jacobsen & Andersen, 2015). According to Munir and Khalil (2016), one of the most important aspects of the transactional leader is the ability to recognize the requirements of subordinates, thereby positively impacting their performance. Tatlah et al. (2014) purports that principals who are

transactional leaders reward good work while simultaneously encouraging subordinates to improve in any weak areas. Leaders who commend subordinates' performance and offer praise for their accomplishments inspire production and promote a healthy organizational climate (Tatlah et al., 2014).

Transformational leadership. Burns (1978) is the founder of the transformational leadership style; however, Bass and Avolio (1995) expanded on his original theory.

Transformational leadership is defined as a leadership approach that causes change in individuals and social systems (Antonakis, Avolio, & Sivasubramanian, 2003).

Transformational leaders serve as a motivator to subordinates and inspire them to do more than the norm. Bass (1985) states that a transformational leader raises the workers level of awareness of the importance of a task and feasibility of reaching the desired outcomes, shows workers how to put the needs of the team above their individual preferences and desires, and adjusts individual need levels according to Maslow's hierarchy of needs.

Extensive research has been done on the effects of transformational leadership on an organization (Howell & Avolio, 1993; Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996; Shin & Zhou, 2003). According to Pearce and Conger (2003), shared leadership is comprised of a vigorous, reciprocal operation between groups of workers who aim to aid one another in achieving a group or organizational objective. The tenets of transformational leadership are idealized influence (charisma), inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration (Bass & Avolio, 1995). Odumera and Ogbonna (2013) found positive correlations between favorable teacher perception, collaboration, trust, motivation, conviction, innovation, self-efficacy, performance, and transformational leadership qualities. According to Hernandez Bark, Escartin, and van Dick (2014), the female gender role is consistent with transformational

leadership practices which affords women the chance to diminish the inconsistencies that exist between leadership and gender roles.

Instructional leadership. The third leadership approach identified in the study is instructional leadership. According to Hallinger (2003) the aspects of instructional leadership are shared across three areas: (a) identifying the school's mission, (b) overseeing educational instruction, and (c) fostering a positive school atmosphere or climate. Bossi (2008) states that instructional leadership can be summed up as a compilation of climate, presumptions, encouragement, observation, direction, and appraisal to ensure that the faculty are providing students with instruction that meets their educational needs and is anchored in research-based best practices.

Murphy (1988b) poses that the four core areas influenced by instructional leadership are formulating a school vision and mission, monitoring educational outcomes, endorsing a climate that focuses on academic achievement, and creating a work culture that complements the school mission. In addition, a study by Reitzug and West (2008) identified four different perspectives of instructional leadership which includes a relational, linear, organic, and prophetic perspectives. The relational principal focuses on building positive relationships with teachers and students in hopes that this will lead to a rise in academic achievement and enhanced instruction (Reitzug et al., 2008). Principals who practice relational instructional leadership invest their time and attention to the needs of faculty and students.

The linear instructional leader designs a system wherein a single process or plan culminates in the achievement of the original objective or goal, creating a domino effect within the organization (Reitzug et al., 2008). Wick (1983) adds that linear instructional leaders utilize careful observation and feedback chains to ensure that the systems within the organization or

school are operating according to the original vision or plan. One example of this would be using test data to gauge a school's effectiveness or academic achievement. Best practices such as aligning standards, curriculum, learning objectives, and criterion-referenced and then using the test data to determine progress are all methods employed in linear instructional leadership (Reitzug et al., 2008). In addition, linear instructional leadership advocates the use of *pacing guides* that outline the exact content teachers should teach at a specified date and time. Linear instructional leadership also includes benchmark testing to determine if students have mastered the content in the *pacing guide*, using data to drive instruction through test scores, and monitoring lesson plans and the use of *essential questions* to ensure that students are receiving a *high-quality* lesson.

Leadership Practices Inventory

The five subscales used in the LPI are challenging the process, inspiring a shared vision, enabling others to act, modeling the way, and encouraging the heart.

Challenging the process. The subscale challenging the process refers to the leader's or principal's ability to search out opportunities to improve the state of the organization or school through experimentation and risk-taking (Kouzes & Posner, 2007). An effective educational leader looks for opportunities to enrich and positively influence the educational experience of all stakeholders (Leech & Fulton, 2008). The principal seeks out meaningful and relevant professional development resources to provide teachers with the necessary resources and tools to help all students be successful. Students are given the opportunity to enhance their learning experience through technology and other resources utilized by the teacher for instruction. Parents are invited to partner with the school community in creating and maintaining a quality education and positive learning environment for the student body (Leech & Fulton, 2008). The

surrounding community is encouraged to join with all educational stakeholders through various projects and programs.

The principal is willing to do what is necessary to create and sustain a rigorous and stable learning environment where the curriculum is structured, however, remains flexible enough to address the needs of diverse learners. Teachers are encouraged to share their ideas with the principal and employ creativity in the classroom (Hoyt et al., 2013). Leech and Fulton (2008) propose that a leader who is successful in challenging the process is capable of aptly pairing the human resources department with organizational tasks and requirements.

Inspiring a shared vision. The subscale inspiring a shared vision includes the principal possessing a plan for the overall school and taking the necessary steps to create faculty buy-in of the vision or plan. According to Leech and Fulton (2008) one way for a principal to inspire a shared vision is to apply appealing processes and effectively disseminate the school vision to all stakeholders. The principal's plan should be feasible, attainable, and most importantly, relevant to the school's overall educational mission. Once the principal has a vision for the school the vision must be communicated to the faculty in a manner that garners their support (Kouzes & Posner, 2007). The vision will come to fruition only with the support of the faculty who ultimately are responsible for implementing the vision (Pearce & Conger, 2003).

It is essential that the principal practice some form of shared leadership wherein teachers have input or a voice into the blueprints and function of the vision. When people are afforded the opportunity to put their personal stamp or influence on something, such as the school's vision, they are more apt to become invested and dedicated to the success of that vision (Tatlah et al., 2014). In essence, the principal's vision moves from being a solo goal to an organizational goal. Even though all educational stakeholders should have the opportunity to contribute to the

school vision, Kouzes and Posner (1995) purport that it is ultimately the principal's responsibility to communicate the vision to all stakeholders and to furnish attention to the vision.

Enabling others to act. An educational leader who makes themselves visible to all stakeholders and invites subordinates to join in the decision-making process enables others to act for the good of the school community (Tatlah et al., 2014). A leader who is seen around the school, in hallways, and classrooms conveys that he or she cares about the school stakeholders, culture, and the learning environment. Subordinates who perceive that their supervisor cares are more open to an environment of collaboration with each other and with the principal (Tatlah et al., 2014). An atmosphere or environment of collaboration allows all stakeholders to safely work together without fear of reprisal or criticism from peers or the principal.

Kouzes and Posner (1987) propose that good leadership is training and equipping employees with the necessary skills, maintaining contact and open relationships with stakeholders, and praising the efforts and accomplishments of employees. Effective collaboration requires cooperation, tolerance and patience from all team members. A study by Paustian-Undersahl, Walker, and Woehr (2014) revealed that women leaders were perceived to be more inclined to instill confidence in their subordinates due to their proclivity to use collaboration and leadership styles that encourage others. In addition, collaboration also invites each team member to contribute their ideas and strengths to the team and also includes maintaining an atmosphere of respect and support instead of judgement and ridicule (Paustian-Undersahl et al., 2014).

Encouraging the heart. The LPI subscale encouraging the heart includes items pertaining to recognition and celebration of achievements and positively representing subordinates to the entire organization (Herold & Fields, 2004). A leader who models the

attributes of encouraging the heart would clarify standards, anticipate good outcomes, remain alert, recognize individual employees as needed, communicate the vision, praise accomplishments, and lead by example (Kouzes & Posner, 1999). Educational leaders who encourage the heart are concerned about their subordinates' well-being and overall job satisfaction. According to Taylor, Martin, Hutchinson, and Jinks (2007), successful leaders acknowledge the importance of each individual to the organizations success. In celebrating the big and small accomplishments of subordinates, a leader or principal motivates the subordinates to explore possibilities that promote the objectives of the organization (Leech & Fulton, 2008). Under this attribute the leader realizes that all educational stakeholders make valuable contributions to the school and any rewards from these contributions are jointly shared by all.

Modeling the way. According to Herold and Fields (2004), modeling the way reflects appropriate role modeling and clarity about one's philosophy. Bandura (1986) proposes that practically all things that can be mastered through actual participation can also be mastered by observing someone else model that same behavior and the outcome. Brown, Trevino, and Harrison (2005) assert that the term modeling includes a variety of psychological matching processes, including observational learning, imitation, and identification. Schein (1992) contends that it is imperative for effective leaders to demonstrate or model the specific behaviors that they wish their subordinates to emulate.

Educational leaders who model the behaviors and attitudes that they would like for their faculty to exhibit effectively lead by example. By becoming involved with the teachers' daily routine, the principal conveys a caring attitude, thereby gaining the trust of the faculty. In order for organizational buy-in to occur, teachers must first observe their leader in the work setting both in formal and informal settings (Kouzes & Posner, 2001). Brown et al. (2005) assert that a

leader's role casts them in a position of influence over subordinates that allows the leader to effect change through effective modeling.

One study by Pucic (2015), revealed that discrepancies in perception may exist because of the ranking difference between leaders and subordinates which may interfere with leadership modeling. Mayer, Kuenzi, Greenbaum, Bardes, and Salvador (2009) contend that these discrepancies manifest or exist especially when a leader models ethical behavior. An effective educational leader is real or authentic in their verbal communication, modeling of appropriate behavior, and display of benevolence in all their interactions with stakeholders (Bird, Wang, Watson, & Murray, 2009, 2012; Handford & Leithwood, 2013; Hoy & Henderson, 1983; Hoy & Kupersmith, 1985). Finally, Kouzes and Posner (1995) propose that regardless of the title awarded someone, respect is often earned through a leader's behavior.

Although all five of the LPI subscales are interesting and provide a plethora of relevant information on educational leadership, for the purposes of this study the researcher focused on the subscales of *inspiring a shared vision*, *modeling the way*, and *enabling others to act*.

Evaluating Principals Using Multisource Feedback

One method of evaluating the effectiveness of educational administrators is the use of multisource feedback. Multisource feedback involves a self-evaluation of the principal and parallel evaluations from subordinates, co-workers, and/or supervisors. 360-degree feedback is a type of multisource feedback that entails a self-evaluation in addition to observation evaluations from employees, co-workers, and/or supervisors. Multisource feedback is relevant to this study because teachers will be asked to evaluate the effectiveness of their principal's leadership abilities. Numerous researchers claim that through the use of multisource feedback more

relevant information about the self-efficacy of a leader can be found in the interactions of the leader, subordinates, supervisors, and peers (Atwater et al., 1998).

In 1967, Daw and Gage conducted an experiment using teachers to provide feedback on the effectiveness of their principal. This study revealed that the feedback from teachers had a positive effect on principal behavior. In the current age of accountability in education, principal evaluation systems are changing to include numerous policies and procedures, generally occurring in a profound bureaucratic atmosphere (Goldring, Mavrogordato, & Haynes, 2015). The vast majority of principal evaluation systems depend on student achievement and specific details about a principal's leadership style. Goldring and Jones (2013) found that several principal evaluation systems involve surveys and principal ratings. Kluger and DeNisi (1996) found that the feedback intervention theory proposes that behavior is adjusted or controlled when feedback is provided and collated with specific objectives or guidelines.

Research shows that multisource feedback on a leader/s behavior may serve as motivation for the leader to change his or her behavior due to the relevance of cognitive dissonance and self-awareness (Bickman, 2008; Riemer & Bickman, 2011). According to Festinger (1957), dissonant cognitions actuate psychological discomfort in arousal that serves as the impetus to lessen dissonance. Goldring et al. (2015) posit that inconsistencies among the actions and required norms, such as the intrinsic leadership expectations of the leader, have the propensity to escalate ambition to decrease any disparity by aligning others' evaluations with the leader's self-evaluation.

Walker, Smither, Atwater, Dominick, Brett, and Reilly (2010) found that a leader's response to multisource feedback is particularly susceptible to the individual leader and the circumstances. Furthermore, Goldring et al. (2015) suggest that the way a person enlists

decision-making processes may guide the person to embrace or reject behavior that is favorable. Empirical research shows that self-ratings may be biased due to overestimation or underestimation that leaders have of their own leadership abilities (Conway & Huffcutt, 1997; Sosik & Megerian, 1999). According to Atwater and Yammarino (1992) a self-conscious person is aware of how others perceive them, which leads to a more precise self-view.

Although the majority of principal evaluation feedback comes from superintendents (Goldring, Cravens, Murphy, Porter, Elliott, & Carson, 2009), research strongly suggests that teacher perception of their individual principal's leadership abilities, effective teaching practices, and student achievement is causally connected to effective teaching best practices and student achievement (Anderson, 1991; Y. Goddard, Neumerski, R. Goddard, Salloum, & Berebitsky, 2010; Hallinger & Heck, 1996; Thomas, Holdaway, & Ward, 2000). The importance of teacher feedback in the evaluation of principals can furnish a different outlook on principal instructional leadership, serve as a measurement for principals and superintendents to analogize the principals' self-evaluations with, and give principals essential information about their ability as an instructional leader with regard to teaching and student learning (Goldring et al., 2015). Teacher feedback can also help steer professional development opportunities. Goldring et al. (2015) purport that compiling feedback from educators is a way for principals to facilitate intercommunication with educators about the quality of their leadership style.

As stated earlier, one of the main purposes of multisource feedback for principals is to provide principals with observer information on their performance so that the principals will be able to alter and enhance their leadership abilities (Goldring et al., 2015). Feedback reports contain information about the individual principal's strengths and weaknesses so that the former can be commemorated and the latter improved. Goldring et al. (2015) found that supplying

principals with relevant feedback may or may not transfer over into enhanced leadership conduct.

Vohra and Singh (2005) found that leaders can have one of four inauspicious responses to negative feedback including avoidance and denying feedback received, rationalization of the feedback, superficial interpretation of the feedback, and unnatural behavioral manifestation on receiving feedback. A study by Goldring et al. (2015) revealed that negative reactions from principals concerning feedback aligned with one of these strategies as well. Avoidance and denying feedback received involves the principal attempting to disregard the adverse feedback. Principals in this category either failed to devote any time to peruse and decipher the feedback or chose to have the researcher interpret the feedback for them. By ignoring and refusing to acknowledge the feedback results principals in this category did not identify with the feedback data. In the “realization of the feedback” category principals provide excuses for the adverse feedback they received. Vohra and Singh (2005) suggest that principals who rationalize the feedback are merely seeking a way to identify where the feedback originated from. Principals who rationalize the feedback are seeking to place blame or deflect the adverse feedback back onto the source (Vohra & Singh, 2005).

Principals who choose to interpret the feedback superficially select only certain portions of the feedback to interpret. The principals in this category opted to overlook any adverse feedback and focus instead only on the positive feedback from observers (Vohra & Singh, 2005). These principals failed to make any relevant changes to their leadership style or practices. Lastly, some principals demonstrated unnatural manifestations to the negative feedback they received by exaggerating and/or dramatizing their reactions to it. These principals treated the feedback as if it were not true or relevant which impedes the principal’s ability to improve in

these areas. Adverse feedback can only have meaningful impact on the leadership of a school and the school overall when the principal is willing to accept the adverse feedback and use it to make changes to their leadership behavior, thereby improving the educational institution (Vohra & Singh, 2005).

In 1977 Nakornsri researched the differences between teachers' perceptions of their principal's job performance and the possible correlation between teachers' perceptions of their principal's role behavior and administrative performance. The study revealed that there was some variation in teacher perception of the principal's role behavior and the principal's leadership qualities. Furthermore, female principals were found to exhibit greater levels of leadership qualities than their male counterparts. In the early 1990s Sergiovanni (1994) suggested that schools should be considered living and valuable communities in which rich social relationships and common values undergird school reform (Leech & Fulton, 2008). Although this study found no difference between male and female administrators on role behavior, female administrators were found to possess more advanced educational leadership attributes than male administrators (DeRoche & Williams, 2001). The vast majority of studies on educational administrators has revolved around the job functions of the principal (Gronn, 1982; Willis, 1980). The results of these studies merely highlight how principals spend their time throughout the school day and beyond.

The principal is expected to fulfill numerous roles within the school of which communications and relations with all educational stakeholders is paramount (Branscum, Butler, & Davis, 1982). According to DeRoche and Williams (2001) since the principal is the vital connection between the school and the community, the principal's ability to handle the important aspects of the job greatly influences the demeanor of the educational stakeholders about the

school. The principal is responsible for establishing educational goals and maintaining a positive school environment conducive to learning (Clark, Lotto, & McCarthy, 1980; Cunningham & Cordero, 2006; Levine & Stark, 1982).

Although there is numerous research on teachers' perception of their administrator (Blasé & Blasé, 2002; Bogler, 2001), a definitive gap exists in the literature when it comes to how teachers perceive their administrator's leadership effectiveness in conjunction with the personal characteristics of the administrator. Due to disparities and refutations in research, heuristic techniques fail to definitively identify any connection between a principal's personal characteristics and their leadership abilities (Ibukun, Oyewole, & Abe, 2011).

Biological Sex

Although the majority of teachers currently and in the past have been female (Feistrizer, Griffin, & Linnajarvi, 2011; Grissom, Loeb, & Master, 2013), the disparity between the number of males and females that serve as principals of Pre-K–12 schools continues to persist. According to the National Center for Education Statistics (Noel, Stark, & Redford, 2013), women are inadequately represented in educational leadership with women holding only 52% of K–12 principal positions overall and 30% serve as secondary principals. Madden (2011) asserts that there is a deficit in the amount of methodical research on gender disparities in relation to the type of leadership. One false perception about female administrators is that their competency can somehow be tainted or diminished by their feminine nature or communal characteristics. In addition, Ely, Ibarra, and Kalb (2011) point out that educational leadership programs are remiss in informing minority women students of the potential gender bias, role stereotyping, and misperception of their effectiveness as a leader that they may encounter as an administrator.

The lack of female administrators today can directly be attributed to the “feminization of the teaching profession” during the nineteenth century (Apple, 1983; Carrington & McPhee, 2008; Goldstein, 2014) which shifted the male dominated teaching profession to include females. Due to male bias present in leadership positions and in society, women as the natural “domestic nurturer” and caretaker of the family were thought to be well-suited to undertake educating children (Grumet, 1988; Strober & Tyack, 1980) but not suitable for educational leadership positions. Eager to be included amongst the workforce, educated women gladly became teachers. According to Weiner and Burton (2016), classifying teaching as an occupation for women created substantial and longstanding impingements or barriers for women to enter the field of educational leadership. Women teachers unknowingly became stereotyped as educators who would be trapped in an employment ceiling of advancement with few outlets.

Unlike males in the workforce, women held a job teaching during the day and continued working when they arrived home rearing children and performing a myriad of household tasks (Greenglass, Pantony, & Burke, 1989; Riehl & Byrd, 1997). Elsaid and Elsaid (2012) state that research suggests that obstacles to supervisory positions for women remain throughout the world due to an individual’s propensity to attribute supervisor traits based solely on the male gender.

As women sought opportunities to transition into administration positions they were met with rejection and resistance from their male counterparts. Numerous researchers contend that stereotypes about women in the work environment are arduous to conquer because they are dominant and inevitably ingrained in our society (Bargh, 1999; Chattopadhyay, Tluchowska, & George, 2004; Elsesser & Lever, 2011; Powell & Graves, 2003; Pratto, Stallworth, Sidanius, & Siers, 1997). According to Eagly and Sczesny (2009), when the stereotypical view of women, men, and leaders is incongruous, women are negatively impacted to a greater degree.

Educational leadership positions, such as principal and assistant principal, remain dominated by males (Weiner & Burton, 2016), with males benefiting from mentor relationships and women lacking substantial mentor relationships (Munoz, Pankake, Ramalho, Mills, & Simonsson, 2014). Lord and Maher (1991) discovered that even when females are classified as leaders, gender role disparities in traditional societal roles lead to inconsistent evaluations.

Intersectionality of Categories

The intersectional perspective is when categories of difference such as race and gender converge and impact each other. Due to the intersectional relationship between these categories any analysis performed should include all the categories versus analyzing them separately (Anderson & Collins, 2001; Holovino, 2008). For example, Reed (2012) found that gender bias against women was paramount in identities like class, race, and sexuality (Coleman & Fitzgeraald, 2008; Collins, 1998; Reed, 2012; Rusch, 2004). Schein (1973) found that the perception of females and males on the effectiveness of their supervisor were based on the manager maintaining personality attributes, philosophies, and dispositions consistent with the agentic qualities associated with males more so than females (Booyesen & Nkomo, 2010).

Multiple similar studies concurred with Scheins' findings (Brenner et al., 1989; Dodge et al., 1995; Heilman et al., 1989; Schein & Mueller, 1992; Schein, Mueller, & Jacobson, 1989). In 2001 Schein replicated her study in the United Kingdom, Germany, China, and Japan to reveal that females and males in these nations viewed supervisors to be endowed with the agentic attributes that are typically ascribed to males not females (Booyesen et al., 2010). In 2001 Schein updated her study in the United States and found that even after two decades the male perspective that males make better leaders remained intact. During these two decades the number of women in management positions in the United States increased and as a result more

women felt that women were just as capable as men to have leadership attributes (Booyesen et al., 2010). Even still the prevailing sentiment across multiple countries is that men continue to exhibit managerial characteristics more so than women in leadership positions. In all probability the most paramount obstacle for women in management in developed countries is the unrelenting stereotype that identifies management with being male (Antal, & Izraeli, 1993).

In a South African study conducted by Booyesen and Nkomo (2010) the combination of race and gender on the “think manager-think male” anomaly revealed that both white and black males possess the “think manager-think male” frame of mind. Furthermore, the researchers discovered that while white women felt that both female and male gender were both adept at being auspicious leaders, black women felt that females make better leaders than men (Elsaid & Elsaid, 2012). Tomkiewicz, Brenner and Adeyemi-bello (1998) examined race and managerial stereotypes and found that there was a significant congruence or similitude between the ratings of whites and the ratings of managers. Tomkiewicz et al. (1998) therefore concluded from the results of this study that race is integral to the perception of managers. For instance, in the educational field there are underlying guidelines that describe the qualifications required for school leadership positions (Weiner et al., 2016). These guidelines encompass the inconspicuous underrating for the professional pilgrimage that many women and minorities are forced to navigate (Feuerstein, 2006).

Summary

Although numerous studies have been conducted about teacher perception of the leadership quality of their administrator, there is an absence of studies that factor the administrator’s biological sex into teacher perception of their administrator. To further identify the specific traits or characteristics of an effective educational leader or administrator, the

predictor variable of biological sex may bring clarity and focus on the issue. Previous studies on teacher perception of educational leadership have decried or largely discounted any link between the biological sex of the administrator.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODS

Overview

The purpose of this quantitative causal-comparative study was to determine if there is a difference between teacher perception of their administrator's leadership qualities of *inspiring a shared vision, modeling the way, and enabling others to act* based on the biological sex of their administrator. The methods chapter of this research study includes the research design, research questions, participants and settings, instrumentation, procedures, and data analysis of the study. A rationale is provided for a causal-comparative design and for the use of *t*-tests to analyze the data.

Design

A quantitative causal-comparative design was used in this study. According to Gall et al. (2007) causal-comparative research is a type of nonexperimental design in which researchers seek to identify cause-and-effect relationships. Gall et al. (2007) stated that "The critical feature of causal-comparative research is that the independent variable is measured in the form of categories" (p. 306). A causal-comparative design is appropriate for this study since the independent variable (biological sex of a teacher's principal) is categorical and the purpose of this was to determine if there is a difference between teacher perception of their administrator's leadership qualities of *inspiring a shared vision, modeling the way, and enabling others to act* (dependent variables) based on the biological sex of their administrator (independent variable). *Inspiring a vision* is defined as the educational leader possessing a plan for the overall school and taking the necessary steps to create faculty buy-in of the vision or plan (Kouzes & Posner, 2007). *Modeling the way* is defined by Herold and Fields (2004) as a leader who reflects appropriate role modeling and clarity about one's philosophy. *Enabling others to act* is defined as an

educational leader that makes themselves visible to all stakeholders and invites subordinates to join in the decision-making process enables others to act for the good of the school community (Tatlah et al., 2014).

Research Questions

RQ1: Is there a difference in teachers' perceptions of their administrator's leadership quality of *inspiring a shared vision* between male administrators and female administrators?

RQ2: Is there a difference in teachers' perceptions of their administrator's leadership quality of *modeling the way* between male administrators and female administrators?

RQ3: Is there a difference in teachers' perceptions of their administrator's leadership quality of *enabling others to act* between male administrators and female administrators?

Hypotheses

H₀₁: There is no statistically significant difference in teachers' perceptions of their administrator's leadership quality of *inspiring a shared vision* between male administrators and female administrators as measured by the Leadership Practices Inventory.

H₀₂: There is no statistically significant difference in teachers' perceptions of their administrator's leadership quality of *modeling the way* between male administrators and female administrators as measured by the Leadership Practices Inventory.

H₀₃: There is no statistically significant difference in teachers' perceptions of their administrator's leadership quality of *enabling others to act* between male administrators and female administrators as measured by the Leadership Practices Inventory.

Participants and Setting

The participants in this study were teachers from Pre-K–12 public schools in Kentucky during the fall semester of the 2019–2020 school year. The researcher sought school districts

which consisted of inner-city Title 1 schools, suburban schools, and rural schools. The participants for this study were chosen through purposeful convenience sampling. Participation in the study was voluntary and all identities will remain private to ensure anonymity. The researcher selected participants from school districts that contain multiple elementary, middle, and high schools. The superintendents for each school district were sent a letter from the researcher which briefly explained the nature of the study and requested an interview with the superintendent to discuss the study. In the event that a district superintendent declined the interview and the invitation to participate in the study was denied, the researcher pursued other participants. The researcher interviewed superintendents who responded to the initial letter and based on the interview responses the Pre-K–12 schools were chosen.

In this study 200 participants were sought so that the number of participants exceeded the minimum for a medium effect size (Gall et al. 2007). Warner (2013) suggested that researchers obtain a larger sample size than required to safeguard against unforeseen circumstances that result in an insufficient number of participants for the study; the researcher attempted to collect a minimum of 200 surveys.

For this study the sample population came from five Pre-K–12 public schools consisting of three preschools, eleven elementary, five middle, and six high schools. Several of the elementary schools, middle schools, and high schools were large Title 1 schools located in remote, rural low socioeconomic neighborhoods. Approximately 10 schools were located in remote, rural low to medium socioeconomic neighborhoods. Three elementary, two middle, and one high school were in medium to high income suburban areas.

The teachers from each school were the participants for this study and were asked to rate the leadership quality of their principal based on the Leadership Practices Inventory (Kouzes &

Posner, 1988). The researcher strived to ensure that the sample included teachers who teach in elementary, middle, and high schools located in rural, suburban, and urban areas. The administrator demographic for this study was biological sex. There were 52 female and 55 male administrators in this research study.

Instrumentation

In this study the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) Observer form by Kouzes and Posner (1988) was used to measure the leadership quality of educational administrators as perceived by their teachers. The purpose of the LPI is to measure or assess leadership behavior of an organization (Posner & Kouzes, 1993). The Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) is an instrument that measures leadership practices using five subscales and is deemed as reliable across all five subscales with a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .75 or higher (Kouzes & Posner, 2010). The components or subscales of the LPI are significant because they identify and evaluate particular leadership attributes as perceived by teachers. In a study on the effectiveness of secondary principals, Tatlah et al. (2014) discovered that there was noticeable disparity between the way the principals rated themselves and the way their subordinates or teachers rated their leader. The LPI is a two-part leadership survey that consists of a self-rating survey for the leader or manager and an observer survey for subordinates to complete.

In the beginning of their research on leadership, Posner and Kouzes (1988) used qualitative research methods to establish a conceptual framework to aid in the comprehension and expansion of the construct of leadership. The researchers consulted with a variety of managers and requested that they share their "best leadership experience". The pair developed a personal best survey which contained 37 open-ended questions and was 12 pages in length. The personal survey asked managers to describe specific aspects of their best leadership experience

to help the researchers understand the specific elements that enhanced these experiences. The personal survey took approximately one to two hours to capture the managers' complete reflections on their best experiences. In excess of 650 personal surveys were collected over time. Posner and Kouzes also developed a short version of the personal survey which was one to two pages long. This short version was completed by 450 managers from public and private organizations.

Additionally, Posner and Kouzes (1993) administered 38 in-depth interviews with middle to senior level managers in private and public organizations. The interviews took approximately 45 to 60 minutes; however, several of the interviews lasted between four and five hours. Both the surveys and interviews were initially analyzed by the researchers and then two different independent raters analyzed the data. These analyses revealed that 80% of extraordinary organizational leaders or managers exhibited the following five practices each of which includes two strategies (See Table 1).

Table 1

Five Practices of Leadership

Leadership Practice	Challenging the Process	Inspiring a Shared Vision	Enabling Others to Act	Modeling the Way	Encouraging The Heart
Leadership Strategies	a. Search for opportunities b. Experiment and take risks	a. Envision the future b. Enlist the support of others	a. Foster collaboration b. Strengthen others	a. Set the example b. Plan small wins	a. Recognize contribution b. Celebrate accomplishments

Posner and Kouzes (1988) utilized the repeated feedback of survey respondents and a factor analysis of different sets of behaviorally-based statements to develop the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI). A 5-point Likert scale was used for each statement with the choices ranging from 5 = *Very frequently, if not always do what is described* in the statement, 4 = *Fairly often do what is described*, 3 = *Sometimes do what is describes*, 2 = *Once in a while do what is describes*, and 1 = *Rarely or never described* in the statement.

The LPI was first administered to 120 MBA part-time college students that worked full-time in addition to attending the small private college. Approximately 60% of the students were males and the average age of the students was 29 years old. In addition, close to 50% of the students had supervisory experience of some type. Once the students finished the LPI tool in-depth discussions were held for each item or statement on the LPI. Any item or statement that students noted as cumbersome or unclear were exchanged and/or amended. Furthermore, the researchers also conducted discussions with professionals in organizational behavior, psychology, and human resource management. These professionals possessed experience in the theoretical framework, psychometric issues, and management development (Posner & Kouzes, 1988).

During the developmental stages of the LPI in excess of 2,100 managers and employees completed the survey. The researchers analyzed the respondent's data using both tests of internal reliability and construct validity through assessing the basic element design (Posner & Kouzes, 1988). Once again statements that respondents deemed cumbersome or unclear were rephrased or discontinued.

The current LPI instrument is the result of previous LPI administrations, analysis of respondent data, and multiple revisions. The LPI consists of a total of 30 statements including

six statements to measure each of the five leadership subscales. The original LPI came in two forms including a Self-form and an Other-form. The name of the LPI Other-form was later changed to the LPI Observer-form which is the name that is currently used. The LPI Self-form requires managers to rate their leadership behaviors while the LPI Observer or Other-form is used by employees or subordinates to rate the leadership behaviors of their supervisor or manager.

The LPI is comprised of 30 questions, five questions for each subscale, and utilizes a 5-point Likert behavioral scale which measured the frequency that an administrator performs an aspect of leadership measured by the LPI. On the Observer or Other version of the LPI, each LPI subscale is measured by six behavioral statements. The Likert scale scores ranged from (a) “Rarely or never do what is described” = 1; (b) “Once in a while do what is described” = 2; (c) “Sometimes do what is described” = 3; (d) “Fairly often do what is described” = 4; and (e) “Very frequently do what is described” = 5. The LPI has been used in numerous studies on educational leadership effectiveness such as those by Herold and Fields (2004) and Taylor et al. (2007). At this time permission to use the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) by Kouzes and Posner (2002) for the study has been granted (see Appendix A for the permission letter).

Out of the five possible subscales of the Leadership Practices inventory the researcher used three including *modeling the way*, *enabling others to act*, and *inspiring a shared vision*. Although the Leadership Practices Inventory was given as written in its entirety, only the data from these three subscales was used in this study. The first subscale, modeling the way reflects appropriate role modeling and clarity about one’s philosophy (Herold & Fields, 2004). The second subscale, enabling others to act involves an educational leader that makes themselves visible to all stakeholders and invites subordinates to join in the decision-making process (Tatlah

et al., 2014). The third subscale, inspiring a shared vision includes the educational leader possessing a plan for the overall school and taking the necessary steps to create faculty buy-into the vision or plan.

According to Pugh et al. (2011) the LPI has the potential to furnish profound observations and evaluations on leadership in our school systems coupled with relevant leadership feedback for present and future educational leaders. Furthermore, Kouzes and Posner (2007) believe that a leader's behavior, specifically the traits and skill set exhibited on the job, has more influence on the success of an organization than the leader's stature as a leader. Pugh et al. (2011) conducted a study on educational leadership and found that the LPI showed an elevated level of a positive correlation overall between the behaviors of the administrator and how teachers perceived their administrator's behaviors. In addition, Pugh et al. (2011) revealed that the LPI allows principals to see themselves through the eyes of the teachers which provides essential information that can be used to improve the principal's overall effectiveness.

The LPI *Observer* questionnaire used in this study took approximately 15 minutes to complete. The combined scores for the LPI Observer assessment range from 25 to 125. A score of 25 represents the lowest possible score on the LPI Observer assessment and means that the teacher perceives that the leader exhibited no or very little of the leadership attributes measured. A score of 125 represents that the leader exhibited all of the leadership attributes measured by the assessment. Internal reliabilities (coefficient alpha) on the LPI ranged from .80 to .91.

Internal reliabilities for the LPI-observer ranged from .81 and .92 (Kouzes & Posner, 1993). The Cronbach Alpha coefficient for each subscale was: Modeling, $\alpha = .88$, $SD = 8.5$; Inspire $\alpha = .92$, $SD = 10.6$; and Enable, $\alpha = .88$, $SD = 8.4$ (Kouzes & Posner, 1999). Herold and Fields (2004) used Linear Structural Relations (LISREL) to confirm discriminant validity of the

LPI-observer subscales. The LPI has both face validity and predictive validity. Face validity is present when the results of LPI can be interpreted by others, whereas discriminant validity exists when the results are closely related to the “performance measures” and can be employed to make predictions (Kouzes & Posner, 1997; Taylor et al., 2007). According to a Quality School Leadership Issue Brief which aligns leadership assessments with the Interstate School Leadership Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) 2008 standards the LPI has both content and construct validity (Posner, 2016).

Procedures

The researcher submitted an Institutional Review Board (IRB) packet and once approval was received the research study began (see Appendix B for IRB Approval). Two months after Kentucky public schools opened for the 2019–2020 school year, the researcher sent a formal letter and a copy of the study prospectus to the school district superintendents and requested permission to conduct the study in the public schools. The letter introduced the researcher, outlined every detail of the proposed study, and requested either a meeting with the superintendent or an email containing an approval to conduct the study. If a meeting with the superintendent was scheduled, during the meeting the researcher sought approval to conduct the study, obtained a permission letter from each district superintendent, and requested a list of the schools that may participate in the study along with the head administrator’s contact information for each school. The superintendent procured permission from the administrator of each school for the researcher to conduct the study. The researcher then contacted each principal by email with the proposed dates and computer requirements for the study. Approximately one month after the initial email to the principals, an email was sent to all teachers of the participating schools requesting that they complete the LPI-observer questionnaire using the provided link

within a two-week time period. All emails to the teachers explained the procedures for completing and submitting the LPI-observer questionnaire. At the end of the study the LPI-observer link was disabled, and the results were collected. The LPI-observer data results were analyzed using SPSS (Green & Salkind, 2014; IBM Corp., 2019) and a complete write-up was done. A thank you note was sent to all the superintendents and administrators of the public schools that participated in the study.

Data Analysis

Three independent *t*-tests were used for analysis of the data collected with the Leadership Practices Inventory for the independent variable impact of the administrator's biological sex on the dependent variable, teachers' perception of each principal's qualities of *inspiring a shared vision, modeling the way, and enabling others to act*. The *t*-tests were appropriate because this study had one, dichotomous, independent variable and the dependent variable for each of the three *t*-tests were measured on a continuous, interval scale. This study endeavored to determine if there was a significant difference between the two groups of the independent variable (male/female) on the continuous, dependent variable (teacher perception of principal's leadership quality) (Warner, 2013).

Preliminary data screening was conducted on each group's dependent variables of *inspiring a shared vision, modeling the way, and enabling others to act* regarding data inconsistencies and outliers. The researcher sorted the data on each variable and scanned for inconsistencies as recommended by Green and Salkind (2014). Box and whiskers plots were used to detect extreme outliers on each dependent variable and all data points were retained.

Assumption Tests

Three independent *t*-tests were conducted to test differences between two groups (male/female principals) on three dependent variables of *inspiring a shared vision*, *modeling the way*, and *enabling others to act*. The assumption of independence of scores was tenable by the design of the study since no participant's principal was a member of both groups; principals were either male or female. The assumptions for a *t*-test of normality and equality of variance were examined. Assumption of normality was examined using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov as $n > 50$ and the assumption of equal variance was tested using Levene's test of equality of error variance (Warner, 2013). No violations of Levene's test were found, so the assumption of equal variance was tenable. The Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests revealed that the data was not normally distributed for any of the three *t*-tests. For that reason, after running the *t*-tests, Mann-Whitney U tests were run.

Analysis

Descriptive statistics of mean and standard deviation were calculated in addition to the inferential statistics. Three independent *t*-tests were conducted and analyzed for significance as well as three Mann-Whitney *U* tests. Since three tests of significance were conducted, a Bonferroni correction was needed to guard against type I error. The alpha level was calculated to be: $0.05/3 = .02$ (Warner, 2013).

CHAPTER FOUR: FINDINGS

Overview

The purpose of this quantitative causal-comparative study was to determine if there was a difference between teacher perception of their administrator's leadership qualities of *inspiring a shared vision*, *modeling the way*, and *enabling others to act* based on the biological sex of their administrator. Chapter Five discusses the results of the statistical analysis and the implications of those results. In addition, limitations of the study and recommendations for future research are discussed.

Research Questions

RQ1: Is there a difference in teachers' perceptions of their administrator's leadership quality of *inspiring a shared vision* between male administrators and female administrators?

RQ2: Is there a difference in teachers' perceptions of their administrator's leadership quality of *modeling the way* between male administrators and female administrators?

RQ3: Is there a difference in teachers' perceptions of their administrator's leadership quality of *enabling others to act* between male administrators and female administrators?

Null Hypotheses

H₀1: There is no statistically significant difference in teachers' perceptions of their administrator's leadership quality of *inspiring a shared vision* between male administrators and female administrators as measured by the Leadership Practices Inventory.

H₀2: There is no statistically significant difference in teachers' perceptions of their administrator's leadership quality of *modeling the way* between male administrators and female administrators as measured by the Leadership Practices Inventory.

H₀3: There is no statistically significant difference in teachers' perceptions of their administrator's leadership quality of *enabling others to act* between male administrators and

female administrators as measured by the Leadership Practices Inventory.

Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics were obtained on the dependent variables, *inspiring a shared vision*, *modeling the way*, and *enabling others to act*, for each group. Descriptive statistics can be found in Table 2.

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics of Dependent Variables

	Group	<i>N</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>
Inspiring a shared vision	Female	52	47.13	13.25
	Male	55	50.13	10.43
	All	107	48.67	11.92
Modeling the way	Female	52	48.87	13.31
	Male	55	49.84	10.01
	All	107	49.36	11.68
Enabling others to act	Female	52	48.46	13.46
	Male	55	49.25	12.24
	All	107	48.87	12.79

Results

Null Hypothesis One

Data screening. Data screening was conducted on each group's dependent variable. The researcher sorted the data on each variable and scanned for inconsistencies. No data errors or inconsistencies were identified. Box and whiskers plots were used to detect outliers on each dependent variable. No extreme outliers were identified. See Figure 1 for box and whisker plots for teacher scores for their male and female principals.

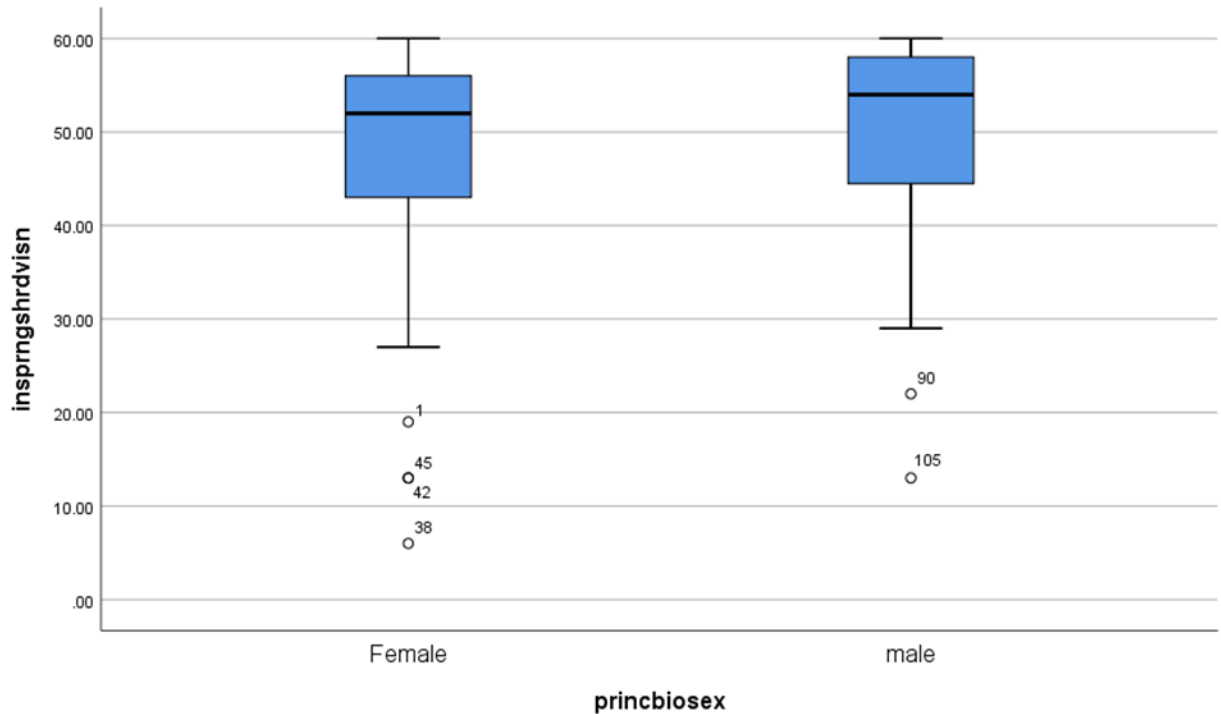


Figure 1. Box and whisker plots for inspiring a shared vision.

Assumptions. An independent samples *t*-test was used to test null hypothesis one. The *t*-test required that the assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variance were met.

Normality was examined using a Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. Kolmogorov-Smirnov was used because the sample size was greater than 50. Violations of normality were found. See Table 3 for Tests of Normality.

Table 3

Tests of Normality inspiring a shared vision

		Kolmogorov-Smirnov		
Principal Biological Sex		Statistic	<i>df</i>	Sig.
Inspiring a shared vision	Female	.180	52	.000
	Male	.190	55	.000

The assumption of homogeneity of variance was examined using the Levene's test. No violation was found where $p = .25$. The assumption of homogeneity of variance was met.

Results for null hypothesis one. An independent-samples t -test was run to determine if there were differences between the *inspiring a shared vision* scores of teachers who had a male principal or female principal. Teachers who had a male principal rated them higher ($M = 50.13$, $SD = 10.43$) than those teachers with female principals ($M = 47.13$, $SD = 13.25$), and there is no statistically significant difference. The researcher failed to reject the null hypothesis at the 95% confidence level, $t(105) = -1.30$, $p = .196$, $d = .25$. The effect size was small.

Since the assumption of normality was not tenable, a Mann-Whitney U test was conducted to confirm the findings of the t -test. A Mann-Whitney U test was run to determine if there were differences between the *inspiring the vision* scores between teachers whose principal was male or female. The median *inspiring the vision* scores were not statistically significantly different between teachers whose principal was male

versus female $U = 1251$, $z = -1.12$, $p = .26$. Therefore, the researcher failed to reject the null hypothesis.

Null Hypothesis Two

Data screening. Data screening was conducted on each group's dependent variable. The researcher sorted the data on each variable and scanned for inconsistencies. No data errors or inconsistencies were identified. Box and whiskers plots were used to detect outliers on each dependent variable. Three extreme outliers were identified. Those were evaluated and retained. See Figure 2 for box and whisker plots for teacher scores for their male and female principals.

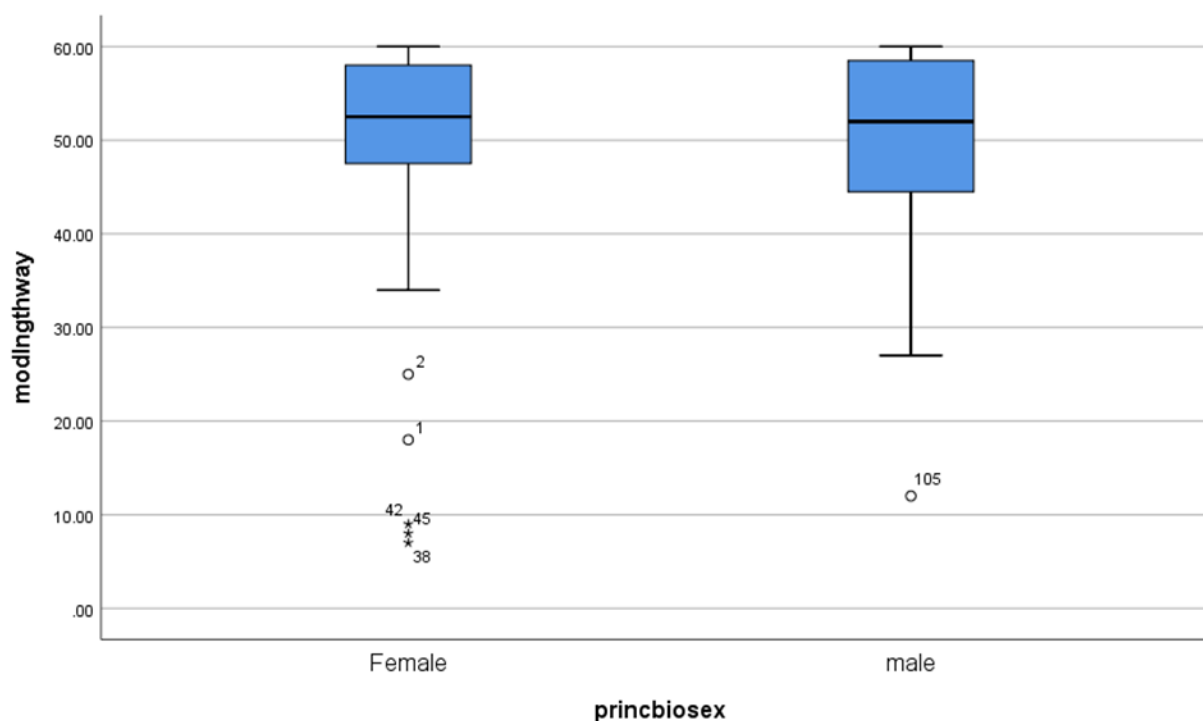


Figure 2. Box and whisker plots for modeling the way.

Assumptions. An independent samples t -test (t -test) was used to test the null hypothesis. The t -test required that the assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variance were met. Normality was examined using a Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. Kolmogorov-Smirnov was used

because the sample size was greater than 50. Violations of normality were found. See Table 4 for Tests of Normality.

Table 4

Tests of Normality modeling the way

		Kolmogorov-Smirnov		
Principal Biological Sex		Statistic	<i>df</i>	Sig.
Modeling the way	Female	.226	52	.000
	Male	.155	55	.002

The assumption of homogeneity of variance was examined using the Levene's test. No violation was found where $p = .25$. The assumption of homogeneity of variance was met.

Results for null hypothesis two. An independent-samples t -test was run to determine if there were differences between the *modeling the way* scores of teachers who had a male principal or female principal. Teachers who had a male principal rated them higher ($M = 49.84$, $SD = 10.01$) than those teachers with female principals ($M = 48.87$, $SD = 13.31$), but there is no statistically significant difference. The researcher failed to reject the null hypothesis at the 95% confidence level, $t(105) = -.43$, $p = .67$, $d = .082$. The effect size was very small.

Since the assumption of normality was not tenable, a Mann-Whitney U test was conducted to confirm the findings of the t -test. A Mann-Whitney U test was run to determine if there were differences between the *modeling the way* scores of teachers

whose principal was male or female. The median *modeling the way* scores were not statistically significantly different between teachers whose principal is male versus female, $U = 1406$, $z = -.147$, $p = .88$. Therefore, the researcher failed to reject the null hypothesis.

Null Hypothesis Three

Data screening. Data screening was conducted on each group's dependent variable. The researcher sorted the data on each variable and scanned for inconsistencies. No data errors or inconsistencies were identified. Box and whisker plots were used to detect outliers on each dependent variable. No extreme outliers were identified. See Figure 3 for box and whisker plots for teacher scores for their male and female principals.

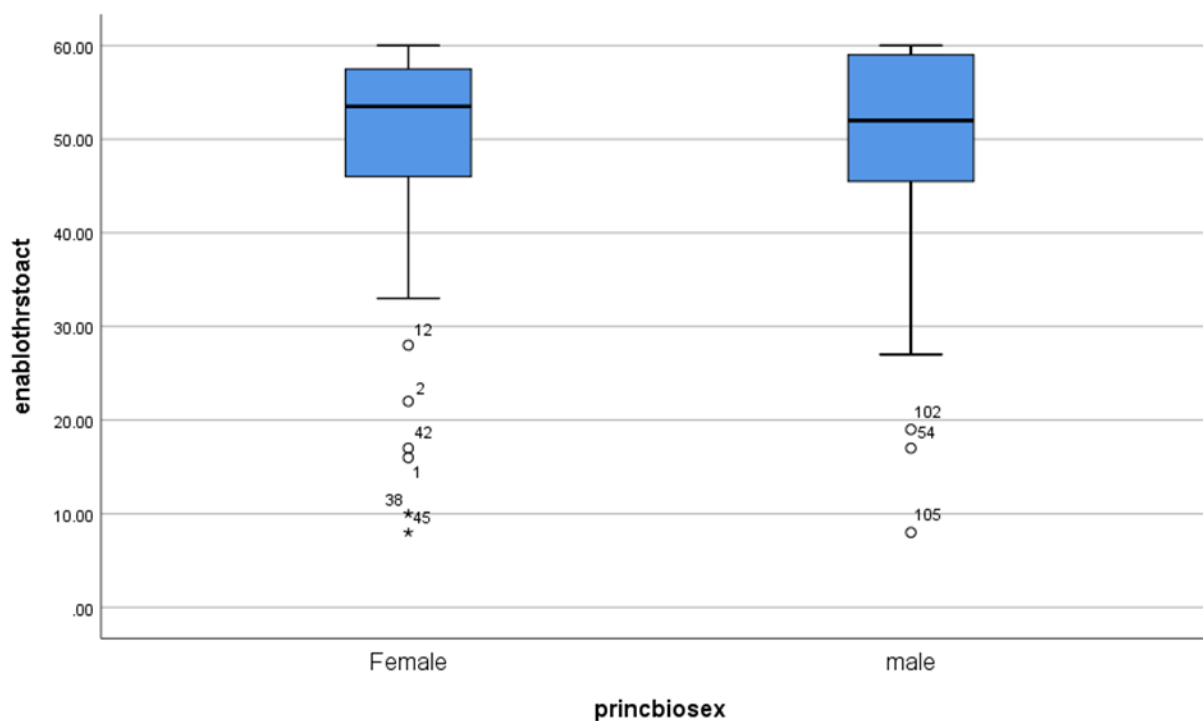


Figure 3. Box and whisker plots for enabling others to act.

Assumptions. An independent samples *t*-test (*t*-test) was used to test the null hypothesis. The *t*-test required that the assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variance are met. Normality was examined using a Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. Kolmogorov-Smirnov was used because the sample size was greater than 50.

		Kolmogorov-Smirnov		
		Statistic	<i>df</i>	Sig.
Enabling Others to Act	Principal Biological Sex Female	.248	52	.000
	Male	.197	55	.000

Violations of normality were found. See Table 5 for Tests of Normality.

Table 5

Tests of Normality Enabling others to act

The assumption of homogeneity of variance was examined using the Levene's test. No violation was found where $p = .25$. The assumption of homogeneity of variance was met.

Results for null hypothesis three. An independent-samples *t*-test was run to determine if there were differences between the *enabling others to act* scores of teachers who had a male principal or female principal. Teachers who had a male principal rated them higher ($M = 49.25$, $SD = 12.24$) than those teachers with female principals ($M = 48.46$, $SD = 13.46$), and there was no statistically significant difference. The researcher failed to reject the null hypothesis at the 95% confidence level, $t(105) = -.32$, $p = .75$, $d = .062$. The effect size was very small.

Since the assumption of normality was not tenable, a Mann-Whitney *U* test was conducted to confirm the findings of the *t*-test. A Mann-Whitney *U* test was run to

determine if there were differences between the *enabling others to act* scores of teachers whose principal was male or female. The median *enabling others to act* scores were not statistically significantly different between teachers whose principal is male versus female, $U = 1401$, $z = -.178$, $p = .859$. Therefore, the researcher failed to reject the null hypothesis.

CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSIONS

Overview

The final chapter of this dissertation reiterates the problem of the study and reviews the research findings. Next each research question will be discussed in view of the literature review, findings, theory, and similar studies. The researcher used the Leadership Practices Inventory online survey to investigate the questions in this study. One hundred seven Pre-K–12 public school teachers in Kentucky completed the Leadership Practices Inventory.

Discussion

The purpose of this quantitative causal-comparative study was to determine if a relationship existed between teacher perception of the leadership qualities of their administrator and the biological sex of their administrator. Over 100 teachers in the southern state of Kentucky participated in the survey. The results of this study revealed that no statistically significant relationship existed between teacher perception of their administrator's leadership qualities of *inspiring a shared vision*, *modeling the way*, and *enabling others to act* between female administrators and male administrators.

Two separate studies by Kruger (2008) and Macrynski and Gates (2013) found that women in educational leadership are still underrepresented in the 21st century. In addition, these studies contended that the number of women in school administrative positions has remained the same. Several studies in the United States and one study in Israel found that although female school principals possessed more education and teaching experience than their male counterparts, females were promoted and hired later in life (Grogan & Shakeshaft, 2010; Marshall & Wynn, 2013; Roser, Brown, & Kelsey, 2009). These studies agree with the previously mentioned studies that females are still underrepresented and overlooked as

educational leaders. Some studies have concurred that the number of female principals has increased slower than that of male principals (Hill, Ottem, & DeRoche, 2016; Kruger, 2008; Macrynski & Gates 2013).

Murakami and Tornsen (2017) state that “Even though more consideration is given to the representation of women in upper secondary schools, it may not mean that, in practice, they are treated or valued equitably” (p. 820). In other words, this study found that gender biases still exist in educational leadership for women. Although national attempts have been made to create gender equity in educational leadership, female educational leaders are still perceived in a negative light (Murakami & Tornsen, 2017).

Research Question One

The first research question explored whether there was a difference in the teachers’ perceptions of their administrator’s leadership quality *inspiring a shared vision* between male administrators and female administrators. The results of this study revealed that no statistically significant difference existed between teacher perception of their administrator’s leadership quality *inspiring a shared vision* between male administrators and female administrators. In this study a small difference existed in the means between male (50) and female (47) principals on the leadership quality of *inspiring a shared vision* which may be attributed to an increase in the number of female principals. The principal that inspires a shared vision develops a vision for the school and solicits faculty input and adoption of the vision (Kouzes & Posner, 1993, 2013; Leech & Fulton, 2008).

According to Biggs (2019) “When women can solicit and record specific feedback, this has been shown to effectively eliminate men’s overrepresentation in top performance categories” (p. 3). As educational stakeholders teachers can provide valuable insight into the leadership

qualities of their administrators (Lee & Nie, 2017; Squires, 2015). Lezotte (2011) contends that it is essential for a principal to have teachers and staff that believe in his or her vision for the school. Leaders that provide meaning and direction for subordinates keep the establishment focused on accomplishing its vision even though hindrances may occur (Harrison, 2011). The results of this study revealed that teacher perception of their administrator's leadership quality *inspiring a shared vision* were very similar for male and female principals. A similar study by Leithwood and Riehl (2003) found that "Effective educational leaders help their schools to develop visions that embody the best thinking about teaching and learning" (p. 3). As stated in the Literature Review when people are afforded the opportunity to put their personal stamp or influence on something such as the school vision, they are more apt to become invested and dedicated to the success of that vision (Tatlah et al., 2014).

Research Question Two

The second research question examined whether there was a difference in teachers' perceptions of their administrator's leadership quality *modeling the way* between male administrators and female administrators. The results of this study revealed that no statistically significant difference existed between teacher perception of their administrator's leadership quality *modeling the way* between male administrators and female administrators. In this current study a very small difference was found in the means between male (50) and female (49) principals on the leadership quality of *modeling the way* which may indicate a rise in the number of female principals. Transformational and instructional educational leadership styles involve an educational leader that models appropriate leadership behaviors for subordinates. According to this study both male and female principals employed the leadership quality of *modeling the way* consistently.

As previously mentioned in the literature review, educational leaders who model the behaviors and attitudes that they would like for their faculty to exhibit effectively lead by example. Modeling the way is employed as a description of an educational leader setting a professional example for teachers to follow (Kouzes & Posner, 1993, 2013; Pucic, 2015). The leadership quality *modeling the way* is exhibited when an effective educational leader is real or authentic in their verbal communication, modeling of appropriate behavior, and display of benevolence in all their interactions with stakeholders (Bird et al., 2009, 2012; Handford & Leithwood, 2013; Hoy & Henderson, 1983; Hoy & Kupersmith, 1985). In order for educational leaders to inspire their subordinates to adopt and display positive attributes the administrator must model these desired attributes in daily activities.

Research Question Three

Lastly, the third research question investigated whether there was a difference in teachers' perceptions of their administrator's leadership quality *enabling others to act* between male administrators and female administrators. The results of this study revealed that no statistically significant difference existed between teacher perception of their administrator's leadership quality *enabling others to act* between male administrators and female administrators. In this study a very small difference was found in the means between male (49) and female (48) principals on the leadership quality of *enabling others to act* which may reveal an increase in the number of female principals. According Kouzes and Posner (2007) effective leaders are ardent about building a cohesive team and employing collaboration to achieve success for their organization.

An educational leader that enables others to act empowers their subordinates by providing opportunities for professional development and the applicable training to help them be

successful (Pastian-Undersahl et al., 2014). A study by Paustian-Undersahl et al. (2014) revealed that women leaders were perceived to be more inclined to instill confidence in their subordinates due to their proclivity to use collaboration and leadership styles that encourage others to be contributing members to the organization. This same study also discovered that collaboration also invites each team member to contribute their ideas and strengths to the team and also includes maintaining an atmosphere of respect and support instead of judgement and ridicule (Paustian-Undersahl et al., 2014).

Although this study found very little difference between teacher perception of the leadership qualities of female and male principals, which indicates that the gender gap in educational leadership has decreased, other studies reveal different results. An editorial on Gender in educational leadership: Where are we in research?, (2017), found that “Despite a great deal of research on the underrepresentation of women in positions of leadership spanning four decades, women are indeed still underrepresented in positions of leadership and women are indeed still experiencing gendered discrimination” (p. 51).

Studies that use surveys to collect data on the gender gap in educational leadership have discovered different results due to demographics and the geographical locations of the studies (Criswell & Betz, 1995; Natale, 1992; Wolverson, 1999). Eagly et al., (2003) found that any differences in the behaviors of women and men leaders are paramount because each individual leader’s behavior is an excellent predictor of their overall leadership effectiveness and the opportunity for them to move up the leadership pipeline.

In contrast, several studies found that recent trends signify that females in leadership roles are gradually increasing (Gammill & Vaughn, 2011; Growe & Montgomery, 2002; Mullen, 2009). These studies contend that although the increase in female educators is small it is

improving. Hallinger, Dongyer, and Wang (2016) conducted a study using the data from 28 studies on teachers and principals' perceptions to examine whether male and female principals differed in their perceptions of instructional leadership practices. Hallinger et al. (2016) stated that "Their results indicated a small but statistically significant effect of gender on instructional leadership, showing more active instructional leadership from female principals" (p. 593). In 2015–2016 female public-school principals made up 54% of the principals in the United States while males made up 46% (McFarland et al., 2019). In addition, previous research found that an increase in the number of female leaders may signify success in the struggle against gender inequality in leadership, these numbers by themselves do not eradicate basic cultural barriers that permeate society and educational institutions (Gender in educational leadership: Where are we in research?, 2017). Since these gender variations were not connected with specific attributes of the instructional leadership style Hallinger et al. (2016) chose to "... cautiously characterize the 'small effect' identified in this study as "potentially meaningful" (p. 593). Although this study found small and very small effect sizes concerning the leadership qualities between male and female principals, the results of this study can also be classified as "potentially meaningful".

Implications

Although the results of this study revealed statistically insignificant results for all three research questions, these results provide valuable insight into a lack of diversity in educational leadership. Since a decreasing number of females in educational leadership is a current issue, this study may help shed some light on the need for additional studies in this area. The findings of this study, that the biological sex of the principal did not impact teacher perception of these essential leadership qualities, adds to the literature. The means for teacher perception of the leadership qualities of *inspiring a shared vision*, *modeling the way*, and *enabling others to act*

showed small or very little differences between male and female administrators. Thus, this study revealed that teachers did not perceive any significant difference in their ratings of their male or female administrators as it pertains to the leadership qualities of *inspiring a shared vision*, *modeling the way*, and *enabling others to act*.

Although the findings of this study found an insignificant relationship between teacher perception and the three subscales of the LPI, Murakami and Tornsen (2017) found that prejudices are still evident in the way female leaders are perceived in educational arenas even though national endeavors to bring about equity are ongoing. Many other studies also found that female administrators are judged more harshly and are afforded less career opportunities than their male counterparts (Eagly, 1992; Eagly & Carli, 2007; Hoyt, 2010; Hoyt & Burnette, 2013). In addition, Glazer-Ramo (2001) discovered that as women receive degrees in educational administration, they are still not given the same opportunities as their male counterparts and are often subjected to systematic discrimination. Confronting the blockades that impede the advancement of women into educational leadership positions will help women successfully navigate the admission and advancement pipeline to secure leadership positions (Agosto et al., 2015).

Even though the findings of the current study were not statistically significant the results do indicate that although women were rated lower than men on the leadership qualities of *inspiring a shared vision*, *modeling the way*, and *enabling others to act*, the small difference signifies that the gender gap is decreasing. According to Hernandez Bark et al. (2014) the female gender role is consistent with transformational leadership practices which affords women the chance to diminish the inconsistencies that exist between leadership and gender roles.

Limitations

According to Warner (2013) “A nonexperimental study usually has weak internal validity; that is, merely observing that two variables are correlated is not a sufficient basis for causal inferences” (p. 20). Warner (2013) states that “The degree to which research results are generalizable to participants, settings, and materials beyond those actually included in the study is called external validity” (p. 1086). The limitations of a causal-comparative study include lack of researcher control and apparent cause and effect may be reversed or could be influenced by another variable that was not considered. External validity is threatened in this study due to the small number of completed surveys and the remote rural areas of most of the school districts that participated in the study. All these factors mean that the research results of this study have very limited generalizability. Although the findings of this study cannot be generalized beyond this population, they do contribute to the body of literature that contends that the gender gap in leadership positions in education is narrowing for women.

Next, the researcher could seek approval from Pre-K–12 public school districts in two or more states to ensure a larger database. Thirdly, the researcher could lengthen the data collection time to hopefully gain more participants for the study. Finally, Weiner and Burton (2016) contend that if the structure of the leadership programs for principals favors a certain gender due to preconceived ideas or societal roles, and the basis for principal evaluation follows this same track, a potential consequence is that a female student may be viewed as inadequate or inferior for the task and as such may in turn experience discrimination during the hiring process unlike their male counterparts.

Recommendations for Future Research

Recommendations for further research should include but are not limited to:

- Institutions of higher learning should incorporate relevant and current theories of leadership into their training programs for educational leaders to adequately prepare future principals to *inspire a shared vision, model the way, and enable others to act* within their schools.
- A study should be done to determine if race of the responding teacher impacts these findings.
- A study should be done to determine if race impacts teacher responses.
- In addition to rating their individual leadership abilities, educational administrators should be evaluated regularly by their superiors and their subordinates so that modifications for improvements can be made to help the principal lead effectively.
- As previously mentioned, research using current preexisting data on the differences between male and female principals should be used in lieu of survey results.
- Extending the length of time to collect survey results
- Increase the size of the collection sites to possibly increase participation in the research study
- Add another variable such as age or experience to the study to increase data collection and expand the results

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APPENDIX A**Permission to use Leadership Practices Inventory****WILEY****August 21, 2019****Jennifer Washington 707 Spruce Lane****Elizabethtown, KY 42701 Dear Jennifer Washington:**

Thank you for your request to use the LPI®: Leadership Practices Inventory® in your research.

This letter grants you permission to use either the print or electronic LPI [Self/Observer/Self and Observer] instrument[s] in your research. You may reproduce the instrument in printed form at no charge beyond the discounted one-time cost of purchasing a single copy; however, you may not distribute any photocopies except for specific research purposes. If you prefer to use the electronic distribution of the LPI you will need to separately contact Joshua Carter

(jocarter@wiley.com) directly for further details regarding product access and payment. Please be sure to review the product information resources before reaching out with pricing questions.

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upon written notice to you, in the event we conclude, in our reasonable judgment, that your use of the LPI is compromising our proprietary rights in the LPI.

Best wishes for every success with your research project. Cordially,

Mélanie Mortensen Rights Coordinator mmortensen@wiley.com

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APPENDIX B**Liberty University IRB Approval Letter****LIBERTY UNIVERSITY**
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD

October 4, 2019

Jennifer Derickson Washington

IRB Exemption 3902.100419: Teacher Perception of the Leadership Qualities of Their Administrator Based on the Biological Sex and Ethnicity of the Administrator

Dear Jennifer Derickson Washington,

The Liberty University Institutional Review Board has reviewed your application in accordance with the Office for Human Research Protections (OHRP) and Food and Drug Administration (FDA) regulations and finds your study to be exempt from further IRB review. This means you may begin your research with the data safeguarding methods mentioned in your approved application, and no further IRB oversight is required.

Your study falls under exemption category 46.101(b)(2), which identifies specific situations in which human participants research is exempt from the policy set forth in 45 CFR 46:101(b):

(2) Research that only includes interactions involving educational tests (cognitive, diagnostic, aptitude, achievement), survey procedures, interview procedures, or observation of public behavior (including visual or auditory recording) if at least one of the following criteria is met:

(i) The information obtained is recorded by the investigator in such a manner that the identity of the human subjects cannot readily be ascertained, directly or through identifiers linked to the subjects;

Please note that this exemption only applies to your current research application, and any changes to your protocol must be reported to the Liberty IRB for verification of continued exemption status. You may report these changes by submitting a change in protocol form or a new application to the IRB and referencing the above IRB Exemption number.

If you have any questions about this exemption or need assistance in determining whether possible changes to your protocol would change your exemption status, please email us at irb@liberty.edu.

Sincerely,

G. Michele Baker, MA, CIP
Administrative Chair of Institutional Research
Research Ethics Office



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