RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN EDUCATORS’ ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT, JOB SATISFACTION, AND ADMINISTRATORS’ GENDER

by

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A Dissertation Presented in Partial Fulfillment Of the Requirements for the Degree Doctor of Education

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this quantitative, causal-comparative study was to examine the differences between teachers’ mean job satisfaction scores based on the administrators’ gender and examine the relationship between the administrators’ gender and teachers’ organizational commitment plans in Tennessee middle schools. Job satisfaction and organizational commitment was measured by the Tennessee Teaching, Empowering, Leading and Learning (TELL) Survey that was administered online and completed by Tennessee teachers voluntarily and anonymously. A stratified random selection of schools based on the administrator’s gender (female, n = 85; male, n = 85) was selected (N = 170) from those achieving the predetermined response criteria of 50% return rate. Schools where the principal had been in position for less than three years were excluded. A multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was used to analyze the association between the dependent variable, job satisfaction, based on the independent variable, administrators’ gender. Pearson’s chi-square analysis was used to analyze the relationship between administrators’ gender and teachers’ organizational commitment plans in education. Significance was with the implications for increased gender awareness, teacher commitment and satisfaction, and teacher retention.

Descriptors: Job satisfaction, organizational commitment, gender, leadership, teacher retention, and gender stereotypes
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# Table of Contents

List of Tables .............................................................................................................. vi

List of Abbreviations .................................................................................................. vii

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION ........................................................................ 1

  Background ............................................................................................................. 2

  Problem Statement ............................................................................................... 5

  Purpose Statement ............................................................................................... 6

  Significance of the Study ..................................................................................... 7

  Research Question(s) ............................................................................................ 8

  Research Hypothesis(es) ..................................................................................... 8

  Identification of Variables ................................................................................... 10

  Research Plan ....................................................................................................... 11

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW ............................................................... 13

  Introduction ........................................................................................................... 13

  Teacher Retention ............................................................................................... 15

  Organizational Commitment ............................................................................. 16

  Organizational Commitment and Gender .......................................................... 17

  Job Satisfaction .................................................................................................... 21

  Job Satisfaction and Gender ............................................................................. 24

  Theoretical Framework ......................................................................................... 27

  Gender Stereotypes ............................................................................................. 34
Theoretical Implications ................................................................. 73
Implications for Practice .................................................................. 76
Limitations ......................................................................................... 78
Recommendations for Future Research ............................................. 79
Summary and Conclusions ................................................................. 81
REFERENCES .................................................................................... 85
APPENDIX A ..................................................................................... 100
APPENDIX B ..................................................................................... 101
APPENDIX C ..................................................................................... 103
APPENDIX D ..................................................................................... 105
APPENDIX E ..................................................................................... 106
APPENDIX F ..................................................................................... 107
List of Tables

Table 3.1 .................................................................................................................. 46
Table 3.2 .................................................................................................................. 46
Table 3.3 .................................................................................................................. 47
Table 3.4 .................................................................................................................. 51
Table 3.5 .................................................................................................................. 52
Table 3.6 .................................................................................................................. 53
Table 4.1 .................................................................................................................. 61
Table 4.2 .................................................................................................................. 62
Table 4.3 .................................................................................................................. 64
List of Abbreviations

New Teacher Center – NTC
North Carolina Professional Teaching Standards Commission - NCPTSC
Tennessee Teaching, Empowering, Leading, and Learning - TELL
Magnetic Resonance Imaging – MRI
Adequate Yearly Progress – AYP
Multivariate Analysis of Variance - MANOVA
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Many factors influence teachers’ job satisfaction and organizational commitment. An administrator’s ability to lead and to create a culture of collegiality and trust is among these factors (Basom & Frase, 2004; Reina & Reina, 1999; Tschannen-Moran, 2001). Leadership style has been considered a critical factor in a leader’s ability to create a successful school environment and develop leader-subordinate relationships that foster optimum instructional practices (Hackman & Johnson, 2009; Kouzes & Posner, 2011). Research supports that males and females demonstrate different leadership qualities characteristic to specific leadership styles resulting in certain expectations held among subordinates within the professional environment (Afolabi, Obude, Okediji, & Ezeh, 2008; Embry, Padgett, & Caldwell, 2008; Grisoni & Beeby, 2007; Hackman & Johnson, 2009; Kruger, 2008).

Gender expectations and stereotypes can be understood through Bandura’s social cognitive theory (Bussey & Bandura, 1999) and Vygotsky’s socio-cultural theory (Vygotsky, 1978). Both theories purport that through social contexts and interactions, gender differences are recognized and acted upon (Bussey & Bandura, 1999; Frawly, 2008; Grisoni & Beeby, 2007; Vygotsky, 1978). If leadership styles that are characteristic of a specific gender and based on stereotyped beliefs are not aligned with teachers’ expectations, job satisfaction and organizational commitment could potentially be influenced (Embry et al., 2008). To date, the question remains to what extent is the relationship between the gender of the administrator and
teachers’ sense of job satisfaction and organizational commitment. The purpose of the current study was to examine the mean score differences between teachers’ job satisfaction based on the gender of the building administrator and examine the relationship between administrators’ gender and teachers’ organizational commitment plans within Tennessee middle schools.

The components of this chapter include background information that leads to the problem statement, purpose statement, and significance of the study. Next, I identify, define, and discuss the research questions, hypotheses, and related variables. I conclude with a description of the assumptions and limitations of the research as well as an overview of the purposed research plan.

**Background**

Some theorists view gender awareness as universal and as an agent that minimizes social influences (Bosacki, 2007). Research has supported the idea that brain chemistry causes boys and girls to think differently (Kommer, 2006; Kruger, 2008). The majority of research, however, has credited societal and cultural norms as major factors in shaping gender identity. Carrier (2009) agreed that gender socialization, expectations, and stereotypes have a greater impact on academic and social success than biological factors.

Messages of gender expectations result in implications for future career, leadership, and educational opportunities for both males and females (Sanford, 2006). Gender expectations gain significance during adolescence as students establish and maintain a sense of identity. Contribution or negation of gender stereotypes shape how children view themselves in relation to the world (Van Brummelen, 2002). As indicated
by Blackhurst and Auger (2008), student perceptions of themselves based on others’ expectations are a determining factor in overcoming gender stereotypes in relation to future aspirations. Gender differences are prevalent in terms of how girls and boys perceive educational settings (Austin & Thompson, 2010; Rueger, Malecki, & Demaray, 2008).

As children become adults and graduate to the workforce, gender differences manifest themselves as people make sense of their environment and surroundings. Expectations regarding gendered behavior are formed through social interactions and precipitate specific leadership styles aligned with being male or female (Embry et al., 2008; Grisoni & Beeby, 2007; Krueger, 2008). The prevalence of research related to gender and what it means to be male or female in school, work, or society evidences the need to increase awareness of personally held gender expectations for future influence within the work environment, regardless of profession (Afolabi et al., 2008; Chen, Chen, & Chen, 2010). The complex, contradictory, and seemingly intractable relationship between biological and environmental influences on gender identity and behavior provides a foundation for continued research. The intricacy between biology, which determines gender differences, and environment, which provides the social contexts that influence gender differences, is a perplexed interaction (Christman & McClellan, 2008; Grisoni & Beeby, 2007; Kruger, 2008). The intersection of these factors within a professional context requires additional research.

A widening gender gap in higher education degree attainment in which women are surpassing men in college enrollment and completion (Blackhurst &
Auger, 2008) is reflected in the education profession. According to the United States Department of Education Statistics (2011), 76% of public school teachers and 50% of school principals are female. The idea that educational leadership principles are founded primarily on masculine styles of leadership was supported by Glazer (1990) who credited the reform movements of the 1950s, 60s, and 70s and the work of men such as Conant, Bruner, Bloom, Skinner, Goodman, Illick, Holt, and Kozol with forming those principles. Men hold a disproportionate number of educational leadership positions (Andrews & Ridenour, 2006; Ingersoll & Merrill, 2010). However, female attainment of K-12 educational leadership positions is steadily increasing. In 1993-94, men outnumbered women in principal positions by 24,610, but in 2007-08, women outnumbered men by 570 (United States Department of Education Statistics, 2011). This trend in education supports the need for further research to examine the potential for the administrator’s gender to influence teachers’ job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Research exists about gender and leadership styles, gender and job satisfaction for teachers and administrators, and gender and career commitment for leaders and subordinates (Alfolabi et al., 2008; Hackman & Johnson, 2009). However, research is limited that relates a school administrator’s gender and teachers’ job satisfaction and organizational commitment within the educational environment.

The current study extends prior research in education by focusing on the issue of women functioning in an environment with firmly established masculine principles (Andrews & Ridenour, 2006; Glazer, 1990). Specifically, this research determines the
extent of a relationship between the administrator’s gender and teachers’ job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

**Problem Statement**

Educators need to recognize the potential for gender expectations embedded from childhood into adulthood and the interaction of these expectations with daily performance in the educational environment. Educators must also recognize the potential for these expectations to influence job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Research has shown that early, and often latent, formation of gender identities, expectations, and stereotypes contributes to expectations of gendered behavior as adults (Andrews & Ridenour, 2006; Blackhurst & Auger, 2008; Lester, 2008; Sax & Harper, 2007). Expectations of gendered behavior—particularly related to women in positions of leadership—can contribute to negative feelings of job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Celikten, 2010; Chen & Addi, 1992; Eckman, 2004; Meier, O’Ttoole, & Goerdel, 2006). The larger representation of women in education would indicate that there should be more women administrators. Because men have traditionally served as leaders and because both men and women have often seen leadership as the domain of men, education is still dominated by male influences of leadership effectiveness with little regard to the growing trend of women attaining leadership positions. Teacher commitment and, ultimately, school effectiveness are influenced by the degree of teacher job satisfaction; teachers’ job satisfaction could be hindered when expectations of male or female leadership qualities are not aligned with performance (Celikten, 2010;
Chen & Addi, 1992; Eckman, 2004; Meier, O’Toole, & Goerdel, 2006; Shann, 1998). Teachers need work environments and conditions that give them the best opportunity to do their jobs well. Teachers stay in the profession and are more committed to the organization when their love of children and learning, need for empowerment and interaction, and desire to feel valued and challenged are supported, encouraged, and enhanced (Basom & Frase, 2004; Shann, 1998).

Research has shown that transformational leadership styles promote job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Chen et al., 2010; Hackman & Johnson, 2011; Korkmaz, 2007; Kouzes & Posner, 2007). Transformational leadership styles have been correlated with traditionally feminine characteristics, such as the ability to inspire, to develop close relationships, and to motivate, whereas transactional leadership styles have been associated with traditionally masculine characteristics, such as risk taking, assertiveness, and task oriented behavior (Christman & McClellan, 2008; Embry et al., 2008). Researchers have also concluded a statistically significant joint influence of gender and leadership style on career commitment, satisfaction, and effectiveness (Afolabi et al., 2008; Embry et al., 2008). However, these studies have been conducted with samples from private sectors rather than with educators, which motivated the need for the current study.

**Purpose Statement**

The purpose of this causal-comparative study was to determine if a significant difference exists in mean scores for teachers’ job satisfaction based on the gender of the building administrator and examine the relationship between the administrators’ gender
and teachers’ organizational commitment in Tennessee middle schools. The sample for the study was taken from Tennessee middle schools where educators have the potential to influence a multitude of professional environments as they model gender-specific behaviors. The extent of association increases educators’ awareness of how gender expectations influence their own behavior and promotes further exploration. Results of the study assist to fill that gap by determining if the school administrator’s gender influences teachers’ job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

**Significance of the Study**

The demands of education are continuously increasing year after year. Demands are imposed by state and federal mandates, school districts, and communities related to improving school performance. Paramount to school improvement efforts is that educators be committed and recognize the importance of their work. Many factors influence the level of organizational commitment, including gender and job satisfaction (Embry et al., 2008).

As school leaders gain awareness of the potential differences between males and females in education and increase their knowledge related to factors that promote job satisfaction, they will be able to intentionally address those needs. Considering the importance of gender role development among social learning theorists and the implications of global change toward gender equity, further study of gender expectations in the educational environment and beyond is necessary (Miller, 2002). Retaining good teachers is an integral piece of school improvement efforts, and information gleaned from the current study assists school administrators in sustained growth by keeping those
teachers in the classroom and committed to the organization. Results will also motivate further studies for exploration of the variables of interest, particularly in the field of educational research.

Further study to examine the relationship between middle school teachers’ organizational commitment and job satisfaction based on the administrator’s gender assists educational organizations in developing practices that support and promote a collective interest toward a shared vision. A more in-depth knowledge of these factors facilitates greater sensitivity to issues that would ultimately lead to a heightened awareness for job satisfaction and increase organizational commitment for all, regardless of gender.

**Research Questions**

The following research questions guided this study:

**Research Question 1:** Is there a statistically significant difference in Tennessee middle school teachers’ job satisfaction based on the gender of the building administrator?

**Research Question 2:** Does a statistically significant relationship exist between Tennessee middle school teachers’ organizational commitment plans in education and the gender of the building administrator?

**Research Hypotheses**

The following are the research and null hypotheses for the research questions:

H₁: A statistically significant difference exists for middle school teachers’ mean combination job satisfaction scores (e.g. leadership and instructional practices and
support) as measured by the Teaching, Empowering, Leading and Learning (TELL) Tennessee Survey based on the gender (male, female) of the school administrator.

\( H_{1.2} \): A statistically significant difference exists for middle school teachers’ mean leadership scores as measured by the Teaching, Empowering, Leading and Learning (TELL) Tennessee Survey based on the gender (male, female) of the school administrator.

\( H_{1.3} \): A statistically significant difference exists for middle school teachers’ mean instructional practices and support scores as measured by the Teaching, Empowering, Leading and Learning (TELL) Tennessee Survey based on the gender (male, female) of the school administrator.

\( H_2 \): A statistically significant relationship exists between the gender (male, female) of the school administrator and middle school teachers’ organizational commitment plans in education as measured by the Teaching, Empowering, Leading and Learning (TELL) Tennessee Survey.

\( H_{01.1} \): No statistically significant difference exists for middle school teachers’ mean combination job satisfaction scores (e.g. leadership and instructional practices and support) as measured by the Teaching, Empowering, Leading and Learning (TELL) Tennessee Survey based on the gender (male, female) of the school administrator.

\( H_{01.2} \): No statistically significant difference exists for middle school teachers’ mean leadership scores as measured by the Teaching, Empowering, Leading and Learning (TELL) Tennessee Survey based on the gender (male, female) of the school administrator.
$H_{01.3}$: No statistically significant difference exists for middle school teachers’ mean instructional practices and support scores as measured by the Teaching, Empowering, Leading and Learning (TELL) Tennessee Survey based on the gender (male, female) of the school administrator.

$H_{02}$: No statistically significant relationship exists between the gender (male, female) of the school administrator and middle school teachers’ organizational commitment plans in education measured by the Teaching, Empowering, Leading and Learning (TELL) Tennessee Survey.

**Identification of Variables**

The independent variable examined in this study was gender of building administrator, and the dependent variables were job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Gender (male, female) was determined based on the building administrator at the time of survey completion. Middle school teachers’ job satisfaction was operationally defined by the leadership and instructional practices and support scales on the Teaching, Empowering, Leading and Learning (TELL) Tennessee Survey (Tennessee Department of Education, June 2011). Job satisfaction was defined as the positive emotions that result from job experiences and overall attitude of the extent to which a job or facets of a job are liked or disliked (Hulpia, Devos, & Rosseel, 2009; Spector, 1997).

Middle school teachers’ organizational commitment was also measured by items on the TELL Survey (Tennessee Department of Education, June 2011). Organizational commitment was defined as the extent of loyalty, strength of identification, and
responsibility felt toward a shared mission and the level of involvement and willingness to exert effort to achieve that mission (Camp, 1994; Hulpia et al., 2009).

**Research Plan**

The purpose of this study was to examine the differences between teachers’ mean job satisfaction scores based on the gender of the building administrator and the relationship between the administrators’ gender and teachers’ organizational commitment plans in education. A quantitative, non-experimental causal-comparative research design was used to conduct the study. Limited research exists related to these particular variables of study; thus, causal-comparative research design was appropriate to begin exploration (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2007). The scope of the current study did not include causation of any variables upon the other; rather it was to determine the differences and relationships among variables. Nor did the study manipulate variables or incorporate a control group to measure causal relationships. The design included (a) establishing variables to be studied, (b) selecting participating schools to be included in the sample, (c) collecting the data, and (d) analyzing the data. A multivariate analysis of variance was used to analyze the association between the mean scores for the dependent variable, job satisfaction, based on the gender of the building administrator. Pearson’s chi-square analysis was used to measure statistical significance of relationships between administrators’ gender and teachers’ organizational commitment plans in education.

Considering the growing trend of women in education and the increase of female administrators, the variables of gender, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment needed further examination (Andrews & Ridenour, 2006; Ingersoll & Merrill, 2010).
The following chapter provides a review of the literature related to the variables of interest.
CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

The objective of the current study was to examine if a building administrator’s gender influences teachers’ satisfaction and commitment within an educational organization. Studies relating the variables of interest have been limited within the educational environment. The research that does exist primarily examines classroom related achievement and gender and the experience of females in acquiring academic leadership positions (Blackhurst & Auger, 2008; Carrier, 2009; Christman & McClellan, 2008; Clark, Thompson, & Vialle, 2008; Fidell, Belcher, & Messner, 2009; Kruger, 2008; Rueger, Malecki, & Demaray, 2008; Sax & Harper, 2007; Smith & Hung, 2008). The continued increase in female educators acquiring leadership positions as well as the continued disproportionate representations of males and females in educational leadership attracts more attention to the potential influence of the leader’s gender on teachers’ perceptions of satisfaction and commitment (Muchiri, Cooksey, Milia, & Walumbwa, 2011).

Reynolds (2002) reported international research of ten women from five countries that suggested women leaders are not recognized or respected in school systems. The results of Reynolds’ (2002) study are surprising in a field that is dominated by females. The profession of teaching has been traditionally viewed as “feminine,” and the managing practices of education have been largely “masculine” (Anastasaki & Koutra, 2005; Glazer, 1990; Lawson, 2008). Through qualitative analysis, Eckman (2004)
attributed discrepancies to a system characterized by the “good old boys’ club.” A profession considered predominately female is largely led by males. As a result, the administrative path is often ascended more quickly by male leaders than female leaders. Adams and Hambright (2004) were surprised by the minute representation of female applicants for administrative positions, reporting that women represent 75% of the teaching force and men represent 60% of administration. Gender discrepancies were also demonstrated in more affluent positions in education; women represented only 8% of superintendent positions (Meier & Wilkins, 2002).

Although the number of males serving in educational leadership positions remains high, an increasing number of females are moving into leadership positions. Between 1993 and 2008, the number of women in school principal positions increased from 27,500 to 45,520 (United States Department of Education Statistics, 2011). As female educators continue to acquire leadership positions that have historically been considered male dominant, the potential for the leader’s gender to influence teachers’ job satisfaction and commitment may increase (Muchiri, Cooksey, Milia, & Walumbwa, 2011). The prevalence in perceptions that educational leadership is synonymous with being male may impact teachers’ beliefs and attitudes regarding a female leader. Thus, this study will investigate the differences between educators’ mean organizational commitment and job satisfaction scores based on the gender of the school administrator.

This chapter comprises a discussion of the theoretical frameworks that ground the current study, which include Bandura’s (Bandura, 1986) social cognitive theory and Vygotsky’s (1978) socio-cultural approach. Both theories identify gender as a social
phenomenon constructed under social norms (Christman & McClellan, 2007). Previous research on the topic of gender and leadership was reviewed. Gender stereotypes from childhood into adulthood and the potential influence on leadership is provided. A review of the literature for the variables that are under study, job satisfaction and organizational commitment, is included. The chapter is organized with the following components: a review of the literature related to teacher retention, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction; a description of the theoretical framework; an examination of gender stereotypes, leadership, and gender; and a brief summary of the current research study.

Teacher Retention

Brown and Wynn (2009) reported approximately one third of teachers abandon their newly obtained positions within the first three years, and one half leave after five years. Teacher retention and commitment to the organization hinges on teachers’ job satisfaction and feelings about the support they receive from their building administrator. Chang (2009) reported three major factors that contributed to teachers leaving the profession: (a) individual factors that included such things as age, gender, years of service, marital status, and coping strategies; (b) organizational factors that included work demands, salary, organizational rigidity, and shared decision making; and (c) transactional factors that included a combination of the previous two, such as perceptions of organizational leadership styles, perceived administrative support, professional satisfaction, and teacher efficacy. Conversely, environments that encourage frequent and stimulating interactions with colleagues, foster positive work relationships, and provide professional stimulation increase teacher retention (Brown & Wynn, 2009; Chang, 2009;
Consistent throughout the research is that teachers are more committed to the organization when they are provided adequate resources and support from the administrator (Brown & Wynn, 2009; Denton, 2009; Scherer, 2003). Teachers were more likely to remain, not only in the profession but in the same building, when they were engaged in continued learning and development, informed and included in shared decision making, and continually renewed and inspired through collaborative efforts (Brown & Wynn, 2009; Denton, 2009). This was illustrated in a study by Leech and Fulton (2002) in which middle and high school teachers most often perceived principals to exhibit the ability to “enable others to act” and “model the way” as described by Kouzes and Posner (2011). A leader’s ability to provide the necessary nurturance and guidance is dependent upon leadership style. Certain leadership styles, transformational in nature, are more conducive to ensuring the described environment and can also be influenced by gender (Embry et al., 2008).

**Organizational Commitment**

Effective educational leaders inspire a shared vision and motivate members of the organization to work toward the achievement of that vision (Kouzes & Posner, 2011). Organizational commitment has been defined as the extent of loyalty and responsibility felt toward a shared mission and the level of willingness to exert effort to achieve that mission (Camp, 1994; Chen et al., 2010). Others have defined it as the strength of identification and involvement in a particular organization (Hulpia, Devos, & Rosseel, 2009). Organizational commitment has been characterized based on three dimensions of
commitment: (a) affective commitment that relates to emotional attachment, (b) continuance commitment that relates to weighing the cost alternatives of leaving, and (c) normative commitment that relates to a sense of obligation (Aydin, Sarier, & Sengul, 2011; Chen et al., 2010; Karakus & Aslan, 2009; Tanriverdi, 2008; Ware & Kitsantas, 2007).

**Contributing Factors**

All three dimensions are influenced by a combination of factors. Leadership styles, teacher efficacy, experience, gender, environment, and collaboration are among the few that may contribute to organizational commitment (Afolabi et al., 2008; Chen et al., 2010; Hulpia et al., 2009; Ware & Kitsantas, 2007). Ware and Kitsantas (2007) reported teachers’ commitment is a direct reflection of the administrator’s type of leadership. Similar conclusions were drawn by Hulpia et al. (2009), stating that school leadership influences the degree of loyalty an individual feels.

**Organizational Commitment and Gender**

It has been established that certain leadership styles are considered more masculine or feminine in nature (Embry et al., 2008; Tabbodi, 2009). Research has also supported that leadership style has a significant influence on career commitment (Afolabi et al., 2008; Ware & Kitsantas, 2007). By studying 93 department heads and faculty members of a university, Tabbodi (2009) found that in addition to leadership styles, other factors contribute to organizational commitment. She found that there was a positive relationship between commitment behavior and age and gender; women and younger participants showed higher commitment than men and older participants (Tabbodi, 2009).
Afolabi et al. (2008) also found females to demonstrate higher levels of career commitment and job performance when compared to males. They studied the career commitment and job performance of 140 employees from two different companies. The independent variables being investigated were gender (male, female) and leadership style (autocratic, democratic). Supervisors for 67 of the participants were female, and 73 participants had male supervisors. The results indicated a statistically significant influence for both gender and leadership style on career commitment. The authors stressed the implications of these findings to put aside gender biases to ensure the optimum conditions for a professional work environment (Afolabi et al., 2008). Other studies, such as the meta-analysis of Aydin et al. (2011), resulted in low effect sizes favoring male teachers’ commitment levels. They determined men were slightly more capable than women of adopting organizational norms and values. Karakus and Aslan (2009) focused on the different categories of commitment and determined that of 1,124 high school teachers, females were more affectively and normatively committed to the profession of teaching. However, female teachers exhibited lower levels of normative commitment to the actual work group and lower continuance commitment to the individual school at which they worked (Karakus & Aslan, 2009).

A productive work environment is dependent upon a leader’s ability to inspire members toward a shared vision and motivate a sense of identification with the organization to exert the necessary effort to achieve success (Camp, 1994; Chen et al., 2010; Hulpia et al., 2009; Kouzes & Posner, 2011). Meier, O’Toole, and Goerdel (2006) chose Texas school districts to conduct a three year study to examine and generalize
findings to public managerial settings. The professionalized setting of school districts with established processes of certification for various managerial positions was conducive for generalizations to other public organizations. The researchers were particularly interested in the superintendents’ managing behaviors with their board and performance of the school districts in relation to the superintendents’ managing practices based on gender. The results indicated no difference of management practices between men and women with networking or interacting with the school board. Female superintendents did interact less with school principals than did male superintendents. The researchers determined significant gendered interactions between management activities that affect school performance. The amount of contact male superintendents had with principals was not related to district performance. The opposite was true for female superintendents; greater contact with principals resulted in a strong negative relationship with school performance indicators. However, female superintendents did produce better performance from their school board contacts than males, and males produced better results among outside networks than females (Meier et al., 2006). The results of the study conducted by Meier et al. (2006) confirmed gender influences on managerial behaviors and the ability to work with subordinates. Based on these findings, an organization’s willingness to commit to a shared vision and dedicate their abilities toward organizational performance outcomes could be influenced by the leader’s gender.

The relationship between teachers’ organizational commitment and building level administrators’ gender is less clear. Reuvers, van Engen, Vinkenburg, and Wilson-Evered (2008) conducted a study among 335 nurses, doctors, psychologists, and
consultants from four Australian hospitals to examine transformational leadership styles, gender, and innovative work behavior. The manager’s gender had no significant direct effect for innovativeness regarding employee work behavior. However, they did conclude that transformational leadership styles, though more often exhibited by women, were more influential for innovative work behaviors by employees when exercised by male leaders (Reuvers et al., 2008). Employees’ commitment to the organization and willingness to strive toward exemplary performance could be influenced by the leader’s gender and associated styles of expected or unexpected leadership practices. The relationship between a leader’s gender and organizational commitment is more pronounced when job satisfaction is an established variable. Chen et al. (2010) illustrated the pronounced relationship between variables in a study conducted among 150 employees within 12 IT Department of Research organizations in Shanghai, China. Gender was not found to be a moderating variable between either transformational (characterized as feminine) or transactional (characterized as masculine) leadership styles and organizational commitment. However, when Chen et al. (2010) surveyed employee job satisfaction, they discovered that the leader’s gender was a moderator between job satisfaction and organizational commitment after job satisfaction was achieved by the employee. Imperative for the success of an educational organization is to create environments in which teachers and teacher leaders remain committed and satisfied. Further research is necessary to explore these relationships and the potential influence of a leader’s gender, specifically within the educational environment.
Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction holds great importance for teachers’ organizational commitment. Job satisfaction is defined as an overall attitude of the extent to which a job or facets of a job are liked or disliked (Spector, 1997): the positive emotions that result from the experience of job performance (Hulpia, Devos, & Rosseel, 2009). Teacher job satisfaction has been shown to be a predictor of teacher retention and commitment, which contribute to overall school effectiveness (Griffith, 2003; Hulpia et al., 2009). Griffith (2003) conducted a study of elementary school teachers to determine the relationship between transformational leadership and staff turnover and overall school performance. Transformational leadership was not directly related to either of the variables; rather the significance of the study was discovered in the indirect negative effects of job satisfaction on teacher turnover and positive effects on school performance (Griffith, 2004).

Research has also produced evidence that the level of job satisfaction an individual experiences is highly influenced by the level of organizational commitment. Hulpia et al. (2009) examined the reciprocity between the two and discovered that job satisfaction does impact organizational commitment, but the greater impact lies with the influence of organizational commitment on job satisfaction. Considering the potential for reciprocity between organizational commitment and job satisfaction, it could be reasoned that a significant relationship between one of the variables and the administrators’ gender would indicate a significant relationship between the other and gender. The building administrator sets the tone, positive or negative, that ripples throughout the school.
environment. The question remains if the gender of the administrator impacts that tone.

**Contributing Factors**

Educators who experience higher levels of job satisfaction will demonstrate higher levels of job performance. Factors that influence the level of job satisfaction in education are extensive. Professional development opportunities, collaboration, teacher autonomy, and empowerment are among the list of contributing factors (Bogler, 2001; Pearson & Moomaw, 2005). Crossman and Harris (2006) identified contributing factors as the following categories: (a) environmental, (b) psychological, and (c) demographic.

Environmental factors related to the overall work environment have a profound impact on teachers’ job satisfaction; leadership behavior strongly influences that environment (Crossman & Harris, 2006; Rowland, 2008). Leaders characterized with transformational leadership styles have been found to have more effective forms of leadership, thus having a positive influence on subordinates’ job satisfaction (Embry et al., 2008; Kouzes & Posner, 2007; Liebman, Maldonado, Lacey, & Thompson, 2005; Nir & Kranot, 2006). Both direct and indirect effects between transformational leadership styles and teachers’ satisfaction were shown in a study conducted by Bogler (2001). The indirect effects were discovered with the statistically significant positive relationship between teachers’ occupational perceptions and teachers’ satisfaction (Bogler, 2001). These relationships were affirmed in a later study by Nir and Kranot (2006) in which teachers’ job satisfaction and personal teacher efficacy were also statistically correlated with transformational leadership styles among the 755 participating teachers. Chen et al. (2010) found that employees have the same job satisfaction, regardless of gender, when
transformational leadership practices were utilized. However, when transactional leadership styles were used, job satisfaction was based on gender.

Teachers’ perceptions of the administrator’s leadership style are significantly correlated to job satisfaction, increasing when the administrator is perceived to be more transformational (Bogler, 2001). Effective principals cultivate a professional community in which teachers feel a collective responsibility toward the success of the organization. Job satisfaction is increased when there are established learning communities based on collegiality and when deliberate steps are taken to empower teachers. Empowering teachers will build an educational environment where all participants feel they make a contribution toward the attainment of shared goals and are not afraid to take risks (DuFour, DuFour, Eaker, & Many, 2006; Ferriter & Graham, 2010; Liebman et al., 2005; Reeves, 2009). Leaders who implement transformational leadership styles shape environments that are more conducive to positive job experiences resulting in enhanced satisfaction for subordinates (Bogler, 2001; Nir & Kranot, 2006).

Psychological factors pertain to individual personalities, attitudes, and sense of self-efficacy. Bogler’s (2001) research positively related teachers’ job satisfaction to their occupational perceptions of efficacy, esteem, autonomy, and professional development. When teachers feel valued and validated, they will have a better sense of worth and will be more excited about their work. Job satisfaction can be increased by facilitating a positive school climate that sustains productive interpersonal relationships where teachers work together in an open, friendly, supportive environment (Black, 2001; Crossman & Harris, 2006; Edwards, Green, & Lyons, 2002; Hoy & Sweetland; 2000;
Pearson & Moomaw, 2005). Demographics regarding job satisfaction included the contribution of age and gender.

**Job Satisfaction and Gender**

Literature concerning the influence of demographic information such as gender and job satisfaction among teachers and administrators varies. Gender has often been reported in descriptive statistics and mentioned secondary to the actual variables of study. Studies that examined teachers and satisfaction are well represented in the literature (Bogler, 2001; Hulpsia et al., 2009; Korkmaz, 2007; Pearson & Moomaw, 2005).

Throughout the years of research, contrasting results have been identified. Among 745 survey respondents, Bogler (2001) revealed female teachers were more satisfied than male teachers; however, Crossman and Harris (2006) specifically investigated teachers’ gender and job satisfaction and found no significant difference for gender among the 233 teachers who responded to a job satisfaction survey. Indicative of the predominant number of females in the educational profession, the majority of respondents (64%) were female, but male teachers were slightly more satisfied (Crossman & Harris, 2006). As Xu (2008) examined gender disparities within the discipline of science, technology, engineering, and mathematics (STEM), it was discovered that work environment satisfaction was a better predictor for job retention of female teachers than for males.

Present in the literature were studies that explored the relationship of the administrator’s gender and job satisfaction (Eckman, 2004; Sodoma & Else, 2009). Sodoma and Else (2009) examined over a six year span overall job satisfaction and job satisfaction according to gender of school principals. Surveys were administered to
principals, and a stratified random sample of 300 respondents was attained in 1999 and again in 2005. Results indicated statistically significant differences in overall job satisfaction and in job satisfaction between males and females. Respondents were more satisfied in 2005, and male respondents were more satisfied than females in both years of study (Sodoma & Else, 2009). In contrast, Eckman (2004) combined quantitative and qualitative data from surveys and interviews to examine the similarities and differences between male and female secondary principals. She discovered equal satisfaction results between males and females. Male perceptions of female principals were revealed as a source of dissatisfaction among females as one female participant stated, “Control is linked to being a man. Men can control things better than women” (Eckman, 2004, p. 202).

Less obtainable were studies that investigated the potential relationship of administrators’ gender and teachers’ job satisfaction. Results from a survey of 415 administrators and teachers administered by Chen and Addi (1992) indicated that male educators strongly preferred to work under male principals. However, teachers with female principals reported more satisfaction than teachers under male principals (Chen & Addi, 1992).

The results of Chen and Addi’s 1992 study date the trend of gender perceptions that are indicative of more recent studies. In a study of 637 students from 204 four-year colleges, there were indicators that women had lower expectations, rating themselves lower than men on self-concept, emotional health, math ability, and competitiveness regardless of life experiences, and were more easily satisfied (Sax & Harper, 2007).
Women were also more likely to have feelings of being overwhelmed which could negatively impact job satisfaction (Sax & Harper, 2007). However, Crossman and Harris (2006) found no statistically significant difference among secondary school teachers related to gender and job satisfaction. Sodoma and Else (2009) found statistically significant differences in job satisfaction between male and female principals. In contrast, Eckman (2004) found equal levels of satisfaction among male and female principals. Other studies examined teacher job satisfaction and reported that a major factor was the teachers’ level of satisfaction with the building administrator (Adams, 1999; Brown & Wynn, 2009; Kormaz, 2007). It is evident that individual variables of gender and job satisfaction have been topics of interest within the educational community. Researchers have examined teachers’ gender and the relationship to job satisfaction as well as administrators’ gender and the relationship to job satisfaction (Bogler, 2001; Crossman & Harris, 2006; Eckman, 2004; Sodoma & Else, 2009; Xu, 2008). However, the influence of the gender of the leader and job satisfaction of the subordinates has not received adequate attention.

The varied results of these studies that have examined teacher job satisfaction, administrator job satisfaction, the influence of gender, and contributing factors confirmed the need for further research. This study will provide a foundation to establish a relationship between the gender of the building administrator, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment motivating further research. Awareness of relationships among the variables of interest will increase educators’ knowledge base within the educational environment. Gender is a factor in which personal identities shape the
understanding of others’ actions and awareness of that influence needs attention in the profession of education. The development of gender identity, the history of the potential impact of gender, and the understanding of the importance gender plays from childhood into adulthood will be discussed in the following theoretical framework.

**Theoretical Framework**

Throughout the course of history, there has been debate about whether gender identity is an innate natural course of development or conditional upon environmental forces (Bandura, 1986; Bem, 1981; Biswal et al., 2010; Bosacki, 2007; Bowlby, 1982; Bussey & Bandura, 1999; Campbell & Eaton, 1999; Fenson et al., 1994; Diamond, 2006; Hyde, 2005; Lenroot et al., 2007; Lent, Singley, Sheu, Brenner, Treistman, Ades, & Gainor, 2005; Levit, 1991; Miller, 2002; Sax & Harper, 2007; Vygotsky, 1978; Zamanian, 2011). Present in research are the biological assumptions that being male or female is a state that simply is (Bosacki, 2007; Bowlby, 1982; Gurian & Stevens, 2005). Other theories posit that becoming male or female is influenced through social factors and determined by exposure to role models. Theories of social learning operate on the assumption that the acquisition of gender roles occurs through observations and experiences (Bandura, 1986; Bussey & Bandura, 1999; Lent et al., 2005; Liu, Ju, & Chen, 2010; Vygotsky, 1978).

Biological gender differences cannot be negated in a study with gender as a variable of interest. The fact that men and women develop based on biological determinants of an X or Y chromosome is evidence of gender differences (Diamond, 2006). Hormone concentrations are different in the male and female brain, and magnetic
resonance imaging (MRI) indicates the presence of biological brain differences in size and volume (Biswal et al., 2010; Diamond, 2006; Gurian & Stevens, 2005; Lenroot et al., 2007). Research supports biologically attributed differences that boys are more physically active and demonstrate more spatial awareness, while girls exhibit linguistic skills at an earlier age (Campbell & Eaton, 1999; Carrier, 2009; Gurian & Stevens, 2005; Fenson et al., 1994; Hyde, 2005). Biological differences between male and female brains are also credited with decisions to control impulse behaviors and organize information, and language skills are affected by the differing chemical balances (Gurian & Stevens, 2005; Diamond, 2006).

Though statistically reliable results support biological gender differences, the magnitude of the results is often small (Campbell & Eaton, 1999; Fenson et al., 1994; Hyde, 2005). Fenson et al. (1994) discovered in their study of 659 infants and 1,130 toddlers that girls begin to talk on average one month before boys and were slightly ahead of boys in comprehending and producing words and gestures. However, the effect sizes were small, and the increased distance in linguistic abilities between boys and girls over time were attributed to cultural factors rather than biological (Fenson et al., 1994). Campbell and Eaton (1999) reported, with small effect sizes, that male infants were more active than females and attributed these early infant activity levels to biological factors. Socialization factors that may amplify gender differences were considered as possible influences of activity levels as children age (Campbell & Eaton, 1999). Carrier (2009) supported results of higher male activity levels in her study of 109 fourth and fifth grade students. Interestingly, when active learning opportunities were incorporated in the
classroom, particularly those executed outdoors, both boys and girls demonstrated higher scores (Carrier, 2009). Hyde (2005) conducted a meta-analysis to examine biological gender differences in cognition, communication, socialization, psychological well-being, and motor skills. She concluded 78% of the gender differences were small or close to zero based on Cohen’s (1988) $d$ values of small, medium, and large effect sizes (Hyde, 2005).

Gurian and Stevens (2005) identified three biological stages of the gendered brain: (a) chromosome markers at conception, (b) chromosome induced hormone surges, and (c) biological cues at birth based on genetics to family, community, and overall culture. The last stage recognizes the interconnectedness of biological and environmental factors that influence gender awareness and expectations within social constructs. A common thread among researchers who supported biological gender influences was the emphasis that gender awareness and development should no longer be considered a battle between nature and nurture (Biswal et al., 2010; Campbell & Eaton, 1999; Diamond, 2006; Eliot, 2010; Fenson et al., 1994; Gurian & Stevens, 2005; Hyde, 2005; Lenroot et al., 2007). Rather, biological gender characteristics are determined by nature and intricately interwoven through socialization processes that nurture gender awareness and expectations. The social and cultural experiences of childhood will determine how pronounced these already present biological differences become.

Vygotsky (1978) theorized that internal developmental processes emerge and are applied through interaction and cooperation with others. Children inherently come to understand themselves in terms of gender attributes they encounter within social
constructs (Vygotsky, 1978). Children’s sense of gender identity develops, socially and academically, as they learn what behaviors are expected and adjust to environmental norms. Thus, as Constantinou (2008) stated, “gender differences are not fixed and immutable” (p. 31).

Social cognitive theory of gender development combines psychological and socio-structural determinants to define gender role development and functioning. Personal factors, behavior patterns, and environmental factors interact in a model known as triadic reciprocal causation that influences gender development. Environmental structures include the imposed, selected, and constructed environments. Modeling is considered a powerful means of transmitting values, attitudes, and patterns of behavior. Enactive experiences promote gender-linked conduct through exposure to people and social systems. Direct tuition provides a means to infer socially acceptable behavior. Social cognitive views maintain people are self-organizing, proactive, self-reflective, and self-regulating (Bandura, 1986; Bussey & Bandura, 1999; Lent et al., 2005). Gendered behavior and expectations are formed through gender specific behavior rules and experiences. The formulated rules and socially constructed behavior norms will later influence society’s gender expectations within the professional environment (Bussey & Bandura, 1999; Lent et al., 2005). Social cognitive theory emphasizes the importance of perceived self-efficacy, gender beliefs related to capabilities to perform and overcome failures, as well as self-regulation, or decisions to engage in self-satisfactory behavior (Bussey & Bandura, 1999).
The idea of perceived self-efficacy described within social cognitive theory was tested by Betz and Hackett (1981) resulting in evidence that supported gender differences for career options and abilities to perform job duties. The study analyzed 20 different occupations for men and women in which both genders were considered equal in ability. Men were significantly more likely to report higher self-efficacy for traditional and non-traditional occupations than women, thus limiting career options in which women felt capable (Betz & Hackett, 1981). The results of Betz and Hackett’s (1981) study supports the background of the current study that women may be hesitant to enter educational administration or be accepted as educational leaders, which has historically been viewed as male dominant (Betz & Hackett, 1981; Eckman, 2004). Lent et al. (2005) used social cognitive theory as a model to support that life satisfaction could be predicted by social cognitive variables and that degrees of self-efficacy are determined by goal related progress and outcome expectations. It can be deduced for the purposes of the current study that if the theory holds true for influencing life satisfaction based on outcome expectations, it could also be true within the organizational work environment in relation to job satisfaction. The importance of social cognitive theory may not be recognizable until gendered behavior becomes inconsistent with those expectations formulated through environmental structures and modeling, enactive experiences, and direct tuition modes of influence (Embry et al., 2008).

Similarly, socio-cultural theory holds that social and cultural forces contribute to gender identity and sense of self (Frawley, 2008; Vygotsky, 1978). Socio-cultural theory proclaims gender differences are in part socially constructed and attributed to the
existence of innate factors. It intertwines biological and cultural forces of gender identity development and self-regulating factors (Kruger, 2008; Miller, 2002; Vygotsky, 1978). Kommer (2006) reported that gender differences are a function of biological forces but are also shaped by the environment. Biological influences are mediated by cultural forces and interactions within the culture. Gendered skills are learned as they are valued by the culture through observation and subsequent interactions. Development is the result of joint operational forces between child and environment. Paechter (2006) explained that boys and girls develop understanding of being male and female through physical and cultural produced norms established within their local communities. Socio-cultural theory relies on the zone of proximal development, the distance between actual independent development level and potential guided development level. Functional systems of an adult are shaped by prior experiences, specifically social aspects (Vygotsky, 1978). The representation of socially constructed gender expectations and importance of social support from adults and peers were illustrated in research conducted by Rueger, Malecki, and Demaray (2010). Longitudinal relationships were consistently significant for girls for all groups of social support, but less so for boys; support from peers emerged as the most significant indicator for male outcomes (Rueger et al., 2010). Socially gendered pathways of development in which adolescents construct meaning were supported through research conducted by McLean and Breen (2009) in which narrative skills for boys and girls were analyzed. The study confirmed expectations that girls are socially expected to be more relational, resulting in society’s tendency to reinforce linguistic skills for girls more frequently than boys (McLean & Breen, 2009).
The socio-cultural approach emphasizes cultural and environmental factors of nurture as opposed to nature (Miller, 2002). Gender related experiences of childhood form adult gender perceptions and expectations, which provides the foundation of interpreting professional interactions of job satisfaction and organizational commitment in the current study.

Social cognitive theory and socio-cultural theory explain the need for the current study as the differences between teachers’ mean job satisfaction scores based on the administrators’ gender are explored and the relationship between the administrators’ gender and teachers’ organizational commitment is examined. The presence of gender differences and the associated gender expectations for leaders within the professional organization are shaped by the principle ideas presented in these theories. Vygotsky (1978) stated, “We shall call the first structures elementary; they are psychological wholes, conditioned chiefly by biological determinants. The latter structures which emerge in the process of cultural development are called higher structures” (p. 124). Biological gender differences are recognized, but the way in which the culture and environment determine perceptions of those differences can be influenced through social interactions and the underlying, often unintended, gender expectations that may influence job satisfaction and organizational commitment. The work environment may be influenced by the gender stereotypes that are created based on the expectations of what it means to incorporate male or female qualities into daily interactions. The theories were tested based upon the interpretation of results in regards to the presence of differences
indicative that teachers were satisfied and committed in their jobs when the administrator was male or female.

**Gender Stereotypes**

Good leadership is often characterized as the idea of being strong, which is characterized as masculine. The idea of a strong woman can conflict with social norms of male and female gender traits resulting in gender stereotypes (Kruger, 2008). Stereotypical beliefs about gender may influence perceptions of effective leadership practices and influence job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Gender stereotypes are public beliefs about social roles of males and females (Clarke & Labbo, 2005). They often include attitudes characterized by traits and activities considered appropriate for men and women (Clarke & Labbo, 2005).

**Children**

Gender role stereotypes begin in infancy when gender identity is represented by dressing boys in blue and girls in pink (Clarke & Labbo, 2005). As students enter school, they begin to read stories where boys engage in dominant masculine roles and girls are portrayed as all things nice. Adolescence is a period of time where gender is a much more salient identifier and made more difficult by media and peer pressures (Clarke & Labbo, 2005). Inconsistencies exist in determining the effect of gender differences in social and academic performance. Education is hampered based on the magnitude of the child’s stereotyped attitude (Frawley, 2008). Often, students misrepresent learned information as a result of stereotyped beliefs rather than fact. Distortion of information not considered gender typical is common (Frawley, 2008).
Gender expectations and the prevalence of gender stereotypes in society continue to hinder the social and academic success of boys and girls. Researchers have dedicated attention to the influence of gender in the classroom (Carrier, 2009; Eliot, 2010; Gurian & Stevens, 2005; Rueger, Malecki, & Demaray, 2010; Smith & Hung, 2008). The presence of an achievement gap has been the topic of study for many researchers, and the direction of the gap has fluctuated between girls and boys. The passage of Title IX in 1972 demonstrated the concern for equitable treatment of females (Constantinou, 2008).

Much research has been dedicated to girls underperforming in math and science and to boys struggling in language skills development (Clark, Thompson, & Vialle, 2008; Sanford, 2006). More recent studies have focused on the increasing number of females outperforming males in academic studies and social development (Blackhurst & Auger, 2008; King, Gurian, & Stevens, 2010). Girls seem to be more likely to have a relational conception of school environment strengthening communication skills. Both genders are likely to succumb to self-fulfilling prophecy when it is known they are not expected to achieve in certain subjects. Negative gender stereotypes adversely affect intellectual performance (Carrier, 2009; Jones & Riley, 2007).

Boys and girls are socialized by family, teachers, media, and peers. They are encouraged and discouraged by observing others and receiving reinforcement of “maleness” or “femaleness.” Studies have evidenced that girls are talkative and cooperative; boys are competitive and physical (Kommer, 2006). Kommer also found boys were told not to show emotions and girls were driven to judge themselves relative to perceptions of the opposite gender. When given the opportunity to choose activities,
boys chose active competitive games where leadership roles were established in play. Girls chose to walk and talk with female peers (Jones & Riley, 2007; Kommer, 2006).

**Adults**

Gender stereotypes continue into adulthood where masculinity is often defined in direct opposition to femininity (Check, 2002). An ethnographic case study of college faculty conducted by Lester (2008) resulted in three main themes regarding gender role development: (a) participants had established gender roles prior to acquiring faculty positions, (b) socialization norms within the organizational contexts were integral in understanding gender in the workplace, and (c) gender performance was negotiated based on gender role expectations. The perspectives learned in childhood and throughout adolescence shape adults’ expectations and perceptions of male and female leaders. Stereotyped beliefs can influence sense-making mechanisms about effective leadership. Aggressiveness and assertiveness in men were praised while women who demonstrated the same characteristics were viewed negatively (Celikten, 2010; Grisoni & Beeby, 2007; Sax & Harper, 2007). It becomes increasingly important that women be observed in positions of authority to neutralize gender expectations in educational leadership which has been historically considered masculine in nature (Anastasaki & Koutra, 2005). More awareness related to gender issues will lessen the overall effects that negatively influence an educational environment. Gendered behavior exhibited by leaders, as well as gender stereotypes, influence leadership and perceptions of leadership.
Leadership and Gender

Research abounds in the literature regarding characteristics of effective leadership (Bennis & Goldsmith, 2003; Hackman & Johnson, 2009; Kouzes & Posner, 2011; Marzano, 2003; Maxwell, 2002; Maxwell, 2004; Reina & Reina, 1999). Consistently prevalent are studies that examine whether certain traits, gender related or not, are more conducive to leadership emergence (Drath et al., 2008; Judge, Bono, Ilies, & Gerhardt, 2002; Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991; Kouzes & Posner, 2011). Thomas Carlyle’s (2006) Great Man Theory is one of the most popular theories linking gender and leadership with heroic masculine traits stating, “Great Men taken up in any way are profitable company” (p. 1) and “He is the living light-fountain, which it is good and pleasant to be near” (p. 2). Other studies focused more on specific leadership traits such as the six traits identified by Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991) that are conducive to effective leadership: drive, desire to lead, integrity, self-confidence, cognitive ability, and knowledge of the business. The qualitative review of the literature dating from 1959 to 1999 that Judge et al. (2002) conducted produced no trait other than self-confidence that related to leadership emergence. Through subsequent meta-analysis research procedures, Judge et al. (2002) discovered that extraversion was the most consistently and significantly related leadership trait related to leadership effectiveness. It is evident that characteristics of effective leadership have been a topic of interest among researchers for many years and will continue to attract attention. The masculine nature and history of leadership theories, such as Carlyle’s (2006) Great Man Theory, that coincide with stereotypical gendered
traits are influential sources of society’s perceptions of leadership, particularly in education as female leaders continue to emerge.

The increase in female attainment of administrative educational positions aligns with the more prevalent research regarding female leaders as opposed to males. The majority of literature related to gender and educational leadership pertained to female aspirations and variables that may influence or impede successful acquisition of leadership positions (Adams & Hambright, 2004; Banuelos, 2008; Celikten, 2010; Lawson, 2008; Lester, 2008; Meier & Wilkins, 2002; Reis, Young, & Jury, 1999; Reynolds, White, Brayman, & Moore, 2008; Trombley, 2003; Voydanoff, 2005). The ability for a female leader to maintain a balance between work and family has been a popular topic of research interest (Lawson, 2008; Trombley, 2003; Voydanoff, 2005). Research related to women and gender bias, including salary discrepancies, in higher education and superintendent positions have also been examined (Banuelos, 2008; Lester, 2008; Meier & Wilkins, 2002). Attitudes toward women leaders in education and whether they are adequately encouraged to pursue leadership positions have been given attention among researchers (Adams & Hambright, 2004; Celikten, 2010; Reis, Young, & Jury, 1999; Reynolds, White, Brayman, & Moore, 2008). Absent in the literature were studies specifically dedicated to men and variables that may contribute to or negate male leadership ability. The absence of studies dedicated to male leadership practices specifically coincides with the idea that female leaders in education are a new phenomenon in need of further exploration. As more females enter educational
leadership positions, common perceptions and expectations of male and female
leadership capacities will gain importance in education.

Perceptions and attitudes toward men and women were an integral component
within educational organizations. A disproportionate ratio of female to male
administrators compared to female to male teachers is present in education (Celikten,
2010; Reynolds, White, Brayman, & Moore, 2008). The contradiction is attributed to a
stereotyped idea that men are superior to women in leadership positions (Celikten, 2010;
Glazer, 1990). Gender expectations fostered throughout life experiences may influence
the attitudes used to evaluate positive or negative feelings toward building administrators.

Research is not clear whether teachers experience higher levels of organizational
commitment and satisfaction based upon the gender of the administrator. Evident was
the need for further research to fill in the gaps of how a gendered society influences
leadership in education, especially considering the increased presence of women in
leadership positions (Eckman, 2004).

Interpreting the effects of leadership based on gender is not necessarily an
intentional practice, which demonstrates a need for further study to raise gender
conducted a study in which respondents consistently believed and stated gender did not
contribute to succession in leadership, but actions within the organization spoke
differently. Results of the study determined that gender, as well as ethnicity and race,
were frequently taken into consideration.
Leadership Styles

Many differences exist between gender roles of males and females that influence leadership style characteristics. Female leaders displayed strong servant-leadership skills, more frequently applied emotions of care and concern when finding solutions to various dilemmas, and were more attuned to interpersonal relationships (Eckman, 2004; Fridell, Belcher, & Messner, 2009; Rucinski & Bauch, 2006). Christman and McClellan (2008) found that male leaders demonstrated perseverance and were consistently described as being driven with a sense of having to succeed and failure not being an option. Both males and females were described as optimistic, excited about responsibility, and derived feelings of satisfaction with teaching and scholarship (Christman & McClellan, 2008). Females were believed to be more likely to demonstrate shared leadership practices whereas male counterparts were more likely to determine answers with the attitude of “this is how it’s going to be” (Eckman, 2004, p. 203). Descriptors for female leaders included flexible, non-confrontational, interactional, and more participatory, while male leaders were described as transactional, task-oriented, commanding, and controlling. Women were also characterized as intuitive, collegial, nurturing, and emotionally responsive (Hackman & Johnson, 2009; Meier, O’Toole, & Goerdel, 2006; Reynolds et al., 2008). Grisoni and Beeby (2007) differentiated between men and women based upon skill sets, labeling men as exploring, interacting, and processing and women as managing, facilitating, and influencing. Men were often rated more favorably when differences in behavior were controlled for, especially in roles considered male-dominate (Avolio, Mhatre, Norman, & Lester, 2009).
Transformational leadership qualities, considered more effective than other leadership styles, are often aligned with female leadership qualities of encouragement, optimism, relationship building, and providing opportunities for educational growth and professionalism (Chen et al., 2010; Embry et al., 2008; Kouzes & Posner, 2007; Nguni, Sleegers, & Denessen, 2006). Embry et al. (2008) found that men could more easily use leadership styles inconsistent to gender expectations than women. However, it was concluded the reason was that leadership styles considered feminine, such as transformational, were preferred over the more masculine styles considered transactional. Much of the research regarding leadership styles has taken place within the private sector rather than the educational profession. Additionally, the majority of participants in the above mentioned studies were male, which indicates a need for further study within the educational environment where women outnumber men (Andrews & Ridenour, 2006; Lawson, 2008).

**Summary**

Research is not clear whether teachers experience higher levels of organizational commitment and satisfaction based upon the gender of the administrator. The need for further research is evident to fill the gaps of how a gendered society, intentional or not, influences perceptions of leadership, specifically in education, especially if women are going to continue to increase in leadership positions (Eckman, 2004; Reynolds et al., 2008). Gender rules affect how men and women are treated and perceived within an organization, particularly in leadership positions (Avolio et al., 2009; Eckman, 2004; Embry et al., 2008; Reynolds et al., 2008). The number of women seeking leadership
positions will continually increase and gender expectations perceived by teachers will undoubtedly influence levels of job satisfaction and organizational commitment. This study examined if there was indeed a difference between teachers’ mean job satisfaction scores based on the administrator’s gender and if there was a relationship between teachers’ organizational commitment plans in education and the administrator’s gender. Results of the study will assist higher educational organizations with evidence of the need for gender awareness training within leadership programs and increase gender awareness issues within the educational environment. The alignment of leadership positions in education with positions in other professional environments was also a contribution of the study.
CHAPER THREE: METHODOLOGY

Introduction

Job satisfaction and organizational commitment influence the work environment; administrators have different leadership characteristics that contribute to teachers’ satisfaction and commitment levels (Afolabi et al., 2008; Chen et al., 2010; Fridell, Belcher, & Messner, 2009). The question remained if the administrator’s gender, within an educational environment, influenced satisfaction and commitment. As such, this quantitative causal-comparative study sought to determine if a statistically significant difference existed for teachers’ job satisfaction based on the gender of the building administrator and if a statistically significant relationship existed between the administrators’ gender and teachers’ organizational commitment in Tennessee middle schools.

The components of this chapter include a discussion of the methodology used to implement the proposed study. The participants, setting, data collection instruments, research design, procedures, and analyses are discussed in detail. The research questions that guided the study were (a) Is there a statistically significant difference in Tennessee middle school teachers’ job satisfaction based on the gender of the building administrator? and (b) Does a statistically significant relationship exist between Tennessee middle school teachers’ organizational commitment plans in education and the gender of the building administrator?
Participants and Setting

Teachers from a stratified random sample of 85 middle schools with female administrators and 85 middle schools with male administrators was used in this study ($N = 170$). Administrators are defined as building level principals. The schools were identified from the 77% of Tennessee middle schools that achieved the response rate criteria of 50% or better on the Teaching, Empowering, Leading and Learning (TELL) Tennessee Survey (Tennessee Department of Education, September 2011). Each school had at least five responses to the survey. The number of respondents ranged from 5 to 73 ($M = 34.56$) and are reported in Table 4.1. The TELL Survey was available online from February 14, 2011 to March 11, 2011 to all Tennessee schools. Each school was given an access code so that the data could be connected with the school. Administrators and teachers voluntarily and anonymously completed separate surveys. Respondents to the survey included 10,453 Tennessee middle school teachers from 276 schools. Middle schools where the administrator had not been in position for three or more years were excluded from the study since change factors could influence satisfaction and commitment levels and be inconsistently represented. After those schools were excluded, the sample population was 205. There were 92 schools in the female strata and 113 in the male strata. A random number generator was utilized to obtain the stratified randomly selected schools to participate in the study.

Table 3.1 outlines the descriptive statistics for demographics of the sample. Grade levels taught in the 170 participating schools included schools with grades Pre-Kindergarten through eighth, schools consisting of only sixth grade, and schools with
grades seventh and eighth. Frequencies for grade levels taught are summarized in Table 3.2. This table illustrates that the largest number of the participating schools consisted of grades six through eight, \( n = 110 \). Collective demographic information, summarized in Table 3.3, regarding Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP) status for all 170 participating Tennessee middle schools indicated that the majority of schools are considered as Good Standing, \( n = 59 \). Fifty-seven schools have been identified as target schools. A school gains Target status beginning the second year after the first year of not making AYP.
Table 3.1

**Demographic Information for Participating Middle Schools (N = 170)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic Group</th>
<th>Range</th>
<th>M</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Respondents</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female Students</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>629</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male Students</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>690</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>African American Students</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1135</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Native American Students</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian Students</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>128</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hispanic Students</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>406</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White Students</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1165</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economic Disadvantaged Students</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>999</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.2

**Frequencies of Grade Levels Taught in Participating Middle Schools (N = 170)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade Levels Taught</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grades 4-6</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grades PK4-8</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grades 4-8</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grades 5-7</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grades 5-8</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 6</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grades 6-7</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grades PK6-8</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grades 6-8</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grades 6-9</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grades 7-8</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>170</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3.3

Frequencies of AYP Status for Participating Tennessee Middle Schools (N = 170)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AYP Status</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No Data</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good Standing</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Target</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School Improvement 1</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School Improvement 2</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corrective Action</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Restructuring 1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Restructuring 2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>170</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Individual responses from teachers from the 170 schools were used for data analysis, N = 5,822. Ethnicity, age, and teachers’ gender were not reported within the TELL survey instrument. The average number years’ experience as an educator was seven to ten years, and the average number of years in the current teaching position was four to six years. Due to the large sample size, 1,068 cases with missing data were eliminated. Cases with extreme outliers, those above the critical value for Mahalanobis distance analysis, were also deleted, n = 37. A total of 4,717 cases were used for MANOVA data analyses.

Instrumentation

The Teaching, Empowering, Leading and Learning (TELL) Tennessee Survey was designed to measure perceptions of licensed school-based educators about teaching, leading, and learning conditions in Tennessee schools (New Teacher Center, June 2011). For the purposes of this study, it provided a measure for teachers’ job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Leadership items (teacher, school) and instructional
practices and support items were analyzed to determine teachers’ level of job satisfaction. The following question was used to assess teachers’ organizational commitment plans in education: “Which of the following best describes your immediate professional plans?” It had six choices, including (a) Continue teaching at my current school; (b) Continue teaching in this district, but leave this school; (c) Continue teaching in this state, but leave this district; (d) Continue working in education, but pursue an administrative position; (e) Continue working in education, but pursue a non-administrative position; and (f) Leave education entirely (see Table 3.4).

The survey, previously known as the Teaching and Learning Conditions Survey, was first developed in 2002 under the North Carolina Professional Teaching Standards Commission (NCPTSC) to determine conditions of teacher dissatisfaction and factors that contributed to teacher mobility. It was derived from national data results from the National Center for Education Statistics’ School and Staffing Survey. The survey was expanded from 39 questions to 72 questions in 2004 and has since developed into several iterations of Teaching and Learning Conditions Surveys across multiple states. Questions have been added, deleted, and altered to address particular issues of the specific state using the survey. The survey was designed around eight research-based constructs: time, facilities and resources, community support and involvement, managing student conduct, teacher leadership, school leadership, professional development, and instructional practices and support (Tennessee Department of Education, September 2011). The TELL Tennessee survey was available to all Tennessee schools and allowed teachers the opportunity to express perceptions of teaching and learning environments. The
information gleaned from the survey equips stakeholders with the evidence to make
decisions that provide a foundation for school improvement efforts, support teachers, and
conditions at the school level are highly predictive of an individual teacher’s intentions to
leave a school, with the perceived quality of school leadership the most salient factor” (p.
31).

Validity and reliability were established by Swanlund for the TELL Tennessee
Survey (Tennessee Department of Education, September 2011). Validity was established
by psychometric analysis from 400,000 educators within 5,000 schools across 12
different United States sites. It was determined the survey reliably measured the TELL
constructs; the four-point rating scale (Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Agree, and Strongly
Agree) was in alignment with strict diagnostic criteria. Comparing results across states or
districts should be executed with caution, carefully giving appropriate attention to local
contexts. The TELL Tennessee Survey was considered a robust tool for use in measuring
teaching and learning conditions (Tennessee Department of Education, September 2011).

A 10-factor analysis model, considering Facilities and Resources and Instructional
Practices and Support as two separate constructs, yielded the greatest proportion in total
variance, 65%. When the number of factors was set at eight, analysis resulted in 63% of
the variance. The original eight constructs were used for reporting validity and
reliability. Cronbach’s alphas are consistently used as a method for establishing
reliability (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2007); Cronbach’s alpha coefficients of .70 are generally
considered acceptable (Green & Salkind, 2011). Each of the eight constructs under study
produced Cronbach’s alphas results deemed reliable, or above .83 (Tennessee Department of Education, September 2011).

Internal consistency estimates of reliability were calculated for each scale using Cronbach’s coefficient alpha. Cronbach’s coefficient alpha for the two scales used in this study, school and teacher leadership, and instructional practice and support subscales, were .94 and .83, respectively (Tennessee Department of Education, September 2011). In the present study, school and teacher leadership, and instructional practice subscales had Cronbach’s alpha values of .94 and .73.

For the purposes of this study, the eighteen items pertaining to leadership (see Tables 3.5) and the five items pertaining to instructional practices and support (see Table 3.6) were used to measure teachers’ job satisfaction in relation to the gender of the building administrator. Research supported using these two constructs to measure job satisfaction. Teachers were more satisfied and committed to the organization when they were provided adequate resources and support from the administrator. Teachers were more likely to remain, not only in the profession but in the same building, when they were engaged in continued learning and development, informed and included in shared decision making (Brown & Wynn, 2009; Denton, 2009). Each question was measured with a five-point scale (1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Agree, 4 = Strongly Agree, and 5 = Don’t Know) (Tennessee Department of Education, September 2011). Participant responses indicated the response that best reflected their feelings about statements such as “Teachers are recognized as educational experts,” Teachers are trusted to make sound professional decisions about instruction,” and “Teachers are encouraged to
participate in school leadership roles” (Tennessee Department of Education, September 2011). The archived data from the TELL Survey were reported as percentages and higher scores, representing a stronger sense of job satisfaction or organizational commitment, which negated the “Don’t Know” category. In alignment with the original validity of the instrument that reliably measured the TELL constructs on a four-point scale, the “Don’t Know” category equal to five was recoded to zero so that the mean scores would accurately reflect high degrees of satisfaction or commitment based on the raw data rather than percentages. Scores on the leadership scale ranged from 0-72, and the instructional practices and support ranged from 0-20.

Table 3.4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers’ Organizational Commitment to Remain in Current School Construct</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Which of the following best describes your immediate professional plans? (Select one)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Continue teaching at my current school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Continue teaching in this district, but leave this school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Continue teaching in this state, but leave this district</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Continue working in education, but pursue an administrative position</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Continue working in education, but pursue a non-administrative position</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leave education entirely</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* Adapted from the Tennessee Teaching, Empowering, Leading and Learning (TELL) Tennessee Survey (Tennessee Department of Education, December 2011).
Table 3.5

*Leadership Constructs for Teachers’ Job Satisfaction*

Please rate how strongly you agree or disagree with the following statements about school leadership in your school. (Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Agree, Strongly Agree, Don’t Know)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Rating</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The faculty and leadership have a shared vision.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There is an atmosphere of trust and mutual respect.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers feel comfortable raising issues and concerns that are important to them.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The school leadership consistently supports teachers.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher performance is assessed objectively.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers receive feedback that can help them improve teaching.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The procedures for teacher evaluation are consistent.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The school improvement team provides effective leadership at this school.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The faculty is recognized for accomplishments.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers are recognized as educational experts.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers are trusted to make sound professional decisions about instruction.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers are relied upon to make decisions about educational issues.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers are encouraged to participate in school leadership roles.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The faculty has an effective process for making group decisions to solve problems.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In this school we take steps to solve problems.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers are effective leaders in this school.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers have an appropriate level of influence on decision making in this school.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers have autonomy to make decisions about instructional delivery (i.e. pacing, materials and pedagogy).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* Adapted from the Tennessee Teaching, Empowering, Leading and Learning (TELL) Tennessee Survey (Tennessee Department of Education, December 2011).
Table 3.6

*Instructional Practices and Support Constructs for Teachers’ Job Satisfaction*

Please rate how strongly you agree or disagree with the following statements about instructional practices and support in your school. (Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Agree, Strongly Agree, Don’t Know)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Rating</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>State assessment data are available in time to impact instructional practices.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Local assessment data are available in time to impact instructional practices.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers in this school use assessment data to inform their instruction.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers work in professional learning communities to develop and align instructional practices.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provided supports (i.e. instructional coaching, professional learning communities, etc.) translate to improvements in instructional practices by teachers.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* Adapted from the Tennessee Teaching, Empowering, Leading and Learning (TELL) Tennessee Survey (Tennessee Department of Education, December 2011).

**Procedures**

The appropriate application process for approval from IRB to conduct the study was followed (see Appendix A). Though the survey results were public information and available online, the necessary contact information was retrieved from the Tennessee Department of Education website, and the department representative was personally contacted by phone and notified of the intent to use the TELL Survey data. Raw data for the survey was also requested and received from the New Teacher Center (NTC).

The New Teacher Center (NTC) was contracted to assist the state of Tennessee in administering the anonymous web-based survey and provide results and summaries of questions in report formats. NTC was contacted by email to obtain the necessary data information, including analyses for validity and reliability measures, all of which were available to the public online. An email attachment in the form of a type-written letter specifically outlining the information needed to conduct the study was sent to the NTC.
representative (see Appendix B). Since schools where the principal had been in position for less than three years were excluded, NTC was asked to provide the number of middle schools that met the initial response criteria of 50% response rate with at least five responses and principals in place for three or more years. I asked NTC to divide the schools to ensure there were no violations of anonymity. Data were not divided based on the eliminating criteria as the NTC representative indicated the survey did not include information pertaining to the administrators’ gender. Schools that completed the survey were assured anonymity by receiving individual access codes for each teacher that connected them to the school with no identifying information. Administrators were also given individual access codes and assured there was no way of connecting any school with a specific administrator. Thus, the representative at NTC provided data for all 276 Tennessee middle schools that completed the surveys and met the response criteria (Tennessee Department of Education, December 2011).

The same letter attachment was emailed to the representative at the Tennessee Department of Education to obtain information not available through NTC (see Appendix C). This information included the gender of the building administrator and years of service in the particular administrative position at the time the TELL survey was administered. The state department was unable to provide the data pertaining to the administrators’ gender or number of years in that administrative position, as it was not a component addressed in the TELL Survey.

When the Tennessee Department of Education was not able to provide needed information about building administrators’ gender and length of term, I explored
individual school websites. Through this exploration, I was able to gather the desired data or gain contact information. I then contacted through email correspondence school districts (see Appendix D) as well as individual schools (see Appendix E). The information for the remaining schools was attained through the archived Tennessee state report cards available on the Tennessee Department of Education website (Tennessee Department of Education, December 2011).

Adequately Yearly Progress (AYP) status and demographic information for the identified schools and districts, consisting of student population and diversity, was gathered from the Tennessee Department of Education website, specifically the Tennessee report card (Tennessee Department of Education, December 2011). A stratified random sample, \( N = 170 \), based on the gender of the school administrator, female \( (n = 85) \) and male \( (n = 85) \), was selected from the total population of schools that met the response criteria for reporting results, a 50% response rate with at least five responses, excluding the schools where the principal had been in position less than three years. Of the 276 schools with reported data, 69 were excluded due to the principal not having been in position for three or more years, and two were excluded due to a single gendered student body. The schools were then divided into two separate lists containing the 92 schools with female principals on one list and the 113 schools with male principals on the other. Stratified random sampling allowed for a proportionally representative sample to increase generalizability of the results. A random number generator was used to select 85 schools with female administrators and 85 schools with male administrators to include in the study (Gall et al., 2007).
After careful examination of the survey instrument and reviewing the related literature, instrument constructs that pertain to job satisfaction were identified. The procedure was repeated for constructs that addressed organizational commitment. The specific constructs were represented in table formats after receiving confirmation that the information was not copyrighted (see Appendix F). Survey data for the stratified random sample were exported into Excel spreadsheets to ease the process of loading data into Version 18.0 of SPSS for Windows (Green & Salkind, 2011) software program, as well as assuring safeguarding procedures for access to the archived data. The data were then analyzed, results were reported, and I rejected or failed to reject the null hypotheses.

**Research Design**

A non-experimental, causal-comparative design was used in this quantitative study to examine whether a difference in teachers’ mean job satisfaction scores existed based on the gender of the school administrator and explore the relationship between administrators’ gender and teachers’ organizational commitment. The scope of study did not include causation of any variables upon the other; rather it was to explore if differences existed in the dependent variables based on the independent variable. The study did not manipulate variables as it was impossible to manipulate the independent variable of gender. The examination of the variables in relation to each other was a relatively new field due to the increasingly disproportionate number of females in education resulting in an inevitable increase of female administrators. Causal-comparative research design was thus appropriate for such exploratory studies in which results could provide a foundation for more definitive experimental research design (Gall
Data Analysis

Multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) procedures were used to examine the difference in teachers’ mean job satisfaction scores based on the gender of the building administrator. The MANOVA is a parametric test conducive to determining the differences across multiple dependent variables and is most effective when the dependent variables are at least moderately correlated (Field, 2009).

As a parametric test utilizing samples larger than 30, MANOVA procedures are robust when minor violations of assumptions are present (Cohen, 1988; Field, 2009). The primary assumptions for MANOVA procedures are the assumptions of normality, equal variances, random sampling, independence, extreme outliers, singularity, and multicollinearity (Field, 2009; Green & Salkind, 2011). Preliminary analyses to test assumptions included ensuring a randomly drawn sample through stratified random sampling. The assumption of normality for each variable was evaluated using histograms and box plots followed by the Kolmogorov-Smirnov with Lilliefors’s corrections test since the sample size was larger than 50 (Howell, 2011). Scatter plots were examined to determine linearity. The assumption of the homogeneity of covariance was based on $p > .001$ and measured by Box’s Test of Equality (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The variables were measured independently of each other to meet the assumption of independence. The potential for Type I and Type II errors were reduced by achieving an appropriate level of power, .80 or above. A stratified (male administrators, female administrators) random sample of 170 ($n = 85, n = 85$) participant schools, consisting of 5,822 teacher
responses, was appropriate to achieve the desired .80 power level (Cohen, 1988).

An alpha level of .05 separated statistically significant findings from non-significant findings. If the significance level was less than or equal to alpha, the null hypothesis was rejected, and results of the study were considered statistically significant (Cohen, 1988). The effect size and strength and magnitude of the association was reported using eta square as it corresponds to Cohen’s $d$ criteria of .01 for small, .06 for medium, and .14 for large effect (Cohen, 1988).

Chi-square analysis, specifically chi-square test for independence, was used to examine the strength of a relationship between teachers’ organizational commitment plans in education and the gender of the building administrator. Contingency tables are used to determine if variables, or attributes of those variables, are contingent, related, or associated to each other (Cohen, 1988). The chi-square analysis is a nonparametric test conducive to data that is reported in frequencies or observation counts across two or more categories (Howell, 2011). Teachers’ organizational commitment plans in education included six categories: (a) Continue teaching at my current school; (b) Continue teaching in this district, but leave this school; (c) Continue teaching in this state, but leave this district; (d) Continue working in education, but pursue an administrative position; (e) Continue working in education, but pursue a non-administrative position; and (f) Leave education entirely.

As a nonparametric test, chi-square procedures are relatively free of assumptions (Cohen, 1988; Field, 2009). The two primary assumptions for chi-square analyses are the assumptions of independence and expected frequencies larger than five (Field, 2009;
Green & Salkind, 2011). Preliminary analyses to test assumptions included ensuring a randomly drawn sample through stratified random sampling. The assumption of utilizing raw frequencies with no cell less than five was met (Howell, 2011).

The chi-square distribution was determined by the degrees of freedom within the contingency tables, \( df = (r-1)*(c-1) \) in which \( r \) was the number of rows and \( c \) was the number of columns (Howell, 2011). The value of Pearson’s chi-square was analyzed to determine the statistical significance of relationships between variables. An alpha level of .05 separated statistically significant findings from non-significant findings.

Version 18.0 for Windows SPSS software was used to conduct analyses of collected data and to create the necessary charts, tables, and graphs for illustration. The figures and tables were adjusted to meet APA standards. After data analyses, I was able to determine and report if there was statistically significant evidence to reject the null hypotheses and conclude the magnitude of the correlation between variables. This study did not determine causation between the variables; rather it determined the existence and magnitude of a relationship. Results are reported in Chapter Four.
CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS

Introduction

As stated throughout earlier chapters, the purpose of this study is to determine if a difference exists in teachers’ mean job satisfaction scores and examine the existence of a relationship between teachers’ organizational commitment plans in education based on the gender of the building administrator in Tennessee middle schools. Information gleaned from the results of this study will increase educators’ awareness of how gender expectations influence behavior and promote further exploration. The research questions that guided the study were (a) Is there a statistically significant difference in Tennessee middle school teachers’ job satisfaction based on the gender of the building administrator? and (b) Does a statistically significant relationship exist between Tennessee middle school teachers’ organizational commitment plans in education and the gender of the building administrator?

This chapter contains data results for the 170 randomly selected schools included in the study. Descriptive statistics for means and standard deviations, analysis results for each of the two research questions, and decisions regarding the hypotheses are presented. The chapter concludes with a summary of the results.

Descriptive Statistics

A one-way multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted to examine the association between the independent variable, administrators’ gender, and the dependent variable, teachers’ job satisfaction. Two constructs, leadership and
instructional practices and support, were used to examine the difference between teachers’ mean job satisfaction scores and the gender of the administrators. The leadership construct contained eighteen questions, and the instructional practices and support construct contained five questions. All items in both constructs were measured with a five-point scale (1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Agree, 4 = Strongly Agree, and 5 = Don’t Know) (Tennessee Department of Education, September 2011).

The means and standard deviations for the dependent variables, teachers’ job satisfaction, as measured by the leadership and instructional practices and support subscales disaggregated by the independent variable, gender, are reported in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Male Administrator (n = 2,340)</th>
<th>Female Administrator (n = 2,377)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Leadership</td>
<td>M = 52.46, SD = 10.47</td>
<td>M = 52.16, SD = 11.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practices and Support</td>
<td>M = 13.70, SD = 3.19</td>
<td>M = 13.75, SD = 3.28</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Quantitative Analysis

Research Question One

A one-way multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA), regularly used in causal-comparative studies, was used to examine Tennessee middle school teachers’ job satisfaction based on the administrators’ gender (Gall et al., 2007). The MANOVA is used to examine multiple dependent variables—in this case, the leadership and instructional practices and support scales used to measure job satisfaction—and is most effective when the dependent variables are at least moderately correlated (Field, 2009).
Correlational analysis of the dependent variables for the current study indicated the variables were moderately correlated (see Table 4.2). The correlation coefficients did not exceed .90, indicating multicollinearity was not violated.

Table 4.2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>JS LSP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>JS IPS</td>
<td>.48**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. **p < .01; JS LSP = Job Satisfaction Leadership; JS IPS = Job Satisfaction Instructional Practices and Support

Preliminary assumption testing was conducted. Normality was assessed using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test with Lilliefors’s correction. Univariate normality was violated and was positively skewed for all groups and all variables, p < .05. Since univariate normality must be tenable to achieve multivariate normality, both assumptions were violated. This was confirmed by examining Mahalanobis distance values. The investigation of box plots and Mahalanobis distance values yielded extreme outliers. Cases with extreme scores above the critical value were eliminated from the data file (Field, 2009). The MANOVA was thus considered robust, as MANOVA procedures are robust to violations of normality, especially with a large sample of 30 or more in each cell and with extreme outliers removed (Field, 2009). Scatter plots were examined, and the assumption of linearity was found tenable. The assumption of the homogeneity of covariance was examined using the Box’s Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices, $M = 25.31$, $F(3, 4.03) = 8.43, p = .001$. This assumption was found tenable based on $p > .001$ and that Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) described the procedure as too stringent with large sample sizes such as used in the current study.
The results of the MANOVA yielded no statistically significant differences between gender groups for the two scales used to measure job satisfaction, leadership and instructional practices and support, Pillai’s Trace = .00, $F(2, 4714) = 1.04$, $p = .35$, $\eta^2 = .00$. Pillai’s trace is considered a more robust test when assumptions are violated; thus, Pillai’s trace was used as opposed to Wilk’s statistic, Hotelling’s trace, or Roy’s largest root (Field, 2009). The observed power was .23, indicating a 23% chance that the results were accurate. Thus, a Type II error was possible.

**Research Question Two**

The second research question examined was, Does a statistically significant relationship exist between Tennessee middle school teachers’ organizational commitment plans in education and the gender of the building administrator? The TELL Tennessee survey item used to measure the final research question was survey item 10.1: Which of the following best describes your immediate professional plans? The question consisted of six choices that included (a) Continue teaching at my current school; (b) Continue teaching in this district, but leave this school; (c) Continue teaching in this state, but leave this district; (d) Continue working in education, but pursue an administrative position; (e) Continue working in education, but pursue a non-administrative position; and (f) Leave education entirely.

Pearson’s chi-square analysis was used to evaluate the two variables of interest, administrators’ gender and teachers’ commitment plans in education with six previously identified levels in the item question. Table 4.3 shows the cross tabulations for administrators’ gender and teachers’ responses, $N = 4,716$, to future plans in education.
The participant count for chi-square analysis procedures was less than the participant count for the MANOVA due to a respondent not completing the question. The variables were not significantly related, Pearson $\chi^2 (5, \ N = 4,716) = 7.41, \ p = .19$, Cramer’s $V = .037$. The proportion of teachers with male administrators who planned to continue teaching in their current position was $.82, \ n = 1,916$. The proportion of teachers with female administrators who planned to continue teaching in their current position was $.80, \ n = 1,901$. Analysis of the teachers’ responses indicated the majority of teachers plan to remain committed to their current schools. Based on Pearson’s chi-square statistical procedures, insufficient evidence existed to reject the null hypothesis.

Table 4.3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Continue teaching in current school</th>
<th>Continue teaching in this district but leave this school</th>
<th>Continue teaching in this state but leave this district</th>
<th>Continue working in education, but pursue an administrative position</th>
<th>Continue working in education, but pursue a non-administrative position</th>
<th>Leave education entirely</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male Admin.</td>
<td>1916(82%)</td>
<td>99(4%)</td>
<td>40(2%)</td>
<td>133(6%)</td>
<td>82(4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female Admin.</td>
<td>1901(80%)</td>
<td>121(5%)</td>
<td>51(2%)</td>
<td>133(6%)</td>
<td>75(3%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Summary

The quantitative analysis procedures including descriptive statistics were provided and interpreted. The results explained in this chapter for the first research question and the related hypotheses regarding the variables of administrators’ gender and teachers’ job satisfaction were not significant. The first research question examined the difference of Tennessee middle school teachers’ mean job satisfaction scores according to the
leadership and instructional practices and support scales based on the building administrators’ gender. The Tennessee TELL Survey responses from the randomly selected schools, \( N = 4,717 \), were analyzed using MANOVA statistical procedures. The lack of significant results provided insufficient evidence to reject the associated null hypotheses. The second research question examined teachers’ responses, \( N = 4,716 \), to one item question, 10.1, on the Tennessee TELL Survey that asked what their future plans were. Teachers overwhelmingly indicated they planned to remain in their current schools. The second research question was analyzed using Pearson’s chi-square and produced no significant relationship between the variables of interest. This evidence did not support rejecting the corresponding null hypothesis.
CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

Introduction

The final chapter of the current study consists of restating the problem followed by a review of the methodology. The chapter progresses with a summary of results including decisions regarding the hypotheses. The results of the study are discussed in relation to prior research, theoretical implications, and implications for practice, as well as assumptions, limitations, and recommendations for future research. The final components of this chapter contain a summary of the study and final conclusions.

Problem Statement

Educators need to recognize the potential for gender expectations embedded from childhood into adulthood and the interaction of these expectations with daily performance in the educational environment. Educators must also recognize the potential influence that expectations have on job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Research has shown that early, and often latent, formation of gender identities, expectations, and stereotypes contributes to expectations of gendered behavior as adults (Andrews & Ridenour, 2006; Blackhurst & Auger, 2008; Lester, 2008; Sax & Harper, 2007). Research conducted within the business industry has provided evidence that expectations of gendered behavior, particularly related to women in positions of leadership, can contribute to negative feelings of job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Afolabi et al., 2008; Chen et al., 2010; Meier et al., 2006; Reuvers et al., 2008). The larger representation of women in
education indicates there should be more women administrators. Because men have traditionally served as leaders and because both men and women have often seen leadership as the domain of men, education is still dominated by male influences of leadership effectiveness with little regard to the growing trend of women attaining leadership positions. Teacher commitment and, ultimately, school effectiveness are influenced by the degree of teacher job satisfaction; teachers’ job satisfaction could be hindered when expectations of male or female leadership qualities are not aligned with performance (Celikten, 2010; Chen & Addi, 1992; Eckman, 2004; Meier, O’Toole, & Goerdel, 2006; Shann, 1998).

**Review of the Methodology**

A quantitative causal-comparative study was conducted to determine if a significant difference exists in teachers’ mean job satisfaction scores for leadership and instructional practices and support based on the gender of the building administrator and if a significant relationship exists between teachers’ organizational commitment plans and the administrators’ gender in Tennessee middle schools. The stratified random sample for the study contained 170 Tennessee middle schools where educators have the potential to influence a multitude of professional environments as they model gender specific behaviors. The results from the study increase educators’ awareness of how gender expectations influence their own behavior and promotes further exploration. Results of the study assisted to fill that gap by determining if the school administrator’s gender influences teachers’ job satisfaction and organizational commitment.
Limited research existed relating to the particular variables of interest in the study; thus, a causal-comparative research design was appropriate to begin exploration (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2007). The scope of the study did not include causation of any variables upon the other; rather it was to determine the association and magnitude of relationships among variables. Variables were not manipulated, and a control group was not incorporated to measure causal relationships. The design included (a) establishing variables to be studied, (b) selecting participating schools to be included in the sample, (c) collecting the data, and (d) analyzing the data. Variables were measured based on results from the Teaching, Empowering, Leading and Learning (TELL) Tennessee Survey (Tennessee Department of Education, December 2011). A one-way multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted to investigate the difference between the mean scores for the dependent variable, job satisfaction scales for leadership and instructional practices and support, based on the gender of the building administrator. Chi-square analysis procedures were used to examine the relationship between teachers’ organizational commitment plans in education and the gender of the building administrator.

**Summary of Results**

The TELL Tennessee Survey (Tennessee Department of Education, December 2011) was available to all Tennessee schools. A stratified random sample of 170 Tennessee middle schools consisting of 5,822 teachers who completed the TELL survey was the initial set of data used to conduct data analyses procedures. After removal of cases based on missing data components and extreme outliers, 4,717 cases were included
in the analysis. Two research questions were posed: (a) Is there a statistically significant difference in Tennessee middle school teachers’ job satisfaction based on the gender of the building administrator? and (b) Does a statistically significant relationship exist between Tennessee middle school teachers’ organizational commitment plans in education and the gender of the building administrator?

The first question was examined using a one-way MANOVA analysis. Results indicated there was not a significant association between teachers’ job satisfaction based on the gender of the building administrator. The null hypotheses were not rejected. A Chi-square analysis was used to examine the second research question: Does a statistically significant relationship exist between Tennessee middle school teachers’ organizational commitment plans in education and the gender of the building administrator? Results of the chi-square analysis indicated there was not a significant relationship between teachers’ commitment plans in education and the gender of the building administrator. Survey item 10.1 asked teachers to describe their immediate professional plans from a provided selection of responses. Teachers with female and male administrators, 80% and 82 % respectively, overwhelmingly indicated they planned to continue teaching in their current school. The null hypothesis that no statistically significant relationship exists between the gender of the school administrator and middle school teachers’ organizational commitment plans in education as measured by the Teaching, Empowering, Leading and Learning (TELL) Tennessee Survey was not rejected. Based on results of the analyses, Tennessee middle school teachers’ decision to remain committed in education is not related to the gender of the building administrator.
Relationship to Prior Research

The objective of the current study was to examine if a building administrator’s gender influences teachers’ satisfaction and commitment within an educational organization. Studies relating the variables of interest have been limited within the educational environment. However, research in this area has been conducted within the business community. Results of the current study were in alignment with results of prior research in terms of not finding significant differences specific for male and female leaders between management practices or interactions with subordinates. The differences in a study conducted by Meier et al. (2006) were in performance results. Reuvers et al. (2008) also found no direct effect for subordinates’ innovativeness based on the leaders’ gender; rather the difference was in the use of transformational leadership style. The current study did not examine the potential influence of specific leadership styles or performance results for the participating schools. Preliminary correlational analysis for the current study indicated significant correlations between the dependent variables and supported research conducted by Hulpia et al. (2009) regarding the reciprocity between job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Results for the current study also support prior research that job satisfaction and organizational commitment are influenced by multiple factors and that it is difficult to credit one factor without recognizing the contribution and interaction of others (Afolabi et al., 2008; Chen et al., 2010; Hulpia et al., 2009; Ware & Kitsantas, 2007). The continued increase in female educators acquiring leadership positions attracts more attention to the potential of gender influences of the leader on teachers’ perceptions of satisfaction and commitment (Muchiri, Cooksey,
Milia, & Walumbwa, 2011). Literature purported a variety of factors that influenced whether teachers remained in the profession or within the same building. Chang (2009) reported three major factors that contributed to teachers leaving the profession: (a) individual factors that included such things as age, gender, years of service, marital status, and coping strategies; (b) organizational factors that included work demands, salary, organizational rigidity, and shared decision making; and (c) transactional factors that included a combination of the previous two such as perceptions of organizational leadership styles, perceived administrative support, professional satisfaction, and teacher efficacy. Based on results of the current study, other factors weigh more heavily in teachers’ job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

**Organizational Commitment**

Organizational commitment is characterized based on three dimensions: (a) affective commitment that relates to emotional attachment, (b) continuance commitment that relates to weighing the cost alternatives of leaving, and (c) normative commitment that relates to a sense of obligation (Aydin, Sarier, & Sengul, 2011; Chen et al., 2010; Karakus & Aslan, 2009; Tanriverdi, 2008; Ware & Kitsantas, 2007). Leadership styles, teacher efficacy, experience, gender, environment, and collaboration are among the variety of factors that may contribute to organizational commitment (Afolabi et al., 2008; Chen et al., 2010; Hulpia et al., 2009; Ware & Kitsantas, 2007). Ware and Kitsantas (2007) reported teachers’ commitment is a direct reflection of the administrator’s type of leadership. Prior researchers have established that certain leadership styles are considered more masculine or feminine in nature (Embry et al., 2008; Tabbodi, 2009).
Reuvers et al. (2008) concluded that transformational leadership styles were more often exhibited by women but were more positively influential for subordinates when exercised by male leaders. Though specific leadership styles were not considered, the current study illustrated no significant relationship in middle school teachers’ organizational commitment plans in education and administrators’ gender. The majority of teachers, regardless of whether they worked under a male or female administrator, reported in the TELL Survey that they planned to continue teaching in the same building. Though a multitude of environmental and cultural factors may have more influence on teachers’ job satisfaction and organizational commitment than the administrators’ gender, the administrators’ actual leadership style may also be more important than his or her gender.

**Job Satisfaction**

Teacher job satisfaction has been shown to be a predictor of teacher retention and commitment, which contributes to overall school effectiveness (Griffith, 2003; Hulpia et al., 2009). Hulpia et al. (2009) examined the reciprocity between the two and discovered that job satisfaction does impact organizational commitment but the greater impact lies with the influence of organizational commitment on job satisfaction. Preliminary correlational analysis for the current study confirmed the correlation between the constructs used to measure job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Considering the potential for reciprocity between organizational commitment and job satisfaction, it could be reasoned that a significant relationship between one of the variables and the administrators’ gender would indicate a significant relationship between the other and gender. The results of the current study found no significant associations between
administrators’ gender and job satisfaction or teachers’ organizational commitment plans in education. Thus, the gender of the building administrator was not associated with either variable.

Professional development opportunities, collaboration, teacher autonomy, and empowerment are among an extensive list of contributing factors for teachers’ job satisfaction (Bogler, 2001; Pearson & Moomaw, 2005). The literature varied concerning the influence of demographic information such as gender and job satisfaction among teachers and administrators. Gender was often reported in descriptive statistics and mentioned secondary to the actual variables of study. Studies that examined teachers and satisfaction were well represented in the literature and documented contrasting results (Bogler, 2001; Hulppia et al., 2009; Korkmaz, 2007; Pearson & Moomaw, 2005). Less obtainable were studies that investigated the potential relationship of administrators’ gender and teachers’ job satisfaction. The current study, which indicated no significant associations between the administrators’ gender and teachers’ job satisfaction, supported this pattern and affirmed the difficulty in isolating gender from other influential factors.

**Theoretical Implications**

The results of this study provide evidence of converging theories that both biological and social factors operate together to influence perceptions and behavior. Gender cannot be studied in isolation of social and cultural factors. Social learning theories operate on the assumption that the acquisition of gender roles occurs through observations and experiences, and this assumption provided the foundation for the theoretical framework for this study (Bandura, 1986; Bussey & Bandura, 1999; Lent et
Gurian and Stevens (2005) identified three biological stages of the gendered brain: (a) chromosome markers at conception, (b) chromosome induced hormone surges, and (c) biological cues at birth based on genetics to family, community, and overall culture. The last stage recognizes the interconnectedness of biological and environmental factors that influence gender awareness and expectations within social constructs. A common thread among researchers who supported biological gender influences was the emphasis that gender awareness and development should no longer be considered a battle between nature and nurture (Biswal et al., 2010; Campbell & Eaton, 1999; Diamond, 2006; Eliot, 2010; Fenson et al., 1994; Gurian & Stevens, 2005; Hyde, 2005; Lenroot et al., 2007). The current study examined the associations between teachers’ job satisfaction and organizational commitment plans in education based on the gender of the building administrator. After much reflection regarding the results of the current study, the idea that biological gender characteristics are determined by nature and intricately interwoven through socialization processes that nurture gender awareness and expectations was affirmed with the lack of significant results of this study. The current study considered the variable of administrators’ gender in isolation. It can be reasoned that because social cognitive theory of gender development combines psychological and socio-structural determinants to define gender role development and functioning, other
factors that contribute to teachers’ job satisfaction and organizational commitment cannot be eliminated. Personal factors, behavior patterns, and environmental factors interact in a model known as triadic reciprocal causation that influences gender development (Bandura, 1986; Bussey & Bandura, 1999; Lent et al., 2005). The results of Betz and Hackett’s (1981) study supported the background of the current study that women may be hesitant to enter educational administration or be accepted as educational leaders, which has historically been viewed as male dominant (Betz & Hackett, 1981; Eckman, 2004). The importance of social cognitive theory may not be recognizable until gendered behavior becomes inconsistent with those expectations formulated through environmental structures and modeling, enactive experiences, and direct tuition modes of influence (Embry et al., 2008). The current study did not determine whether subordinates viewed the administrators’ gender as consistent with expectations and further demonstrated the difficulty of gaining a true indication of gendered beliefs.

Socio-cultural theory proclaims gender differences are in part socially constructed and attributed to the existence of innate factors. Biological and cultural forces of gender identity development and self-regulating factors are intertwined (Kruger, 2008; Miller, 2002; Vygotsky, 1978). Biological influences are mediated by cultural forces and interactions within the culture. The interpretation of professional interactions related to administrators’ gender as reflected by teachers’ job satisfaction and organizational commitment in the current study indicated no significant associations. A potential reason for the lack of significant results may lie in the possible interaction of various other
environmental factors that influence teachers’ job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Social cognitive theory and socio-cultural theory explained the need for the current study as the association between teachers’ organizational commitment and job satisfaction based on administrators’ gender were explored. Biological gender differences were recognized in the current study, but often gender expectations resulting from cultural and environmental factors are unintended and may be an unrecognized contributing influence for teachers’ job satisfaction and organizational commitment. The theories were tested based upon the interpretation of results in regards to the presence of association, which is indicative that teachers were satisfied and committed in their jobs whether the administrator was male or female.

**Implications for Practice**

It was surmised for the purposes of the present study that as more females enter educational leadership positions, common perceptions and expectations of male and female leadership capacities gain significance. The results of the current study lead to implications for educational practice as female attainment of leadership positions continues to increase and gender continues to be an area of interest in educational research. Results indicate no significant difference in teachers’ job satisfaction and organizational commitment based on the gender of the building administrator. Teachers’ decision to remain committed in their current teaching position was not determined by the administrators’ gender. The close mean scores for teachers who work under the leadership of a male or female administrator indicate gender does not influence teachers’
satisfaction or commitment. The implications for educational practice regarding the association between administrators’ gender and teachers’ job satisfaction and organizational commitment may be better demonstrated in the examination of gender consistency within leadership styles.

The lack of significant differences for teachers’ satisfaction and commitment related to administrators’ gender may also be attributed to the increase of females in leadership positions. The results could represent an already present societal shift in gendered beliefs regarding leadership. The field of education may be exhibiting characteristics of professional environments where teachers’ satisfaction and commitment are determined by a multitude of factors, which may include various leadership qualities. Thus, perceptions of educational leadership may presently be equalizing as teachers are able to look past a leaders’ gender to overall ability and collective performance.

Results indicate that leadership skills, regardless of gender, are more important factors and that subordinates will and do look beyond personal stereotyped beliefs of how “he” or “she” should respond. Trends in higher education and leadership acquirement indicate that female attainment of leadership positions will continue to increase. Anastasaki and Koutra (2005) emphasized the importance of women being observed in positions of authority to neutralize gender expectations in educational leadership. The increased female presence in leadership positions, particularly in positions historically perceived as male dominant, requires cultural and organizational shifts in what has often been an unintentionally gendered society. The lack of significant differences in teachers’ mean scores indicates a shift is already happening in the field of education.
Limitations

Generalizability was limited to the current population. Though still considered a limitation, generalizability was addressed by obtaining a stratified random sample of 170 schools from the total number of Tennessee middle schools that achieved a 50% response rate to ensure a representative sample. The use of archival data created the potential for important data to be neglected by a non-response threat (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2007). There were teachers and schools whose data were not included because the response rate did not meet the 50% criteria or have at least five responses. However, the surveys were anonymous, voluntary, and administered from February 14 – March 11, 2011, allowing ample opportunity for all educators to respond, and Tennessee middle schools achieved a 77% overall return rate. There was a concern regarding administrators’ years of experience in relation to job satisfaction and organizational commitment, so schools where the administrator had not been in leadership in the present school for at least three years were excluded. Schools that consisted of single gender students, all girls or all boys, were also excluded.

The TELL Tennessee Survey was a self-report measure, and it was assumed teachers responded truthfully. However, the self-report feature is a potential limitation. The TELL Tennessee Survey was administered state-wide and data were publically reported via the Tennessee Department of Education website. The fear of being negatively compared with other schools across the state, the potential loss of funding if schools or districts were deemed unsatisfied or ineffective, and the possibility of creating a negative picture of their school or district in relation to the impact of the local
community may have influenced teacher responses.

Other factors besides gender that may have influenced the results of this study were recognized as limitations and not controlled for. Specific leadership styles were not analyzed and could have influenced the variables of interest regardless of the administrator’s gender. The variables of interests may evolve over time and produce inconsistent results. School demographics varied from school to school and were not considered in the study but could have influenced teachers’ job satisfaction and organizational commitment. While there were a multitude of factors that may have influenced the variables of interest, this study sought to discover whether an association existed rather than determine causal relationships.

**Recommendations for Future Research**

As I developed the research plan and reviewed the current literature for this study regarding administrators’ gender, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment, three main recommendations for future research were revealed. Limitations also revealed areas for future research.

The review of literature for the current study revealed a multitude of factors that potentially influence teachers’ job satisfaction and organizational commitment. The gender of the teacher was sometimes considered in the research analysis. More prevalent were studies of leadership strategies and leadership styles that promote job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Future studies could expand the research by including the administrators’ gender as demographic information when specific leadership strategies are investigated and analyze the interaction of gender with the application of
those strategies. The interaction between principal’s gender and teacher’s gender related to job satisfaction and organizational commitment could also be an area of study. Do female teachers prefer working for a male or female administrator? Do male teachers prefer working for a male or female administrator? Additionally, the TELL Tennessee Survey contained other constructs that aligned with the literature as potential factors that influence job satisfaction and organizational commitment. A more in-depth analyses of all the constructs offered in the TELL Tennessee Survey in conjunction with specific leadership styles may produce more significant results.

Another recommendation for future research is to pursue experimental studies with control groups to determine the influence of administrators’ gender on teachers’ job satisfaction and organizational commitment. The current study was a non-experimental causal-comparative study which is adequate for initial exploratory examination of variables to establish a foundation for further studies. The shape of the distribution was positively skewed suggesting there were characteristics, traits, or factors influencing the teachers’ satisfaction. Further research is necessary to identify the specific influencing factors or if the positively skewed shape was simply a result of teachers’ desire to be viewed positively. The many factors that could potentially influence teachers’ job satisfaction and organizational commitment include student population, community support, class sizes, and professional development opportunities, just to name a few. Gender cannot be manipulated, so experimental studies would focus on leadership styles and qualities characteristic of male or female leadership tendencies. Schools led by administrators considered to be transactional leaders (male and female) could undergo
training procedures to implement transformational components and compare teachers’ job satisfaction before and after for both genders. Do teachers’ job satisfaction scores and organizational commitment increase more for one gender when transformational leadership styles are implemented? Experimental studies would allow for more control of mediating variables to better determine the extent to which administrators’ gender influences teachers’ job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Throughout the research for this study, I experienced tremendous interest among colleagues and leaders within the primary and higher education community. A more in-depth understanding of the progression of underlying, often unrecognized, gender stereotypes and influences thereof in the educational environment could be gained with qualitative studies. Specifically, future studies should include qualitative designs in which researchers are immersed in research settings to observe the frequency of gender bias in the educational environment, both in higher education and primary education. The use of journaling to gauge day-to-day reflections of teachers and administrators regarding administrative behavior and interviewing to delve into teachers’ and administrators’ backgrounds would allow researchers to identify the progression of initial gender stereotypes and expectations. Qualitative studies to examine the specific variables of interest would facilitate reflective practices, which would guide educators to realize the truthful impact of personally held gendered beliefs on the expectations of others.

**Summary and Conclusions**

The scope of this quantitative non-experimental causal-comparative study was to determine the association and magnitude of relationships among variables. Results
indicated there was not a significant difference between teachers’ job satisfaction based on the gender of the building administrator or a significant relationship between teachers’ organizational commitment plans in education and the administrators’ gender. Teachers with female and male administrators overwhelmingly indicated they planned to continue teaching in their current school. Based on results of the current study, other factors besides administrators’ gender, possibly even teachers’ desire to be viewed positively, weigh more heavily on teachers’ job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Limited research existed that related the particular variables of interest in the study. It is difficult to isolate the administrators’ gender as a variable from the multitude of other factors that influence teachers’ job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Literature concerning the influence of demographic information such as gender and job satisfaction and organizational commitment among teachers and administrators varied. Gender was often reported in descriptive statistics and mentioned secondary to the actual variables of study. Since other variables for teachers’ job satisfaction and organizational commitment were not considered in relation to teachers’ and administrators’ gender, evident was the need for further research to fill in the gaps of how a gendered society influences leadership practices and performance in education. Gender may be one component of individual factors along with other demographic factors of age, years of service, marital status, and coping strategies. Organizational factors that include salary, rigidity, and shared decision making along with transactional factors that include a combination of the above mentioned factors in addition to leadership styles are other sources of influence. Professional development opportunities, collaboration, teacher
autonomy, and empowerment are among an extensive list of contributing factors for teachers’ job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Bogler, 2001; Pearson & Moomaw, 2005).

The difficulty in isolating the variable of gender along with the effects of latent gendered beliefs hinders the ability to study the influence of a leader’s gender on subordinates’ satisfaction and commitment levels. Adults are often not cognizant of their own gendered belief system and how it influences their expectations of leaders, colleagues, and students. The majority of teachers included in the current study, regardless of whether they worked under a male or female administrator, reported they planned to continue teaching in the same building.

The current study confirmed the idea that biological gender characteristics are determined by nature and intricately interwoven through socialization processes that nurture gender awareness and expectations. This study considered the variable of administrators’ gender in isolation. The lack of significant results for the current study could be attributed to the limitation of not including other factors that contribute to teachers’ job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Results of the current study regarding the association between administrators’ gender and teachers’ job satisfaction and organizational commitment have significant implications for practice and further study. The examination of other variables that influence teachers’ job satisfaction and organizational commitment, the interaction with teachers’ gender with those variables, and gender consistency within leadership styles are areas of focus for future research. Trends in higher education and leadership acquirement
indicate that female attainment of leadership positions will continue to increase. The results of this study could be an indication that a shift has already taken place and teachers will be equally satisfied and committed in their jobs, regardless of whether they work for a male or female administrator.
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and Curriculum Development.


doi 10.1007/s11162-008-9097-4

APPENDIX A

IRB Approval Letter

November 1, 2011

Stephanie Potter
IRB Exemption 1193.150151: Relationships between Educators' Organisational Commitment, Job Satisfaction, and Administrator's Gender

Dear Stephanie,

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 that no further IRB oversight is required unless your data collection extends past the one year approval granted by this memo, in which case you would submit the annual review form attached to your approval email.

Your study falls under exemption category 46.101 (b)(2, 4), which identifies specific situations in which human participants research is exempt from the policy set forth in 45 CFR 46.

(2) Research involving the use of educational tests (cognitive, diagnostic, aptitude, achievement), survey procedures, interview procedures or observation of public behavior, unless: (a) The information obtained is recorded in such a manner that human subjects can be identified, directly or through identifiers linked to the subjects, and (b) any disclosure of the subjects' responses outside the research could reasonably place the subjects at risk of criminal or civil liability or be damaging to the subjects' financial position, or reputation.

(4) Research involving the collection or study of existing data, documents, records, pathological specimens, or diagnostic specimens if these sources are publicly available or if the information is recorded in such a manner that subjects cannot be identified, directly or through identifiers linked to the subjects

Please note that this exemption only applies to your current research application, and that 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 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,

Fernando Gorron, Psy.D.
IRB Chair, Associate Professor
Center for Counseling & Family Studies

(434) 592-5054

Liberty University
40 Years of Training Champions for Christ: 1973-2013
APPENDIX B

Letter to New Teacher Center

Stephanie L. Potter
5402 Canova Court
Kingsport, TN 37664

June 16, 2011

In regards to:  Tennessee TELL Survey

Ms. Sandy Chandler
New Teacher Center

Dear Ms. Chandler,

I am a doctoral student at Liberty University in Lynchburg, VA. I am currently employed with Kingsport City Schools, Kingsport, TN. I am proposing to examine the correlation between teachers’ job satisfaction and organizational commitment based on the gender of the building administrator in Tennessee middle schools for my dissertation study. I would like to utilize data from the Tennessee TELL Survey to examine the variables of interest. I know there is some information you may not be able to provide that I will have to obtain from the state department. Any assistance, advice, and suggestions will be greatly appreciated. I thank you for your time and attention. Following is a list of the information I will need:

- Total number of Tennessee middle schools in which the survey was made available.
- A list of the Tennessee middle schools that achieved the 50% and minimum of five response criteria.
- A list of the Tennessee middle schools where the administrator had been in that position for three or more years or a list of all Tennessee middle schools included in the survey report with the number of years experience for the administrator included. Names of schools will not be reported in the study and I will only be looking at a potential relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment based on the gender of the administrator.
- Gender of administrator.

Again I thank you so much for your time and attention to this matter.
Thank you,

Stephanie L. Potter
spotter@k12k.com
spotter@liberty.edu
423-378-2217 work
276-393-5205 cell
APPENDIX C

Letter to Tennessee Department of Education

Stephanie L. Potter
5402 Canova Court
Kingsport, TN 37664

June 16, 2011

In regards to: Tennessee TELL Survey

Ms. Trish Kelly
Tennessee Department of Education

Dear Ms. Kelly,

I am a doctoral student at Liberty University in Lynchburg, VA. I am currently employed with Kingsport City Schools, Kingsport, TN. I am proposing to examine the correlation between teachers’ job satisfaction and organizational commitment based on the gender of the building administrator in Tennessee middle schools for my dissertation study. I would like to utilize data from the Tennessee TELL Survey to examine the variables of interest. I know there is some information you may not be able to provide that I will have to obtain from the state department. Any assistance, advice, and suggestions will be greatly appreciated. I thank you for your time and attention.

Following is a list of the information I will need:

- Total number of Tennessee middle schools in which the survey was made available.
- A list of the Tennessee middle schools that achieved the 50% and minimum of five response criteria.
- A list of the Tennessee middle schools where the administrator had been in that position for three or more years or a list of all Tennessee middle schools included in the survey report with the number of years experience for the administrator included. Names of schools will not be reported in the study and I will only be looking at a potential relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment based on the gender of the administrator.
- Gender of the administrator (principals only) per middle schools at the time the survey was administered in 2011 (from the schools that met the response criteria).
Again I thank you so much for your time and attention to this study and I appreciate your assistance, suggestions, and advice with any aspect of the proposed study.

Thank you,

Stephanie L. Potter
Assistant to the Principal
Robinson Middle School
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276-393-5205 cell
APPENDIX D

Letter to School Districts

Stephanie L. Potter
5402 Canova Court
Kingsport, TN 37664

September 19, 2011

To whom it may concern,

My name is Stephanie Potter and I am a doctoral student at Liberty University in Lynchburg, VA. I am currently employed as Assistant to the Principal at Robinson Middle school with Kingsport City Schools, Kingsport, TN. I am proposing to examine the correlation between teachers’ job satisfaction and organizational commitment based on the gender of the building administrator in Tennessee middle schools for my dissertation study. Anonymity is guaranteed as there will be no individual data of any kind specific to the school district, school, or administrator reported or discussed within the dissertation document.

I am requesting the following information: Gender of the building administrator from the 2008/2009 school year through the 2010/2011 school year.

Middle schools in your district from which information is requested: This information will be provided specific to each school district.

Thank you so much for your time and your response. Have a lovely day!

Sincerely,

Stephanie L. Potter
Assistant to the Principal
Robinson Middle School
spotter@k12k.com
spotter@liberty.edu
423-378-2217 work
276-393-5205 cell
APPENDIX E

Letter to Individual Schools

Stephanie L. Potter
5402 Canova Court
Kingsport, TN 37664

September 19, 2011

To whom it may concern,

My name is Stephanie Potter and I am a doctoral student at Liberty University in Lynchburg, VA. I am currently employed as Assistant to the Principal at Robinson Middle school with Kingsport City Schools, Kingsport, TN. I am proposing to examine the correlation between teachers’ job satisfaction and organizational commitment based on the gender of the building administrator in Tennessee middle schools for my dissertation study. Anonymity is guaranteed as there will be no individual data of any kind specific to the school district, school, or administrator reported or discussed within the dissertation document.

I have been able to gather the gender of most administrators of each school from school websites. However, I am also interested in the number of years of administrative experience in that particular school. So, if you would be so kind to please respond to this email and confirm your gender and whether or not you have been in your current placement since the 2008/2009 school year. If this is your first year in this particular school and you are aware of the gender of the administrator in place during the 2008/2009 through 2010/2011 school year, I would greatly appreciate that information.

Thank you so much for your time and your response. Have a lovely day!

Sincerely,

Stephanie L. Potter
Assistant to the Principal
Robinson Middle School
spotter@k12k.com
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423-378-2217 work
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APPENDIX F

Request to use Construct Tables

From: Potter, Stephanie
Sent: Monday, January 16, 2012 10:32 AM
To: kchurch@newteachercenter.org
Cc: Rockinson-Szapkiw, Amanda J
Subject: TELLTN_Dissertation_Tables_Potter_Stephanie

Dear Ms. Church,

I am taking you up on your offer to let you know if I need additional information. The information you provided this summer was very helpful. Thank you. I have designed two tables to identify the specific constructs I will be using for my dissertation in regards to the variables under study, job satisfaction and organizational commitment. I have attached to tables for your perusal, a request to use the tables, and the original letter from June, 2011 (as a reminder of my research).

Thank you again for your continued assistance. Have a lovely day!

Sincerely,
Stephanie L. Potter
spotter@k12k.com
spotter@liberty.edu
276-393-5205 (cell)
423-378-2200 (work)

From: Keri Church [kchurch@newteachercenter.org]
Sent: Tuesday, January 17, 2012 1:16 PM
To: Potter, Stephanie
Subject: RE: TELLTN_Dissertation_Tables_Potter_Stephanie

Hi Stephanie,

Thank you for your email. The survey instrument is not copyrighted, but we do appreciate your attribution to our work.

Best wishes,

keri