

SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS' LEADERSHIP STYLES, GENDER, AND PERCEIVED
SELF-EFFICACY IN SUBURBAN VIRGINIA: A MULTIPLE REGRESSION

by

Nary Esther Kitson

Liberty University

A Dissertation Presented in Partial Fulfillment

Of the Requirements for the Degree

Doctor of Education

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ABSTRACT

Educational leadership is one of the most important indicators in the success of a school. Research indicates leadership has various constructs which affect its effectiveness. The most successful and effective leaders have high self-efficacy. Leaders with high self-efficacy are affected by various constructs. Gaps in the literature on leadership effectiveness include the study of gender constructs and the effect of perceived self-efficacy and the effects of leadership styles (e.g., transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire). This study used a multiple regression analysis to determine if there is a significant predictive relationship between perceived self-efficacy and the linear combination of gender and leadership style as predictor variables. The results indicated a significant, predictive relationship based on transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and gender using self-reported data from the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire and the General Self-Efficacy Scale. Implications, limitations, and recommendations for future research are included in the discussion as related to leadership styles, gender, and perceived self-efficacy among administrators in a suburban Virginia school district.

Keywords: Educational leadership, leadership style, transformational leadership, transactional leadership, laissez-faire leadership, gender, self-efficacy, multiple regression, multifactor leadership questionnaire, general self-efficacy scale

Dedication

I thank God for every single step in this process and all the glory is to be given unto Him. This work is dedicated to my parents for their ultimate sacrifice. First, I'd like to thank my dad for the constant persistence of putting education first and allowing no less than my highest potential. I thank my mom for her beautiful soul, and as a result, the root of my inner voice. There aren't enough words to thank you for what you have done. During this journey, both of my babies were born, and I'd like to thank those who helped take care of all of us: Grace, Marnie, Cindy, Alex, and Autumn. To the educators who inspired me first: Jerry, Marci, and Teresa. I'd like to dedicate this accomplishment to my two babies under two years old. Dohee, I dedicate this to you, remembering how I had started writing a month after your birth. Then, you grew up to scribble in my notebooks and would crawl in my lap with your own keyboard as I'd type away. Thank you for the couple times you instilled some real fear as I'd catch you clicking away on the computer with my dissertation files. Thank you for being a joyous, strong, independent baby, who eventually wanted to do everything on your own, including sleep. Doah, I dedicate this to you, remembering you in the womb as I would try to find better sitting positions while I was writing. You came swiftly into this world, allowing me to defend my proposal within the same week. Thank you for your incredible patience, sweet smiles, and laughter. I could not believe I had another happy baby, and you truly were an unbelievably happy baby. Lastly, I'd like to thank my husband. Without you, none of this would have begun, continued, or been completed. You are my best friend and greatest support, from being my tech support, relentlessly challenging me to no ends, and continuing to inspire me to "just do it." Thank you for who you are, with unwavering faith in God, and look, we made it through the doctoral journey together with two additional family members at the end.

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List of Abbreviations

General Self-Efficacy Scale (GSES)

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)

Role Congruity Theory (RCT)

Perceived Self-Efficacy (PSE)

Transformational Leadership Style (TF)

Transactional Leadership Style (TA)

Laissez-Faire Leadership Style (LF)

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Overview

Organizations have sought the strongest leaders for the success of their group (Lussier & Achua, 2015). Successful leadership has embodied a plethora of characteristics, with high self-efficacy as one of the most influential factors. Specific opportunities have shaped successful leaders. As a result, researchers have delved into characteristics that comprise an effective leader, and organizations have strived to train their managers, supervisors, and executive personnel to emulate the characteristics that shape extraordinary leaders. Various constructs have affected leadership, such as leadership style and self-efficacy. Self-efficacy is one of the most important factors in successful leadership (McCormick, 2001). An important and changing construct for leadership has been the factor of gender. Gender representation has been changing in leadership; thus, more studies have been dedicated to understanding the influence of gender in this field (Paustian-Underdahl, Walker, & Woehr, 2014). Leadership styles, gender, and self-efficacy have contributed to the ongoing research of leadership across all types of organizational mediums. Educational leaders have been some of the important leaders in a society, as the future citizens have been led by these individuals (Onorato, 2013).

Background

The modern leader has been changing, and organizations have been adapting to society's changes (Longman & Anderson, 2016; Lussier & Achua, 2015). The success of an organization has depended on the effectiveness of its leaders, the group's cooperation, and the belief in the success of the overall goal (Lussier & Achua, 2015). Leaders have been expected to lead an organization into success, by not only their individual skills but also with the drive to motivate the entire group (Adeyemi & Bolarinwa, 2013). Studies have been conducted to promote high-

quality educational leadership. Training, mentorship programs, and persistent research have produced successful leadership (Choge, 2015; Lussier & Achua, 2015). Studies have often focused on the factors of effective leadership, including confidence, gender, and leadership styles (Khalil, Iqbal, & Khan, 2016, Longman & Anderson, 2016; Paustian-Underdahl, Walker, & Woehr, 2014; Sayadi, 2016; Silva, Ahmad, Omar, & Rasdi, 2012; Zhao & Jones, 2017).

The pressure to improve schools and leadership has been a topic of educational reform for various government administrators such as: the Every Student Succeeds Act (which replaced the No Child Left Behind Act in 2001), Individuals with Disabilities Education Act in 2004, and Race to the Top competitive grant programs (Colker, 2013; Haller, Hunt, Pacha, & Fazeka, 2016; McGuinn, 2012; Parker, 2009). Principals have been overlooked in the past even though they have been deemed as one of the greatest influences in the success of their schools. While the NCLB neglected funding for appropriate leadership training, the focus in ESSA has been on supporting leadership training that is research-based (Haller et al., 2016). As a result, researchers have been constantly analyzing the effects of educational reform and the forward movement that has been necessary to change issues in the classrooms and schools (Au, 2013; Hursh, 2013). With more political involvement and attention on education, leadership has been explored from being a controlling aspect to an empowering tool for educators (Blase & Anderson, 1995). Leadership styles have been studied to continue effective educational change (Hallinger, 2003; Johnson, 1996; Pepper, 2010).

In successful leadership, high *self-efficacy* has been evident because a leader must have been willing to work with confidence to impact the group (Adeyemi & Bolarinwa, 2013; Calik, Sezgin, Kavgaci, & Cagatay, 2012). Self-efficacy has been considered one of the most influential aspects of educational leadership (McCormick, 2001; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2008).

Self-efficacy, as defined by Bandura (1977), is a concept derived from the social cognitive theory and has been defined as the personal belief that a behavior can be successfully executed. The social cognitive theory described self-efficacy as the ability to overcome challenges and barriers through a “can-do” attitude (Bandura, 1997).

Self-efficacy is one of the most important factors in achieving success. Bandura (1977) and his focus on self-efficacy pervaded leadership discussions; it has become a guide for the widespread construction and use of self-efficacy scales. Self-efficacy created intrinsic interests and the competence to attain personal and group goals (Bandura & Schunk, 1981; Zimmerman, Bandura, & Martinez-Pons, 1992). The impact of high self-efficacy has been used in a wide-range of fields and studies. Self-efficacy is highly predictive of outcomes, as it is to predict the health behaviors of those who overcome physical injuries or illnesses (Luszczynska & Schwarzer, 2015). The influence of self-efficacy has been studied across education, from its impact on principals’ leadership styles, schools’ achievement, and teacher burnout (Nir & Kranot, 2006; Pajares & Schunk, 2001; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2010). In contrast, individuals who possess low self-efficacy, or self-inefficacy, harbor fear and the inability to cope with challenges (Bandura, 1986).

Researchers have continued to explore the influential aspect of self-efficacy and leadership (Calik, 2012; Khalil et al., 2016; Nir & Kranot, 2006; Pajares & Schunk, 2001; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2010). Administrators’ leadership styles affect the experiences of the teachers on the job, and as a result, contribute to their self-efficacy (Nir & Kranot, 2006). Teacher burnout, guiding novice teachers, and the retainment of experienced teachers are an extremely critical issue for educational leaders; thus, research has been devoted to understanding the factors contributing to these discussions, such as self-efficacy (Calik et al., 2012; Pajares &

Schunk 2001; Prussia, Anderson, & Manz, 1998; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2010; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2007; Ware & Kitsantas, 2007). Combined self-efficacy among teachers and principals influences the success of an educational organization (Calik, 2012; Khalil et al., 2016). Studying differences among levels of self-efficacy identifies possible social obstacles which impede successful outcomes.

Leadership and self-efficacy are heavily interrelated (Dahlvig & Longman, 2014; Lussier & Achua; McCormick, 2001). A vast array of effective leadership characteristics and traits have been a research topic (Lussier & Achua, 2015). Numerous books, studies, and articles for entertainment audiences, scholarly research, and industrial training purposes, exist about leadership (Paustian-Underdahl, 2014; Sandberg, 2013; Zareen , Razzaq, & Mutjaba, 2015;). Specifically, the leadership styles of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire are used as training tools to identify strengths and weaknesses in leaders (Adeyemi & Bolarinwa, 2013; Avci, 2015; Bass & Avolio, 2015; Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014). Leadership and their relation to gender and self-efficacy are constantly researched in order to build a greater framework to support the improvement of educational leaders (Brandt & Laiho, 2013; Lussier & Achua, 2015; Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014).

Society has become increasingly interested in the gender construct in leadership, which is gender equality across various mediums: the entertainment industry, business, politics, education, and in religious cultures (Dahlvig & Longman, 2014; Longman & Anderson, 2016, Reynolds, 2014k, Sandberg, 2013). The popular book *Lean In* explores women in higher positions and their will to lead (Sandberg, 2013). Many books have been dedicated to the discussion of female representation in higher leadership positions (Williams, 2012).

Changes in women's roles and increasing similar vocational interests of both genders have changed the face of leadership and potential careers. With changes in leadership, organizations have adapted, and leadership became further understood in all contexts (Wood & Eagly, 2012). Studies have examined the effect of gender in certain situations, such as educational leadership (Choge, 2015, Longman & Anderson, 2016; Zhao & Jones, 2017). Males and females have been both represented in educational leadership, yet there has been an underrepresentation of women in educational leadership (Choge, 2015, Dahlvig & Longman, 2014; Longman & Anderson, 2016; Zhao & Jones, 2017). In education, females dominate the educational workforce as teachers (a discrepancy of representation of males) while males dominate the workforce as various leaders (a discrepancy of representation of females) (Choge, 2015). The representation of women in senior leadership positions does not match the number of females in the field (Longman & Anderson 2016; Silva et al., 2012). If females have entered leadership positions, many of them have been in middle management positions (Oakley, 2000, Zhao & Jones, 2017). Studies have been conducted across a variety of careers to explore the minority of women in leadership positions (Abu-Tineh, 2013; Beaman et al., 2012; Dahlvig & Longman, 2014; Zhao & Jones, 2017).

Gender behavior is influenced by differing times, cultures, and situations (Wood & Eagly, 2012). Historically, inequities between males and females exist in representation, rights, and expected social roles. However, in the past 100 years, roles and expectations have been changing. For example, 57% of women at some point have participated in the labor force, which has resulted in a 6% increase since 1980, and 70% of women in a household with minors have participated in the labor force (Data and Statistics, 2016). With regards to overall expectations, the status for males and females has changed over time. The 19th amendment marked women's

suffrage as early as 1920 with the first class of women accepted into Harvard in 1945 (Freedman, 1974). In the 19th century, feminization added abundant labor force to the teaching profession, allowing for a broader opportunity of education to society's citizens (Weiner & Burton, 2016). Title IX changed participation capabilities for a variety of classes, such as race and gender (Mertz, 2006). Specifically, in education, females have been acquiring higher degrees along with males and recently, they have been surpassing males in higher degrees. However, a lack of female representation in senior leadership positions persists (Dahlvig & Longman, 2014; Longman & Anderson, 2016; U.S. Department of Education, 2010).

An abundance of theories explored the changing scene of the impact of gender in the workplace. Gender role theory helps explain gender prejudice, and traditional gender roles, their historical effects, and future implications, are explained by the social role theory (Brandt & Laiho, 2013; Eagly & Kite, 1987). Two forms of prejudice exist with regards to gender in leadership: a) Leadership has been associated with males; therefore, leadership is less favorable to females. b) Leadership has been less favorable to women in successful leadership positions because of the incongruity (Brandt & Laiho, 2013; Diehl & Dzubinski, 2016; Eagly & Karau, 2002; Longman & Anderson, 2016; Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014; Stempel, Rigotti, & Mohr, 2015; Zhao & Jones, 2017). Both males and females in higher educational leadership positions have been evaluated for effectiveness. Gender has seemed to affect females in their willingness to go against the social script, which may have directed them to be gentle, people-focused, and considerate (Zhao & Jones, 2017).

Congruity of gender roles has affected both males and females. The consequences and implications of these congruencies and non-congruencies have affected leadership representation (Eagly, Karau, & Makhijani, 1995; Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014; Zhao & Jones, 2017). These

consequences may have been derived from the social constraint, as described in the role congruity theory. The role congruity theory implies that organizational leadership is associated with men because of their agentic characteristics, which is to be “aggressive, ambitious, dominant, forceful, independent, self-sufficient, self-confident and prone to act as a leader” (Brandt & Laiho, 2013; Eagly & Karau, 2002, p. 574; Zhao & Jones, 2017). On the other hand, females have been associated with having communal characteristics, which include being sensitive, a people-person, considerate, gentle, and nurturing (Brandt & Laiho, 2013; Eagly & Karau, 2002; Paustian-Underdahl, et al., 2014; Zhao & Jones, 2017). Leadership styles have sub-categories of characteristics, which are more associated with one gender versus the other, according to the social role theory (Khalil et al., 2016; Wood & Eagly, 2012; Zhao & Jones, 2017).

Khalil, Iqbal, and Khan (2016) studied leadership styles among male and female administrators and found prevalent styles among each gender group. Society experienced prejudice with incongruent attributes of these gender roles (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Longman & Anderson, 2016; Silva et al., 2012). Social role theory described the type of social constructs that exist in leadership styles and gender (Brandt & Laiho, 2013; Eagly & Kite, 1987).

There have been limitations in research studies to understand the overall issue of appropriate representation in leadership (Diehl & Dzubinski, 2016; Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014). There has not been a singular focus of the problem, but individual research studies have been devoted to one barrier at a time (Diehl & Dzubinski, 2016). Undoubtedly, unseen obstacles and barriers affected their overall self-efficacy (Dahlvig & Longman, 2014; Weiner & Burton, 2016). In addition, a reverse effect occurs, where men may have received bias, or are less favorable than women in certain types of positions, since the types of organizations and the

leaders necessary for those organizations have been changing (Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014). Nevertheless, gender itself has not affected leadership effectiveness, but rather the leadership style (Choge, 2015; Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014). Further research is needed to explore the factors which influence gender and leadership (Choge, 2015, Dahlvig & Longman, 2014; Diehl & Dzubinski, 2016; Ibarra et al., 2013; Palladino, Haar, Grady, & Perry, 2016; Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014; Zhao & Jones, 2017).

Self-efficacy, gender, and leadership styles have all affected leaders in education and in other career realms. A range of differences that affect *self-efficacy* has been studied, such as gender and leadership styles (Brandt & Laiho, 2013; Choge, 2015; Dahlvig & Longman, 2014; Khalil et al., 2016, Lussier & Achua, 2015; Weiner & Burton, 2016; Zhao & Jones, 2017). Self-efficacy is purposeful in building models with regards to the complexity of understanding factors of successful leadership (McCormick, 2001). Understanding leadership style is a necessary skill for high-quality educators and is recommended for training future educational leaders (Choge, 2015; Lussier & Achua, 2015).

Research findings, conducting research, and training, utilize the interactions and implications of these effects to better understand educational leadership. Leadership has been a topic for all professional employers to sustain business. In education, high-quality leadership sustained the growth of schools for the improvement of students' education (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2008).

Problem Statement

Leadership is changing for all organizations. With the presence of training, easily attainable research, gender representation changes, and globalization, adaptation becomes key to leadership (Choge, 2015, Lussier & Achua, 2015). Researchers have suggested more studies

containing school administrator samples in order to “discover how their leadership behaviors can be improved through leadership training” (Khalil et al., 2016, pg. 45). Self-efficacy is one of the greatest components of quality leadership, and attaining high self-efficacy is a noteworthy attribute of effective leadership (Adeyemi & Bolarinwa, 2013; Calik et al., 2012). Identifying worth in self-efficacy attempts to find a likely successful leadership (Calik et al., 2012; Khalil et al., 2016).

Various researchers have noted gender differences in the underrepresentation of females in educational leadership, despite the overwhelming number of females in education and gender constraints that have influenced the education system (Abu-Tineh, 2013; Choge, 2015; Cubillo & Brown, 2003; Diehl & Dzubinski, 2016; Duevel et al., 2015; Lumby, 2015). Teaching in education is mostly dominated by females, yet the leadership roles in education are mostly dominated by males (Choge, 2015; Cubillo & Brown, 2003; Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014; Longman & Anderson 2016). Adequate training may have affected the pre-career attitudes of future leaders, with emphasis on the quality of early training and the effects of that training (Ezzedeen, Budworth, & Baker, 2015).

Although gender itself has been insignificant in leadership effectiveness, the individual factors in gender differences merit further analysis (Avci, 2015, Choge, 2015, Diehl & Dzubinski, 2016; Khalil et al., 2016; Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014; Zhao & Jones, 2017). If gender is insignificant in leadership effectiveness, then the number of females in leadership positions should be equal to the number of females in education. Gender has not dictated effective leadership; however, the research findings have been inconsistent among cultural, international, and organizational barriers (Choge, 2015; Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014). Having research other than qualitative studies that include other factors and continuing meta-

analyses on gender will contribute to the literature base for this topic (Diehl & Dzubinski, 2016; Palladino et al., 2016). The problem of this study was that the research findings in gender and leadership have been broad and at times, inconsistent, and there is a need to further study specific social constructs that influence gender differences and subsequently, self-efficacy, in educational leadership (Avci, 2015; Diehl & Dzubinski, 2016; Magee, 2012; Paustian-Underdahl, 2012).

Purpose Statement

The purpose of this study is to determine if there is a significant predictive relationship between the criterion variable, *perceived self-efficacy*, and the linear combination of predictor variables, *gender* and *leadership style*. The sample consists of participants from a large suburban city school district of 55 elementary schools, 15 middle schools, and 12 high schools (Department of Education, 2009). The first predictor variable, *leadership styles*, is reported by the MLQ. Leadership styles are defined as: transformational, transactional, and laissez faire. The second predictor variable, *male* and *female*, is self-reported by the participants. The independent variable, *leadership styles*, is reported by the MLQ. The criterion variable, *perceived self-efficacy*, will be reported by the General Self-Efficacy Scale. Self-efficacy is defined as the belief in overcoming challenges with a “can-do” attitude (Bandura, 1997).

Significance of the Study

Duevel, Nashman- Smith, and Stern (2015) and Wolfram and Gratton (2014) acknowledged that women are entering higher leadership positions. Understanding social constructs in educational leadership is necessary as more women are striving for higher level educational leadership. Currently, males dominate higher-level positions in education (Zhao & Jones, 2017). Research is needed to evaluate the social constructs between males and females in educational leadership (Choge, 2015; Diehl & Dzubinski, 2016; Paustian-Underdahl 2012; Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014; Walker & Woehr, 2014; Weiner & Burton, 2016).

Various social constructs of gender differences have been studied; however, other factors in gender have yet to be examined (Diehl & Dzubinski, 2016; Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014; Walker & Woehr, 2014). One of the social constructs in gender roles that has high consequences is gender differences in self-efficacy (Baeman, Duflo, Pande, & Topalova, 2012; Weiner & Burton 2016). Confidence is one of the greatest indicators of successful leadership (Adeyemi & Bolarinwa, 2013; Khalil et al., 2016, Lussier & Achua, 2015).

Eagly (1995) highlights the complexities of leadership style and effectiveness. Increasingly since then, researchers have suggested more studies regarding gender and effective leadership styles (Choge, 2015; Diehl & Dzubinski, 2016; Khalil et al., 2016; Paustian-Underdahl 2012; Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014; Walker & Woehr, 2014; Zhao & Jones, 2017). Although differences among leadership effectiveness in gender roles have been considered insignificant, it is necessary to further analyze the role of gender role theory and the role congruity theory (Avci, 2015; Brandt & Laiho, 2013; Magee, 2012; Paustian-Underdahl, 2012; Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014; Weiner & Burton 2016). Inconsistent findings in leadership effective with regards to leadership styles and gender supports the need for further research. For example, females are perceived as more effective educational leaders in certain leadership styles (Khalil et al., 2016; Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014; Zhao & Jones, 2017). Incongruent gender roles of leadership styles may influence a leader's self-understanding and confidence (Eagly, 2002; Weiner & Burton, 2016; Zhao & Jones, 2017). Leadership styles are continuously researched and valued in the educational community with a strong emphasis on the transformational leadership style (Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Khalil et al., 2016; Sayadi, 2016).

Internationally, high-quality leadership is needed in the educational system, which needs to include females who have high-quality leadership characteristics. Female leader

representation is lacking internationally due to unequal opportunities with challenges that include lack of promotion, male dominated leadership roles, and lack of self-esteem (Choge, 2015).

While some international educational systems recognize that female leaders are just as effective as male leaders, there are still discrepancies in equal gender representation in educational leadership (Choge, 2015; Zhao & Jones, 2017). An example of a discrepancy with gender and leadership style preference is that transformational leadership is considered to be the most effective type of leadership, but transactional leadership is favored in some communities (with females exhibiting more transactional characteristics in these communities) (Abu-Tineh, 2013; Duevel et al., 2015, Khalil et al., 2016).

Various mediators influence high-quality educational leadership (Lussier & Achua, 2015; Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014). Some mediators that influence female representation in high-quality educational leadership include factors like motherhood, familial obligations, and lack of many female leader role models, which is a pipeline problem in various employment sectors (Choge, 2015; Diehl & Dzubinski, 2016; Hewlett, Peraino, Sherbin, & Sumberg; 2010). However, there is a growing change in the type of preferred leadership style because the definition of high-quality leadership is changing, with leadership characteristics no longer pinholed as being of masculine characteristics (Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014).

Leaders must be confident in their endeavors to motivate those in their group. Confidence, or self-efficacy, increases performance, and it is a powerful component, which allows greater transfer of knowledge in organizations (Khalil et al., 2016; Mittal & Dhar, 2015). Gender differences can affect the self-efficacy of a leader. Meanwhile, self-efficacy is arguably the most important outcome, which indicates a successful leader of an organization (Adeyemi & Bolarinwa, 2013; Lussier & Achua, 2015).

According to the trait theory paradigm, numerous factors contribute to excellent leadership. Self-efficacy is key in the success of a leader, yet leadership styles also are a major factor in the success of the organization under that leadership (Lussier & Achua, 2015). Self-efficacy, as the initial model, can assist in guiding models that yield important findings on leadership (McCormick, 2001). Leadership styles identify strengths and weaknesses in the leader and are used as a tool to further train effective educational leaders (Bass & Avolio, 2015).

In this study, gender roles and leadership styles are studied through the dependent variable *perceived self-efficacy*. The focus of self-efficacy adds to the research of mediators influencing the effect of gender on educational leadership. Continuous research adds to the international knowledge on current educational leadership and on social constructs that influence effective education and training (Adeyemi & Bolarinwa 2013; Diehl & Dzubinski, 2016; Ezzedeen et al., 2015; Lussier & Achua, 2015; Machida-Kosuga et al., 2016). The results of this study help build a model to help understanding and further educate leaders. Educational leaders such as superintendents, school principals, hiring staff, instructional leaders, and educational professors would benefit from the results of this study.

Research Question

RQ1: Is a model based on gender and leadership style a statistically significant predictor of perceived self-efficacy?

Definitions

1. *Construct*: Factors that may influence leadership (Eagly & Kite, 1987).
2. *Self-efficacy*: The attitude derived from the social cognitive theory that an individual can accomplish a goal (Bandura, 1997).

3. *Gender Role Theory*: Traditional gender roles are associated with certain genders. Females are associated with nurturing characteristics while males are associated with independent characteristics (Eagly & Karau, 2002).
4. *Role Congruity Theory*: People favor characteristics that are congruent with the gender role theory. For example, a female has higher ratings when she is associated with communal characteristics, while men have higher ratings when they are associated with agentic characteristics (Eagly & Karau, 2002).
5. *Leadership style*: There are three types of leadership styles: transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire (Bass & Avolio, 2015).
6. *Transformational Leadership Style*: Transformational leadership style is identified as having five focused characteristics: idealized influences (attributes), idealized influences (behaviors), inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration (Bass & Avolio, 2015).
7. *Transactional Leadership Style*: Transactional leadership has two transaction styles: contingent reward and management-by-exception (active) (Bass & Avolio, 2015).
8. *Laissez-faire Leadership Style*: Laissez-faire leadership is a passive form of leadership and often described as “avoidant behavior.” This type of leadership acts upon mistakes or avoidance (Bass & Avolio, 2015).
9. *Pipeline Perspective*: Individuals will eventually meet their higher potential with more role models and leadership role opportunities (Ezzedeen, Budworth, & Baker, 2015).
10. *Trait Theory Paradigm*: All of the traits studied in research for leadership (Lussier & Achua, 2015).

11. *Social Cognitive Theory*: When cognitive processes are limited, people follow society's environmental patterns (Eagly & Karau, 2002).
12. *Social Role Theory*: Society dictates expectations for social roles, such as the behavior of males and females (Eagly & Karau, 2002).
13. *Glass Ceiling*: A barrier due to stereotypes (Frenkiel, 1984).
14. *Double Binds*: Supported by the role congruity theory, females receive judgment on both ends of the spectrum of characteristics when they have both agentic and communal characteristics. (Ibarra, Ely & Kolb, 2013).
15. *Second-generation Gender Bias*: This describes the pattern of the lack of gender representation due to the previous generation's lack of gender representation (Ibarra, Ely, & Kolb, 2013).
16. *Role Models*: A person that represents a prototype of the desired characteristic (Ibarra et al., 2013).
17. *Agentic*: Agentic characteristics include being "aggressive, ambitious, dominant, independent, self-sufficient, self-confident and prone to act as a leader" (Eagly & Karau, 2002, p. 574).
18. *Communal*: Communal characteristics include being sensitive, a people-person, considerate, gentle, and nurturing (Paustian-Underdahl, Walker, & Woehr, 2014).
19. *Inequality*: Unequal differences in important aspects of life, such as job opportunities, pay, unequal representation, and treatment (Paustian-Underdahl, Walker, & Woehr, 2014).

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

Overview

Factors of quality leadership are frequently researched and various companies use the research to train their leaders (Diehl & Dzubinski, 2016; Ibarra, Ely, & Kolb, 2013; Lussier & Achua, 2015). A range of factors influence the quality of leadership, including leadership styles (Adeyemi & Bolarinwa, 2015; Khalil et al., 2016; Lussier & Achua, 2015). Leadership styles include transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire in educational leadership.

Transformational leadership style includes qualities like building cohesion, integrity, encouragement, and coaching people. Transactional leadership style includes qualities like rewards and correcting mistakes. The last leadership style, laissez-faire, is described as more of a loosely-managing leader, where the people are trusted until a correction needs to be made (Bass & Avolio, 2004; Khalil et al., 2016; Lussier & Achua, 2015; Onorato, 2013; Sayadi, 2016). Various leadership styles exist in the educational workplace. Social aspects influencing or influenced by those leadership styles have been studied, such as gender (Brandt & Laiho, 2013; Choge, 2015; Diehl & Dzubinski, 2016; Mberia, 2016; Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014; Weiner & Burton, 2016; Zhao & Jones, 2017).

In addition to the social aspect of gender in leadership styles, self-efficacy in gender has been discussed and questioned as a defining factor for successful leadership (Beaman, Duflo, Pande, & Topalova, 2012). Self-efficacy is a strong factor in attaining goals for all people because it is the “can do” attitude or belief that a goal is attainable (Adeyemi & Bolarinwa, 2013; Bandura, 1997). For instance, self-efficacy is intertwined in theoretical frameworks with regards to gender and educational leadership (Adeyemi & Bolarinwa, 2013; Eagly & Karau, 2004). The

social cognitive theory is the influence of gender stereotypes on male and female roles in the workplace (Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014).

While countless leadership traits contribute to high-quality leadership, there is a need to study the factors and any possible relationships in leadership styles, gender, and self-efficacy (Diehl & Dzubinski, 2016). Not only do the traits individually affect leadership, but the traits in relation to each other affect leadership effectiveness. Traits affect leadership behavior, and the greatest challenge of organizations today is how to cope with the changing times (Lussier & Achua, 2015, Zhao & Jones, 2017).

Theoretical Framework

Trait Theory Paradigm

When researchers analyze the specific characteristics and factors for effective leadership, this is called “leadership trait theories.” Specific traits and characteristics are used consistently to train better leaders for their organizations (Lussier & Achua, 2015). This is a complex endeavor; thus, a limitless amount of research has been done on leadership and the continuing research in leadership (Dahlvig & Longman, 2014; Lussier & Achua, 2015). This serves a great purpose, as the knowledge acquired from research promotes efficient and motivational work in all organizations (Lussier & Anchua, 2015). The trait theory is enhanced when studied in conjunction with self-efficacy (Ng, Ang, & Chan, 2008).

Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership was originally coined by Downton (1973) when referencing rebel leaders. Burns (1978) identified key characteristics that are a part of transformational leadership in *Leadership*. Transformational leadership includes the following characteristics: idealized influences (attributes), idealized influences (behaviors), inspirational motivation,

intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration. These five focused characteristics are part of the transformational leadership style (Bass & Avolio, 2015). Before the findings on transformational leadership, leadership was largely described as interactions or transactions between the leaders and their followers. Transactional leadership was found in many great leaders, but transformational characteristics were found in the greatest leaders (Downton, 1973).

Transactional Leadership

Transactional leadership has two transaction styles: contingent reward and management-by-exception (active). Transactional leadership is known as a relational leadership style. These are considered semi-strong leadership characteristics, depending on the management of the style (Active management is considered part of the transactional leadership, whereas passive management is a step down to a laissez-faire leadership.) (Bass & Avolio, 2015; Sayadi, 2016; Zareen et al., 2015).

Laissez-Faire Leadership

Laissez-faire leadership is a passive form of leadership and often described as “avoidant behavior.” This type of leadership acts upon mistakes or avoidance. The two characteristics are: management-by-exception (passive) and laissez faire, which means to avoid involvement. This is considered a weak form of leadership due to the passivity and ineffectiveness of the characteristics this leadership style employs (Bass & Avolio, 2015).

Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy is the belief and confidence that one has the ability to accomplish his goals (Bandura, 1997). High self-efficacy is attributed with higher success while lower self-efficacy does not result in satisfactory results (Dahlvig & Longman 2014; Lussier & Achua, 2015). The effects of having high self-efficacy have been studied across many organizations (Carleton et al.,

2018; Ng et al., 2008). One of the most important components in leadership is allowing leaders to solve problems creatively, which requires high self-efficacy (Mittal & Dhar, 2015). Bandura (1982) outlines four factors of self-efficacy: “performance mastery or success experiences, vicarious experiences, verbal persuasion, and psychological or emotional arousal” (Carleton, 2018, p. 185). High self-efficacy is critical to have a positive outlook, which is one of the most valuable effects of having high self-efficacy (Carleton et al., 2018).

Social Cognitive Theory

The environment of an educational leader affects the effectiveness of a leader. The social cognitive theory proposes that those who are in a setting of higher social hierarchical stress are more likely to follow stereotypical roles (Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014). Women have certain stereotypes in how they should behave and what they should act like in the workplace (Choge, 2015; Heilman, 2001; Longman & Anderson, 2016; Zhao & Jones, 2017). Research in social cognitive theory supports the notion that when cognitive context is limited, people are more likely to make judgments and rely on stereotypes based on the environment (Choge, 2015; Eagly & Karau, 2002; Zhao & Jones, 2017).

Social Role Theory

Along with social cognitive theory is the social role theory. Social roles study the prejudice and stereotypes in organizations. Society dictates the expectations for social roles, including the behavior of males and females. These expectations for males and females are attributed to the gender role theory, which gives certain behaviors or personalities to males and females. Stereotypes for males and females are one of the most abundant expectations in society (Choge, 2015; Eagly & Karau, 2002; Longman & Anderson, 2016; Wood & Eagly, 2012; Zhao & Jones, 2017).

Gender Role Theory

According to the gender role theory, some characteristics are considered more male while other characteristics are considered more female (Choge, 2015; Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt, & Van Engen, 2003; Longman & Anderson, 2016; Zhao & Jones, 2017). For example, females are considered to be more nurturing, community-driven, forgiving, and encouraging while males are considered to be more confident, in control, powerful, and independent. These characteristics can be attributed to a high-quality, successful leader. However, people may perceive certain characteristics differently for the different genders even though they agree that both genders are capable of being a high-quality leader (Choge, 2015; Eagly & Karau, 2002; Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014; Zhao & Jones, 2017). A discrepancy between the gender and the societal expectations for that gender role is an incongruent characteristic. Incongruent characteristics are explained by the role congruity theory (Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014; Zhao & Jones, 2017).

Role Congruity Theory

When roles are incongruent to the gender, society is less accepting. For example, females who are in leadership positions and do not display the traditional female gender roles have lower favorability ratings than the ratings for men (Koch, D'Mello, & Sackett, 2015; Longman & Anderson, 2016; Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014; Silva et al., 2012). Despite the overall effectiveness, females will receive lower ratings according to the role congruity theory (Koch et al., 2015). Male and female educators' perception on women in leadership and culture affect the number of women in higher leadership positions. Incongruent gender roles influence the self-efficacy of the individual, despite the overall effectiveness (Choge, 2015; Eagly, et al., 2003, Longman & Anderson, 2016).

Related Literature

Leadership

Successful leadership is a critical component of successful organizations, and research is teeming with suggestions on how to adapt alongside the changes that are occurring (Lussier & Achua, 2015; Stempel et al., 2015). Leadership is the process of influencing others with confidence and a certain power, while achieving the overall goals of the group. The transfer of knowledge in the organization is highly dependent on the leader's overall effectiveness (Mittal & Dhar, 2015; Riaz & Khalili, 2014). Leadership effectiveness has numerous components, with leadership styles being an essential component.

Leadership styles can be separated into autocratic and democratic styles (Adeyami & Bolarinwa, 2013). In a different fashion, leadership styles can be separated into various categories. One of the ways to divide the categories is as follows: transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire (Bass & Avolio, 2015; Onorato, 2013).

Among those leadership styles, transformational and transactional leadership receive much of the attention in research due to their effectiveness in higher stakes leadership (Dai et al., 2013; Lussier & Achua, 2015). Depending on the situation, atypical research has found that transformational leadership was not the highest ranking, and a type of laissez-faire leadership styles could be preferred (Wong & Giessner, 2015; Zareen et al., 2015). However, typically, transformational leadership is seen as the most effective type of leadership (Bass & Avolio, 2015; Onorato, 2013; Sayadi, 2016).

Transformational leadership was first coined by Downton (1973) to describe a different type a leadership, a rebel leader. Very little was known about the specific indications of a transformational leader until Burns (1978) described the characteristics as researchers know

them today. Currently, Burns and Bass are the key researchers in these types of leadership styles (Lussier & Achua, 2015). The three main leadership styles are aligned in a continuum with a) active and passive management styles and b) effective and ineffective leadership (Bass & Avolio, 2015).

Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership has been a focus research for 30 years (Zhu, Sosik, Riggio, & Yang, 2012). Transformational leadership, exhibiting both autocratic and democratic styles, is considered the most effective type of leadership (Adeyemi & Bolarinwa, 2013; Carli & Eagly, 2016; Eagly et al., 2003; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Wang, Oh, Courtright, & Colbert, 2011). “J.M. Burns first articulated the idea of transformational leadership in 1978 before Bernard Bass expanded on it almost a decade later” (Lussier & Achua, 2015, p. 347).

Charismatic leadership is often associated with transformational leadership, as these individuals have a keen sense of self-understanding. With this greater understanding of self, the leader is able to employ a greater sense of purpose in the overall organization. Not only do these individuals focus on the greater purpose, they enact stewardship and give the responsibilities to the individuals in their organization. Confident leaders empower the entire group; they have vision, excellent communication skills, and exhibit selflessness (Lussier & Achua, 2015). Heads of schools who are transformational leaders can be extraordinarily motivating and subsequently increase job satisfaction and performance (Sayadi, 2016).

Transformational leadership is considered the most effective type of leadership style in very successful leaders like Oprah, Steve Jobs, and CEOs of major companies (Lussier & Achua, 2015). Under transformational leadership, there is a positive correlation between effectiveness of the leader, job satisfaction, and the organization; this type of charismatic leadership was

accepted by the organization (Sayadi, 2016). Under transformational leadership, the overall performance and productivity is increased, and it is the most prevalent style found in highly successful leaders (Khalil et al., 2016).

While transformational leadership is constantly praised for its quality characteristics, more attention needs to be given to leadership styles for training purposes (Dai et al., 2013; Lussier & Achua, 2015; Stempel et al., 2015; Zhu et al., 2012). In some situations, another leadership style may be more effective than the highly-praised transformational leadership style (Dai et al., 2013; Lussier & Achua, 2015). Differences exist between males and females who exhibit the transformational leadership style. Furthermore, differences exist among the perceptions between male and female leaders. (Mberia, 2016, Stempel et al., 2015). More research consisting of educational leaders will contribute to the knowledge base of leadership styles, gender, and self-efficacy (Khalil et al., 2016, Lussier & Achua, 2015).

Example of transformational leaders are people who are sensitive to peoples' needs, believe in their organization, exhibit flexibility, and take risks (Lussier & Achua, 2015). Transformational leaders are more effective in an environment of creativity. Some of these attributes may be associated with those of high self-efficacy or differing genders (Mbera, 2016).

Characteristics of transformational leadership. Transformational leadership is one of the highest quality leadership styles in an organization. Characteristics of this leadership include: building trust, acting with integrity, encouraging others, encouraging innovative thinking, and coaching and developing people (Bass & Avolio, 2015; Onorato, 2013; Sayadi, 2016). These characteristics can range between years of experience, training, and gender. It can also range between a self-rater and those who rate that leader (Longman & Anderson, 2016;

Stempel et al., 2015; Weiner & Burton 2016; Zhao & Jones, 2017). Transformational leadership is marked with the “5 I’s” of characteristics.

Characteristic: builds trust (idealized influence – attributes). The first characteristic, “builds trust” the first of the “I’s” in transformational leadership: “idealized influence-attributes”. The “builds trust” characteristic is a personal description of the transformational leader, in which these leaders exude confidence and faith in themselves and in others. Followers are pleased to be associated with this type of honest, self-respecting, person who seeks the good of the group (Bass & Avolio, 2015; Onorato, 2013).

Characteristic: acts with integrity (idealized influence – behaviors). The second of the “I’s” in transformational leadership is: “idealized influence- behaviors.” The “acts with integrity” characteristic is another personal description of the transformational leader, in which their overall belief system and values in the organization are unanimously upheld by the followers. Due to the followers’ faith in this type of leader, the purpose and mission is vehemently supported (Bass & Avolio, 2015; Onorato, 2013).

Encourages others: inspirational motivation. The third of the “I’s” in transformational leadership is: “inspirational motivation.” The “encourages others” characteristic has to do with the leaders’ ability to motivate the group from inward personal conviction to outward organizational action. The leader has the ability to inspire the others in the group of the possibilities and opportunities of meaningful change (Bass & Avolio, 2015; Onorato, 2013).

Encourages innovative thinking (intellectual stimulation). The fourth of the “I’s” in transformational leadership is: “intellectual stimulation.” An open environment invites all members of the organization to take ownership in solving unique problems and a collaborative

mindset allows followers in the organization to have renewed excitement in their work (Bass & Avolio, 2015; Onorato, 2013).

Coaches and develops people (individual consideration). The fifth characteristic is the final “I” in transformational leadership: “individual consideration.” Transformational leaders offer their valuable time to invest their resources into their followers. By considering these individuals, the people in the organization feel recognized and are willing to give their best efforts (Bass & Avolio, 2015; Onorato, 2013). This sub-category of transformational leadership had a significant regression for positive ratings in job satisfaction and employee commitment (Sayadi, 2016).

Transactional Leadership

Challenging the strongly advocated transformational leadership, at times, transactional leadership in school administrators was found to be more comfortable for some teachers with a strong indication of job satisfaction. Transactional leaders focus on promoting stability among the group and often give bonuses to those who supersede their goals (Lussier & Achua, 2015; Sayadi, 2016). Transactional leaders are able to define clear expectations and provide obvious rewards and consequences for negative performance (Bass & Avolio, 2015; Gilani, Cavico & Mutjaba, 2014; Zareen et al., 2015). Transactional leaders are well-accepted by the individuals in the organization, as transactional leaders use rationale and logic to solve problems (Riaz & Khalili, 2014; Sayadi, 2016).

Transactional leadership is very much respected across many organizations and careers. For example, in banking employees, Zareen, Razzaq, and Mutjaba (2015) found that all three leadership styles had positive outcomes for the employees, ranking with transactional leadership at the top, laissez-faire in the middle, and transformational leadership at the lowest. Another case

of high preference for transactional leadership may be dependent on gender. Female administrators who exhibited transactional leadership were found to be more effective than male administrators who displayed the transactional leadership style (Khalil et al., 2016).

Transactional leadership is perceived to be less effective than transformational leadership, but in the case of gender differences, it can be the preferred leadership style for the school (Khalil et al., 2016).

Characteristics of transactional leadership. Transactional leadership is separated into two sub-categories: a) contingent rewards and b) management-by-exception (active) (Bass & Avolio, 2015; Khalil et al., 2016; Lussier & Achua, 2015; Onorato, 2013; Sayadi, 2016). Two sub-categories exist for this leadership style while transformational leadership exhibited five sub-categories. These two sub-categories determine the range of transactional leadership exhibited by the leader.

Characteristic: rewards achievement (contingent reward). Transactional leaders are able to voice reasonable expectations for the group, and the individuals of the group feel safe in the realms of the goals that need to be achieved. Individuals express overall satisfaction with their treatment in exchange for their efforts (Bass & Avolio, 2015, Dai et al., 2013). The rewards achievement characteristic was seen as positive by raters (Bass et al., 1996). Sayadi (2016) found a positive regression for job satisfaction and commitment in this sub-category of the transactional leadership style.

Characteristic: monitors deviations and mistakes (management-by-exception: active). By establishing clear expectations, the individuals in the group believe the leader is fair and takes immediate action for issues that arise. The organization feels as if their work is valued and meaningful. The group feels as though they can depend on the leader to take actions if there are

problems (Bass & Avolio, 2015). Sayadi (2016) found a positive regression for job satisfaction and commitment in this sub-category of the transactional leadership style.

Relationship Between Transformational and Transactional Leadership

Burns believed that transformational leadership was far superior and separate from transactional leadership; however, Bass believed that the two leadership styles were linked together and complemented each other, depending on the situation (Lussier & Achua, 2015). Transformational and transactional leadership can be found on a continuum in the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, with emphasis on a) active and passive management, and b) effective and ineffective management (Bass & Avolio, 2015). Most research will support transformational leadership as the most effective leadership style, but it will also support more transactional leadership styles in different scenarios (Adeyemi & Bolarinwa, 2013; Carli & Eagly, 2016; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Wang et al., 2011, Zareen et al., 2015). In both the transformational and transactional leadership styles, Sayadi (2016) found a positive regression between the leadership style and job satisfaction and commitment in the organization. Additional research would clarify the relationship between leadership styles.

Transactional leadership has been compared to the managers in an organization, who plan to attain the leader's vision. Without both the managers and the leader, the organization would not be as effective (Lussier & Achua, 2015). Dai, Dai, Chen and Wu (2013) found in their research on business leadership that both leadership styles are equally important. Showing the interdependence of the two leadership styles raises more questions for the type of leadership styles necessary in the education field. Transactional leadership should not be overlooked, as it may be useful in different situations (Dai et al., 2013).

Laissez-Faire Leadership

A laissez-faire leadership style is marked by trusting the individuals of the group to have more of a share of the power and influence in the overall goals of the group. Laissez-faire leadership is a non-leadership style. It is considered an extremely passive leadership style with the absence of meaningful and effective transactions between the leader and individuals of the organization. It is marked by avoidance of making decisions or taking any actions (Amanchukwu, Stanley, & Oloolube, 2015; Bass & Avolio, 2015; Onorato, 2013; Sayadi, 2016). Sayadi (2016) found a negative regression for laissez-faire leadership in relation to job satisfaction and commitment. This agrees with most research on laissez-faire leadership (Bass & Avolio, 2015; Onorato, 2013). Laissez-faire leadership can give team members more freedom with just the mere guidance of resources and advice; if the team members are responsible and competent, this leadership style would suffice in certain situations. If team members are incompetent, this leadership style can be extremely destructive (Amanchukwu et al., 2015).

Laissez-faire leadership is ambiguous in nature, and it may be seen as a stressor for the individuals in the group; clear expectations are not defined as they would be in a transactional leader (Skogstad et al., 2014). This type of leadership may wait until there are larger problems before stepping in to take control of the situation (Bass & Avolio, 2015). Various negative traits are associated with laissez-faire leadership (Bass & Avolio, 2015; Onorato, 2013; Skogstad et al., 2014).

Although this type of leadership style is commonly considered a weaker type of leadership, there are more layers to be understood (Adeyemi & Bolarinwa 2013; Yang, 2015). There is certainly a biased view of laissez-faire leadership, and it is seen as the lesser leadership style on the opposite spectrum of transactional leadership (Yang, 2015). Skogstad, Hetland,

Glaser, and Einarsen (2014) found the laissez-faire leadership to be prevalent in modern organizations. Research suggests that laissez-faire leadership can have positive outcomes and does not necessarily mean non-strategic or absent leadership, for autonomous individuals in an organization may be capable of more responsibility in tasks (Ryan & Tipu, 2013; Yang, 2015). In some unique cases: if the goal is to create a more demanding work environment, laissez-faire leadership may be the most effective leadership (Skogstad et al., 2014). The followers have higher expectations to figure out their own problems (Sayadi, 2016). For organizations that appreciate more autonomy where individuals are self-controlled, this type of leadership may be preferred with job satisfaction and above-average productivity (Amankwue et al., 2015). This type of leadership could only work if there are easy decisions to make, and it is helpful if there is an astounding number of decisions to make in an organization (Sayadi, 2016). Still, this leadership style is associated with potential destructive effects to subordinates within the organization (Skogstad et al., 2014).

Laissez-faire itself is a passive form of leadership, but there is also an active form of this leadership. The underlayers of the laissez-faire type of leadership need to be further studied to discover their implications. The active form of this leadership is called empowering leadership (Wong & Giessner, 2015). In modern organizations, middle management positions are reduced, causing a heavier strain on upper management positions. With fewer middle management positions, empowering leadership styles can delegate and share the responsibility among the individuals in the organization. Empowering leadership is not one of the leadership styles in the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (laissez-faire leadership is included); however, there may be more positive attention given to the active form of this leadership style. More research is

necessary to explore the true effects of an active form of laissez-faire leadership (Wong & Giessner, 2015, Yang 2015).

Laissez-faire is described as a passive form of leadership, where the leader will step in—only when necessary. Overall, Bass and Avolio (2015) and Wong and Giessner (2015) describe this passive form of leadership as having destructive impacts on the organization. Only unique situations have been given positive ratings for the laissez-faire leadership style (Skogstad et al., 2014). As research on this topic is scarce, more research with a neutral view on laissez-faire leadership could lead to better understanding of the behavior and real effects of this type of leadership (Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Ryan & Tipu, 2013; Skogstad et al., 2014; Wong & Giessner, 2015; Yang, 2015; Zareen et al., 2015).

Characteristics of laissez-faire leadership. Laissez-faire leadership is separated into two sub-categories: a) management-by-exception (passive) and b) avoids involvement (laissez-faire). The laissez-faire leadership style is a passive form of management and can be ineffective to the group (Bass & Avolio, 2015; Onorato, 2013). Laissez-faire leadership along with transactional leadership both have two sub-categories, while transformational leadership has five sub-categories. Laissez-faire leaders have ranges within these two sub-categories.

Characteristic: fights fires (management-by-exception: passive). In the “fight fires” characteristic, the leader does not act until the situation becomes problematic. Those responsible for the problem are often met with punitive consequences. The leader does not become involved in the organization’s affairs unless it is to solve a serious issue. The difference between the management-by-exception in the laissez-faire style and the transactional style is that transactional leaders will actively be involved in issues before they become emergencies (Bass & Avolio, 2015).

Characteristic: avoids involvement (laissez-faire). This is the negative impact laissez-faire leadership can have on an organization. The leaders exemplifying laissez-faire characteristics are unavailable during urgent situations, and they remain uninvolved in decision-making issues. These leaders cannot promote positive change, and most likely, they will unintentionally support backsliding of the organization (Bass & Avolio, 2015).

Leadership and Self-efficacy

A leaders' self-confidence is the one of the most frequently-reported research topics with regards to successful leadership (Carleton, Barling, & Trivisno, 2018; McCormick, 2001; Chemers, Watson, & May, 2000). Leaders' positive effect and self-efficacy heavily influence leaders (Carleton et al., 2018). Being able to transfer knowledge and remain creative is an important component of leadership efficacy, and these traits are derived from having high self-efficacy (Khalil et al., 2016; Mittal & Dhar, 2015). Self-efficacy undoubtedly has high success with effective leadership (Caldwell & Hayes 2016; Carleton et al., 2018; Seibert, Sargent, Kraimer, & Kiazad, 2017). Leadership self-efficacy determines whether individuals will strive for higher leadership positions (Machida-Kosuga et al., 2016).

Gender and Leadership

More attention should be given to leadership with regards to gender to further improve leadership training (Khalil et al., 2016, Stempel et al., 2015). Providing more information on gender and leadership will minimize obstacles to reach higher level administrative positions (Machida-Kosuga et al., 2016). To understand the importance of the role of gender in leadership, researchers have constantly highlighted the developing questions in leadership regarding gender. Gender in leadership has been a research topic for decades, and the increasing female role in the work force consistently adds more research for better quality leadership

training (Carli & Eagly, 2016; Deloitte, 2013; Diehl & Dzubinski, 2016; Longman & Anderson, 2016; Zhao & Jones, 2017)

Eagly (2002) is a lead researcher in studying the effect of gender, particularly in the realm of education and educational leadership and has stated that gender is the most pertinent factor in employment than all other categories. Continuous research using social role theory, role congruity theory, and other leadership factors have undergone meta-analyses and have added to the abundance of material to further understand the issues of gender inequality (Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014; Stempel et al., 2015; Wood & Eagly, 2012). Understanding the effect of gender roles in the educational leadership hierarchy will enable all educators to be better colleagues and partners to a more successful school environment (Choge, 2015; Longman & Anderson, 2016; Lussier & Achua, 2015; Zhao & Jones, 2017). Wood and Eagly (2012) delve into the constant cycle that affects gender similarities differences in behavior where biology and society both deeply affect the individual. Eagly has been involved in countless research devoted to gender-related behavior and effects in society, highly-focused research with regards to the social role theory (Eagly, 1987, Eagly et al., 1995; Eagly et al., 2003; Eagly & Carli, 2007; Eagly & Karau, 2002; Eagly & Kite, 1987; Eagly & Steffen, 1984; Wood & Eagly, 2012).

According to the social role theory, women are associated with certain behaviors that are defined by society's expectations on that gender role (Choge, 2015; Longman & Anderson, 2016). Women are more commonly associated with staying at home than with building careers or seeking to advance their professional resume (Silva et al., 2012). Stereotypes have increased due to the breadth and diversity of women's careers, with many women occupying traditionally female-associated careers such as: secretaries and administrative assistants, registered nurses, elementary and middle school teachers, cashiers, retail salespersons, and nursing, psychiatric,

and home health aides (U.S. Department of Labor, 2011). Social roles have lingered to associate certain characteristics with specific genders despite growing changes in roles at home and at the workplace. Other stereotypes for females include being the primary caregiver, having “career immobility due to geographical immobility due to family responsibilities,” and lacking self-esteem to aggressively pursue higher leadership positions (Zhao & Jones, 2017, p. 30). Males are stereotyped as being unable to multitask and prioritizing work first over familial responsibility (Choge, 2015; Longman & Anderson, 2016).

Though more females have been acquiring higher leadership positions, cultural stereotypes hinder women from reaching their full potential as a group (Choge, 2015; Diehl & Dzubinski, 2016). Culturally, gender division of labor may manifest in developing countries where there may not be appropriate knowledge or access to birth control, tying up females with childbearing for many years (Wood & Eagly, 2012). While females in middle management positions are on the rise, their representation in higher leadership positions do not match up to the ratio of females in the education field (Zhao & Jones, 2017).

Supported by the second-generation bias, this unequal female representation is due to the stereotypes and contradicts the changing reality (Calas & Smircich, 2009; Diehl & Dzubinski, 2016; Ely & Meyerson, 2000; Kolb & McGinn, 2009; Longman & Anderson, 2016; Sturm, 2011). Rural communities, differing cultures, and certain religions can be affected by having more traditional mindsets, thus hindering the progress of finding more high-quality leaders, to include females (Choge, 2015; Longman & Anderson, 2016; Zhao & Jones, 2017). Gender can impact minute details like how a leader should dress (Mberia, 2016). Continuous research in different communities, cultures, and beliefs are being conducted to understand the data differences between gender (Choge, 2015; Mberia, 2016; Longman & Anderson, 2016; Zhao &

Jones, 2017). The reality is that trends are changing for females in leadership positions, education, and leadership effectiveness (Carli & Eagly, 2016; Longman & Anderson, 2016; United Nations, 2010; US National Center for Education Statistics International Parliamentary Union, 2015b). As the trends are changing, appropriate mentorship programs need to be refined for all rising groups (Choge, 2015; Zhao & Jones, 2017).

Gender and Self-efficacy

As more females are entering leadership positions (Duevel, Nashman-Smith, & Stern, 2015; Wolfram & Gratton 2014), a new era arises with more questions for understanding social constructs and the kind of challenges that may occur. These challenges must be studied to prepare and train future leaders to be effective, despite social constructs (Choge, 2015; Ibarra, Ely, & Kolb, 2013; Weiner & Burton, 2016). Self-efficacy affects gender behavior, and gender behavior is dependent on “situations, cultures, and historical periods” (Wood & Eagly, 2012, p. 56).

Though more females are breaking barriers, like the glass ceiling and role congruity theory, males dominate high-level positions (Duevel, Nashman-Smith, & Stern, 2015; Wolfram & Gratton; Ibarra, Carter, & Silva, 2009), few women progress to the senior level of leadership (Longman & Anderson, 2016; Zhao & Jones, 2017). Understanding incongruent gender roles and the effect on self-efficacy is important regarding each individual’s leadership style (Choge, 2015; Eagly, et al., 2003; Zhao & Jones, 2017). Women do not receive the same favorability in ratings as men, which can affect their self-efficacy (Koch et al., 2015; Weiner & Burton, 2016; Zhao & Jones, 2017). Regardless, gender alone does not dictate the effectiveness of a leader; however, research indicates various social constructs to be further studied regarding males and

females and their role in leadership (Choge, 2015; Diehl & Dzubinski, 2016; Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014; Weiner & Burton, 2016; Zhao & Jones, 2017)

Impact of Gender on Leadership

Traditionally, leadership roles were held by men, so not only is leadership changing, but leadership behavior with regards to gender is changing (Stempel et al., 2015). Gender is one contextual factor which influences leadership (Carli & Eagly, 2016). Gender is a frequently researched topic in leadership because of the lack of representation in higher-tiered roles in the government, politics, education, and corporate industry (Deloitte, 2013; Ernst & Young, 2014; Hausmann et al., 2014; Mberia, 2016). Diverse types of organization can rate differently for males and females. Women are rated higher for leadership effectiveness in business and education, whereas men are rated higher in government organizations (Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014). The majority of the research states that gender alone does not impact leadership competency; however, there is a mismatch between these findings and the patterns of the higher presence of males in senior level positions (Choge, 2015; Eagly & Carli, 2007; Weiner & Burton, 2016).

Males and females enter leadership roles with all their associated characteristics and stereotypes from society, as described by the social cognitive theory (Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014) and gender role theory (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Leadership has been an important topic of research study for chief executive officers (CEO's), education, and other organizations for leadership training (Ibarra, Ely, & Kolb, 2013; Lussier & Achua, 2015). The gender gap in leadership has changed in representation politically; female leadership is more prevalent than ever before (International Parliamentary Union, 2015c). Internationally, more women are presented in governmental positions and in public leadership positions (Choge, 2015; Ernst &

Young, 2014). Not only has there been an overall increase in leadership in political positions, but there has also been an increase in business leadership positions (Deloitte, 2013; Hausmann et al., 2014).

With the diminishing gender gap in leadership positions, companies refine their tactics in training quality leaders (Ibarra, Ely, & Kolb, 2013). Organizations must be able to adapt to changing situations within their environment while maintaining the most successful leaders to lead them (Lussier & Achua, 2015). Advancement in leadership positions, however, is not the only success for women. Now women are earning higher education degrees, which should translate into their equally high numbers in the labor force (Longman & Anderson, 2016; United Nations, 2010, U.S. Department of Education, 2012). Contrastingly, the number of men in the labor force has decreased, but men still hold most of the leadership positions in politics, business, and educational leadership (Carli & Eagly, 2016; Longman & Anderson, 2016; Zhao & Jones, 2017).

Consistently, research stated no difference between genders in leadership positions and their ability to lead (Choge, 2015; Eagly & Carli, 2007; Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014; Weiner & Burton, 2016). However, social constructs continue to dictate the presence of females in leadership positions (Carli & Eagly, 2016; Weiner & Burton, 2016; Zhao & Jones, 2017). Females in leadership positions can be caught in double binds, where women in leadership are not as favorable as men in leadership (Koch et al., 2015; Zhao & Jones, 2017). Those females in leadership positions potentially face scrutiny and may not only be misjudged for being assertive but also misjudged for being more nurturing (Ezzedeen et al., 2015; Ibarra, Ely, & Kolb, 2013; Zhao & Jones, 2017).

Gender inequality. Though gender gaps are diminishing, pay differences between males and females have not diminished (Mandel & Semyonov, 2014; Mberia, 2016). The hiring process for males have been described as smooth, yet females describe the process as a struggle, and they report more anxiety than their counterparts (Weiner & Burton, 2016). While there have not been outstanding differences between males and females at these levels, the male leader will have higher pay, bonuses, and more rewards. Females are often stuck in middle-management positions, but more research is necessary to understand the causes of unequal representation in senior level positions (Ezzedeen et al., 2015). It is necessary to study more of the factors in gender bias and how it could result in unequal pay rewards (Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014).

Equal gender representation in higher leadership positions does not measure up to the representation in lower or middle positions (Carli & Eagly, 2016; Zhao & Jones, 2017). One gender is not more effective in leadership than the other; however, the representation does not support this notion (Ibarra, Ely, & Kolb, 2013). Various studies have been conducted to measure leadership effectiveness between males and females, and discrepancies arise in rater favoritism and representation in female leadership (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Carli & Eagly, 2016; Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014). Further research is needed to better understand the contextual factors that influence the mismatch of gender representation in leadership (Beaman et al., 2012; Carli & Eagly, 2016; Choge, 2015; Diehl & Dzubinski, 2016; Hewlett, 2013; Ibarra et al., 2013; Palladino et al., 2016; Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014; Zhao & Jones, 2017).

Impact of Gender Representation and Self-Efficacy in Leadership

Gender differences are so deeply embedded into society that the individual factors cannot be distinguished separately; rather, the subtle biases regarding gender affect the validation and self-efficacy of these leaders (Dahlvig & Longman, 2014). The gender differences can be so

subtle that they are almost invisible (Diehl & Dzubinski, 2016). Differences can be subtle due to the growing diversity of fields that women are entering, so unbeknownst to society, the diversity of strains on females has increased. Young girls are socialized to follow very subtle gender roles, which impacts the course of their future (Wood & Eagly, 2012).

The lack of representation, or role models, in leadership affects the self-efficacy of the people in that group. Role models are necessary to reach effective leadership (Choge, 2015; Diehl & Dzubinski, 2016; Hewlett, 2013; Longman & Anderson, 2016). With more females in higher leadership positions, more females will have role models to reach success (Choge, 2015; Longman & Anderson, 2016). Females will be able to see themselves in higher positions in certain fields, challenging gender stereotypes. For example, fewer females seek to be scientists because of the lack of female scientist role models (Beaman et al., 2012). The underrepresentation of women in certain fields of study like science, technology, engineering, and math (STEM) is a pipeline problem: men will continue to dominate these fields until more women choose to enter these fields of study (Diehl & Dzubinski, 2016; U.S. Department of Education 2012).

To have more gender representation in leadership is to understand the social constructs that contribute to the current underrepresentation of females in higher educational leadership (Kaiser & Wallace, 2016). The actual leadership qualities of women and how women are perceived are mismatched (Ibarra, Ely, & Kolb, 2013; Zhao & Jones, 2017). Role congruity theory and leadership types contribute to this mismatch, and a greater understanding of barriers in self-efficacy will allow for better training of future leaders (Weiner & Burton, 2016; Zhao & Jones, 2017).

The glass ceiling. Gender stereotypes can create a phenomenon called the “glass ceiling” (Diehl & Dzubinski, 2016; Eagly & Steffen, 1984; Heilman, 2011). The “glass ceiling” phenomenon was coined by Gay Bryant (Frenkiel, 1984). Women in higher levels of leadership have consequences of gender bias in evaluations (Diehl & Dzubinski, 2016; Heilman, 2001; Weiner & Burton, 2016). The “glass ceiling” is represented as a barrier to women in leadership, which supports the sobering data that while there are high numbers of women teachers in education, there is not a parallel representation of women educators in higher leadership positions (Diehl & Dzubinski, 2016; Eagly & Steffen, 1984; Longman & Anderson, 2016; Silva et al., 2012).

Females dominate the educational workforce, but contrastingly, they are met with a glass ceiling when it comes to educational leadership. The glass ceiling can create a work space of more male representation in leadership (Choge 2015; Ibarra, Ely, & Kolb, 2013; Longman & Anderson, 2016). The absence of female leadership has several contextual causing factors, with the social aspect being one of them (Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014; Carli & Eagly, 2016). Self-efficacy, principal training programs, and leadership styles are social factors that affect female representation in leadership (Diehl & Dzubinski, 2016; Weiner & Burton, 2016). If a female is in a high leadership position, she may be tempted to adhere to her social script of maintaining feminine characteristics because raters tend to favor gender congruity (Longman & Anderson, 2016; Weiner & Burton 2016; Zhao & Jones, 2017). Favoring gender congruity and maintaining the social script is a roadblock in the career path for women.

In addition, women’s absence in higher level positions, lacking promotion, and receiving less pay, serves the overall “glass ceiling” effect (Carli & Eagly, 2016). Although mothers have

challenges in the workplace, despite these challenges, women still face other challenges in advancing their career (Carli & Eagly, 2016; Ezzedeen et al., 2015).

Increasingly, individual women have overcome barriers and become effective leaders; for example, female representation is growing in international politics (Christensen, 2015). Business leadership consists of both males and females in effective leadership (Davidson & Burke, 2011; Deloitte, 2013, Hausmann, Tyson, Bekhouche, & Zahidi, 2014). However, the glass ceiling seems to be lowered in education, especially in higher education organizations like colleges and universities (Longman & Anderson, 2016). While individual women can overcome the “glass ceiling,” overall, women have not overcome the barriers as a group (Carli & Eagly, 2016; Ibarra, Ely, & Kolb, 2013).

Double binds. Along with the “glass ceiling” metaphor is the double bind or double standards argument (Ibarra, Ely, & Kolb, 2013), which is supported by the role congruity theory (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Longman & Anderson, 2016). According to the social cognitive theory, a social space exists between gender and behavior. The double binds argument is the difference of expectations between males and females, and females receive judgment on both ends of the spectrum. Those females are negatively judged when they are too assertive, yet they are advised to be tougher if they are too soft as a leader (Ibarra, Ely & Kolb, 2013; Longman & Anderson, 2016; Zhao & Jones, 2017). Women are corrected when they are seeking power, higher pay, or when they are being too assertive (Carli & Eagly, 2016; Longman & Anderson, 2016; Zhao & Jones, 2017). More research for effective leadership and leadership qualities is necessary for training, and research scholars hope that this will prepare females to hold more leadership positions (Ibarra, Ely, & Kolb, 2013; Longman & Anderson, 2016; Weiner & Burton 2016), breaking the second-generation gender bias, which hinders females in higher positions (Calas &

Smircich, 2009; Ely & Meyerson, 2000; Kolb & McGinn, 2009; Sturm, 2011; Weiner & Burton 2016; Zhao & Jones, 2017).

Pipeline perspective. Contrary to the glass ceiling and double binds argument, the pipeline perspective suggests that females will eventually meet their higher potential in senior leadership roles given more time (Ezzedeen et al., 2015). Ibarra, Ely, and Kolb (2013) state that traditional approaches to the pipeline perspective is not enough to make significant changes. Rather, more research and education would be beneficial for a more reasonable female representation in higher-tiered management positions.

Second-generation gender bias. The second-generation gender bias is the pattern that hinders females from advancing in leadership positions and is an indirect consequence of the lack of professional training and female leader role models (Calas & Smircich, 2009; Ely & Meyerson, 2000; Ibarra et al., 2013; Kolb & McGinn, 2009; Longman & Anderson, 2016; Sturm, 2011, Weiner & Burton 2016). Ezzedeen, Budworth, and Baker (2015) suggest that the silence of universities regarding gender barriers is responsible for the pre-career women being ill-prepared for the obstacles they may face in the workforce. Due to the lack of role models, second-generation gender bias causes a lack of females in leadership positions due to cultural conventions (Diehl & Dzubinski, 2016; Ibarra, Ely, & Kolb, 2013). Research suggests seeking related factors surrounding stereotypical bias against females and is searching to have better understanding of the underrepresentation of females in higher leadership positions (Ibarra, Ely, & Kolb, 2013; Longman & Anderson, 2016).

Role models. The need for role models or mentors is a part of good leadership (Diehl & Dzubinski, 2016; Hewlett, 2013). Without role models, there will be fewer contenders for that position. A lack of female leader role models adds to the second-generation gender bias, which

is the continuous lack of female representation in leadership (Calas & Smircich, 2009; Choge, 2015; Ely & Meyerson, 2000; Ibarra et al., 2013; Kolb & McGinn, 2009; Longman & Anderson, 2016; Sturm, 2011).

Women do not have the same resources as men to reach the higher levels of leadership, such as role models, mentors, sponsorship, and networking capabilities (Hewlett, 2013; Longman & Anderson, 2016). There are fewer available opportunities for a trial-and-error run for leadership (King et al., 2012), so they are still in the situation of double binds judgment (Ibarra, Ely & Kolb, 2013; Zhao & Jones, 2017). Furthermore, the second-generation gender bias is impacted by the lack of role models.

Even for current role models, negativity surrounds their impact. Some pre-career women have a warped vision of those women who are already in senior leadership positions, believing the queen bee metaphor—that these senior women are competitive and “catty” and do not treat younger, ambitious, women with the same comradery that males would (Ezzedeen et al., 2015). Greater understanding of the bias will equip more qualified woman to become leaders, thus breaking the mold for the next generation of leaders (Ibarra, Ely, & Kolb, 2013; Longman & Anderson, 2016); this initiative to encourage women must start at an earlier age (Ezzedeen et al., 2015). Those people who can understand the bias and the social constructs of their leadership success will be able to achieve high positions through having higher self-efficacy (Beaman, Duflo, Pande, & Topalova, 2012).

Social roles/gender roles. Since Eagly’s numerous studies, the latest study in 2017, the participation in the labor force has increased. Fifty-seven percent of women participate in the labor force, which is a 6% increase since 1980 (U.S. Department of Labor, 2016). With the increase of women in the labor force, social roles may have been diminished slightly; however,

the implications of these social roles still affect gender leadership in education. Changing educational leadership with regards to education has been complex. Programs have been initiated to support the lack of females in higher educational leadership (Choge, 2015; Longman & Anderson, 2016). Gender roles have an impact on women's education, gender gap in labor force, pay, and leadership representation (United Nations, 2010).

Gender role differences. Despite the increase in the labor force, females are biologically responsible for bearing children and at least rearing newborns in their first moments of life (Wood & Eagly, 2012; Zhao & Jones, 2017). Maternity leave is treated as a top priority over paternity leave because the mother needs to recover from birth and delivery (Carli & Eagly, 2016; Choge, 2015). As a result, certain social duties and responsibilities are unequivocally associated with the female, which leads to the “pipeline problem.” The “pipeline problem” is when females have barriers in their career development because of additional social duties and responsibilities (Choge, 2015; Eagly & Karau, 2002; Longman & Anderson, 2016).

Continuing the social duties and responsibilities from home and childbirth are certain characteristics that are associated with females: “communal” characteristics. Communal characteristics focus on collaboration, which include being sensitive and nurturing (Eagly & Karau, 2002, p. 574; Longman & Anderson, 2016; Zhao & Jones, 2017). As a result, women are perceived as more easily swayed than men; whereas, men are willing to be confident and assertive (Eagly & Steffen, 1984). Both males and females can exemplify traits like sensitivity and aggression, but gender role expectations can dictate the expression of these traits (Wood & Eagly, 2012). They are also under the pressure of trying to stay within the sociocultural barriers because ambition and aggression coming from a female leader are not valued characteristics for some people (Zhao & Jones, 2017).

Therefore, women are considered communal and men are considered agentic (Eagly & Steffen, 1984). These agentic characteristics include being: “aggressive, ambitious, dominant, forceful, independent, self-sufficient, self-confident and prone to act as a leader” (Eagly & Karau, 2002, p. 574). These agentic characteristics are immediately seen as characteristics of leaders. In Biblical terms, the man is considered the leader of the family, and the woman supports the family. “For the husband is the head of the wife even as Christ is the head of the church, his body, and is himself its Savior” (Ephesians 5:23). Characteristics associated with leaders are heavily inundated with characteristics more commonly associated with men. The Council for Christian Colleges and Universities has recovered data to show, that due to the misunderstandings of leadership identity, there is an even higher disproportionate representation of females in higher education for evangelical non-profit organizations (Reynolds, 2014).

However, the characteristics of successful leaders of a group are not defined by gender alone: research studies stated no significant relations between success and gender (Choge, 2015). Longman and Anderson (2016) advocate for the process of discovering leadership identity, and that the talents must be developed for a variety of people for the greater calling to serve the people. For the sake of being one, the Bible clarifies, while still in conjunction with the role of male and females in the family, and states: “There is neither Jew nor Gentile, neither slave nor free, nor is there male and female, for you are all one in Christ Jesus” (Galatians 3:28).

Although gender holds different biological roles, research highlights the key issues of gender differences in “lack of promotion . . . unequal advancement opportunities . . . lack of role models, dominance of males in the leadership network, and the lack of self-esteem to seek administrative posts aggressively” (Choge, 2015, pg. 30). As a result, current pre-career women struggle with long-term career goals and worry about maintaining family-friendly careers. Pre-

career women are extremely undecided about their potential and any obstacles they may have to overcome (Ezzedeen et al., 2015).

Gender Role Congruity in Leadership

According to the social cognitive theory, a person will act upon their understanding of their social construct in society, which is their self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997). Gender has an impact on one's understanding of their social construct, which is their gender role in the culture of their society (Eagly et al., 1995; Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014; Zhao & Jones, 2017).

According to the social cognitive theory, certain characteristics are associated with masculinity and femininity (Bass, Avolio, & Atwater, 1996; Choge, 2015). Certain leadership styles are preferred among males and females depending on those characteristics (Khalil et al., 2016; Zhao & Jones, 2017).

For example, females are considered to be “affectionate, helpful, kind, sympathetic, interpersonally sensitive, nurturant and gentle” and males are considered to be “aggressive, ambitious, dominant, forceful, independent, self-sufficient, self-confident and prone to act as a leader” (Eagly & Karau, 2002, p. 574; Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014). These characteristics are important, as females in senior-level positions have noted that they felt like their characteristics were the most important aspects of being hired (Glass, 2001). While the male social roles are more seamlessly accepted by society for leadership characteristics, females face the two issues: a) being a good representation of their overall expected gender role and b) being an effective leader (Ibarra & Petriglieri, 2016; Silva et al., 2012).

Gender congruity/Role congruity theory. When the personality of a gender matches up to the associated gender role in society, this is considered “gender congruity.” Certain characteristics are considered more feminine while other characteristics are considered more

masculine. Congruency occurs when female leaders exhibit characteristics that are considered more societally feminine, and their counterparts are congruent if males exhibit characteristics that are considered more masculine (Choge, 2015; Longman & Anderson, 2016; Stempel et al., 2015; Zhao & Jones, 2017). Females who have an extremely high or low match for congruity may face negative consequences or perceptions from staff. As a result, females may stifle certain undesirable traits that are not culturally or socially valued (Zhao & Jones, 2017). However, gender alone does not affect leadership effectiveness (Choge, 2015; Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014).

Traditionally, leadership roles were held by men, so not only is leadership changing, but leadership behavior with regards to gender is changing (Stempel et al., 2015). The definitions of a leader are not pin-holed as having solely masculine characteristics (Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014). The role congruity theory must be further applied to different situations and explored. The role congruity theory supports what is happening at basic management level positions, but at the higher levels, data and effects seem to be contradictory. Continuous research adds to better understanding of “how perceptions of competence, as well as expectations of leader behaviors are needed for success at the top, affect perceptions of congruity and effectiveness” (Paustian et al., 2014, p. 1140).

Female leaders exemplifying female or male characteristics. If a female exemplifies the descriptive norms of female characteristics, the staff feels as if they perceive the female as she should be. Staff members do not negatively view their female leaders, but rather highlight those female characteristics more than they would for a male leader. Those female leaders who exhibit congruent characteristics are highly praised, and often praised for characteristics, such as having nurturing relations and the ability to multitask (Zhao & Jones, 2017). If a female leader

does not exhibit a congruent characteristic, but still has an effective characteristic that is considered more masculine, the perception is mixed among reviewers (Choge, 2015; Longman & Anderson, 2016). Therefore, females may conform to their more socially acceptable role so that they minimize disruption to the expected social role (Eagly et al., 1995; Zhao & Jones, 2017). However, if the female is not seen in her expected construct, then she may be considered hostile, though her male counterparts would not be described as such (Carli & Eagly, 2016; Zhao & Jones, 2017).

Nevertheless, females can overcome this initial hurdle, and eventually the structural perspective will set into the staff and faculty. The community needs more females in leadership, which also minimizes second-generation bias (Choge, 2015; Ibarra et al., 2013). This structural perspective suggests that the structure of the organization dictates the effectiveness of the leader, not gender (Eagly et al., 1995; Choge, 2015). More training that supports research of good leadership may encourage women to value all leadership characteristics. Males and females should not be seen as opposites but as people who have valued leadership characteristics, such as exerting leadership charisma (Zhao & Jones, 2017). Overall, the gap between gender incongruity and leadership skills may be coming closer together in modern organizations, but there are still uncertainties with inequality regarding the gender role theory and leadership (Stempel et al., 2015).

Male leaders exemplifying male or female characteristics. If males exemplify male characteristics, they are fitting the social role theory where the gender will participate in activities that suit their “culturally defined gender roles” (Eagly, et al., 1995, p. 125; Zhao & Jones, 2017). The “culturally defined gender roles” are expected and accepted quickly by the staff and faculty. On the other hand, males could exemplify both female and male characteristics

and may face discrimination for characteristics that are considered more feminine (Longman & Anderson, 2016). The mismatch of culturally-defined gender roles would be a reversal of effects. Both males and females in work groups must be studied to clarify these factors (Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014). For example, charisma in leadership can be a positive contextual factor, but it can quickly become the downfall in leadership and be seen as narcissism (Lussier & Achua, 2015; Weiner & Burton 2016).

Leadership Styles and Gender

New challenges arise with the concept of leadership due to the shifting changes in modern organizations and changes in gender roles (Stempel et al., 2015). Transformational leadership is found to be the most effective overall (Bass et al., 1996; Bass & Avolio, 2015). Brandt and Laiho (2013) found that there is no significance in gender differences in transformational leadership, yet personality and gender did affect self-ratings on their own leadership. There is discrepancy with how leaders are perceived through their leadership style based on gender, and research needs to be replicated on all organizational levels (Bass et al., 1996).

Females in transformational leadership. Bass, Avolio and Atwater (1996) found that there is no major difference in the number of females and males found in transformational leadership, while Khalil, Iqbal, and Khan (2016) found results contrary to these findings. Transformational leadership is preferred by females because of characteristics like encouragement and trust, which supports the role congruity theory (Brandt & Laiho, 2013; Eagly et al., 2003; Longman & Anderson, 2016). It includes communal characteristics, which include being loving, self-less, and being a caregiver (Brandt & Laiho, 2013; Choge, 2015; Zhao &

Jones, 2017). These characteristics are highly praised by educators and are identified as factors of successful leadership (Choge, 2015).

However, in certain sub-categories of transformational leadership, females faced discrimination because of the mismatch in the role congruity theory. The mismatch is in the sub-categories of: being innovative, a thinker, and a coach. These behavioral traits are associated with being more masculine, and in some results, more males exhibited this leadership style (Khalil et al., 2016; Zhao & Jones, 2017).

In some cases, raters preferred females who were transformational because of the congruency in gender roles (Choge, 2015; Eagly et al., 2003; Stempel et al., 2015).

Transformational leaders are able to guide individuals to their higher levels of Maslow's hierarchy of needs. With these traits, women in leadership are often praised for exhibiting communal characteristics in their position (Bass et al., 1996; Brandt & Laiho, 2013; Zhao & Jones, 2017).

A sub-characteristic such as "inspiring other individuals" or being a leader with flexibility is a feminine-associated trait (Lussier & Achua, 2015). Another feminine-associated sub-category was the "idealized influence behavior," but the female leaders did not have more respect and appreciation with this trait; this suggests an influence by the gender role theory (Stempel et al., 2015). Stempel, Rigotti, and Mohr (2015) found that the sub-categories "idealized influence" and "inspirational motivation" are gender-neutral in ratings. In sub-categories of the transformational leadership, there could be differing ratings among self-raters and peer-raters based on gender. While researchers and experts advocate for transformational leadership as the most effective (Carli & Eagly, 2016; Eagly et al., 2003; Judge & Piccolo, 2004;

Wang et al., 2011), women are still underrepresented in leadership positions (Abu-Tineh, 2013; Choge, 2015; Cubillo & Brown, 2003; Duevel et al., 2015; Lumby, 2015).

Males in transformational leadership. Transformational leadership is the most prevalent style found in school administrators. Khalil, Iqbal, and Khan (2016) found that there were more males who exhibited the transformational leadership style than females, which attributes to the differences cited in other research (Bass et al., 1996). Males in transformational leadership styles may have more congruency according to the gender congruity theory among certain sub-categories, and exhibit characteristics such as charisma, confidence, and high sense of purpose (Lussier & Achua, 2015). Depending on the sub-categories, research seems to have variations with gender in transformational leadership.

Females in transactional leadership. Stempel, Rigotti, and Mohr (2015) found that transactional leadership was generally gender-neutral. Transactional leadership is considered an effective leadership style, and in some cases, female administrators were found to be more effective in this leadership than their counter male administrators (Khalil et al., 2016). Females exemplified more of the sub-category of “contingent reward” (Stempel et al., 2015).

Males in transactional leadership. Transactional leadership was found to be gender-neutral, but both sub-categories were not gender-neutral (Stempel et al., 2015). The management-by-exception characteristics were found more in males than females (Bass et al., 1996; Stempel et al., 2015). Active management was deemed as a positive characteristic by raters, while passive management was deemed as a negative characteristic by raters (Bass et al., 1996).

Females in laissez-faire leadership. Overall, laissez-faire leadership style was found to be gender-neutral, suggesting differences between ratings of actual behavior and perceptions

based on the gender of the leader being rated (Stempel et al., 2015). Although laissez-faire was gender-neutral, workplace perceptions associated certain gender characteristics within this leadership. Relational characteristics in laissez-faire leadership are non-existent, as they are considered to be a passive-avoidant behavior (Bass & Avolio, 2015).

Males in laissez-faire leadership. The laissez-faire leadership style is often associated with having male characteristics due to the absence of “care” (Stempel et al., 2015). There is a lack of research in non-negative connotations for laissez-faire leadership. Therefore, more research with gender and laissez-faire leadership would add to the overall research demands for laissez-faire leadership (Wong & Giessner, 2015).

Self-Efficacy

The power of confidence in a leadership position is an underlying theme in research of many successful leaders (Lussier & Achua, 2015). Self-efficacy and its relationship with other leadership factors is a frequented topic of research (Choge 2015; Dahlvig & Longman, 2014; Ibarra, Ely, & Kolb 2013; Onorato, 2013). Self-efficacy is part of the social cognitive theory; self-efficacy is the ability to perform difficult challenging tasks with a “can-do” attitude (Bandura, 1997). High self-efficacy is attributed to more “can-do” attitudes, and low self-efficacy results in lack of action. Lack of action contributes to lack of leadership involvement. High self-efficacy individuals have more “can-do” attitudes and, eventually, can have more positive experiences. Those with high self-efficacy have more motivation and leadership opportunities (Beaman, Duflo, Pande, & Topalova, 2012). People with positive experiences can have more positive actions (Parschau, Fleig, Koring, Lange, Knoll, Schwarzer, & Lippke, 2013).

High self-efficacy benefits all organizations and leadership in those organizations. For example, for a leader in informational technology (IT), having high self-efficacy allows for

greater transfer of knowledge. Those with high self-efficacy can find unique solutions to their problems (Mittal & Dhar, 2015).

Overall leadership and self-efficacy. According to the social cognitive theory, a person will act upon their understanding of their social construct in society, which is their self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997). Certain traits affect leadership, and appropriate training creates effective leaders (Adeyemi & Bolarinwa, 2013, Lussier & Achua, 2015). The high sense of self-purpose and self-belief is empowering to the organization. Numerous factors affect self-efficacy, which in turn will affect overall leadership (Dahlvig & Longman 2014; Lussier & Achua, 2015; Onorato, 2013). The most effective leaders of all time have been associated with a high self-efficacy and confidence (Lussier & Achua, 2015).

Self-efficacy in leadership grows from validation. Others' perceptions of leadership shapes leaders' self-efficacy and greatly influences their self-awareness. From their self-efficacy, leaders develop their actual leadership competence (Dahlvig & Longman, 2014).

Gender and self-efficacy. There is a constant paradox of men and women being perceived differently than their actual leadership styles (Bass et al., 1996). Differences arise among self-raters and peer-raters in educational leadership and self-efficacy. Generally, men have shown higher confidence in self-ratings, sometimes even overestimating their effectiveness. Female self-ratings were found to be more consistent with the ratings from their peers (Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014). The attitudes in their ability and careers may be derived from earlier education, in which this education could even be the absence of gender-bias awareness that individuals may face in the future workplace (Ezzedeen et al., 2015).

Not only are there differences between self-raters and peer-raters, but there are also differences between genders when they rate themselves on their leadership. Males and females

differ in personality when rating themselves, adding to the social role theory and role congruity theory. Males and females also rated themselves differently on their overall leadership, suggesting a difference in self-efficacy even though they exhibited the same leadership style (Brandt & Laiho, 2013).

Men have shown higher levels of confidence while females tend to attribute successes to external factors. In lower level positions, men would rate themselves as significantly more effective than females. Contrastingly, in higher level positions, females were rated by others as more effective than their male counterparts (Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014). Although females are rated higher in senior level positions, Paustian-Underdahl, Walker, and Woehr (2014) suggest that females are rated higher due to double standards; females needed to have extra competence to override incongruity.

Role congruity theory and self-efficacy. In the role congruity theory, when there is a mismatch of behaviors and traits between the gender and societal expectations, the mismatch is not favored (Koch et al., 2015). A mismatch would be a female employing traits that are associated with male behavior, or a male employing traits that are associated with female behavior. Self-confidence can drop when society shuns the mismatched behavior (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Longman & Anderson 2016; Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014; Silva et al., 2012; Weiner & Burton, 2016)

Weiner and Burton (2016) shared a qualitative study of females describing that they could not be confident as leaders and were constantly under the umbrella of being permanent apprentices, whereas men could self-promote their status. Those females who were able to reach senior leadership positions as educational superintendents were noted as having high self-efficacy, and this self-efficacy was one of the largest influences in attaining their position

(Palladino et al., 2016). Therefore, females who are in those leadership positions must overcome the second-generation gender bias, thus creating more obstacles between them and senior educational leadership positions (Calas & Smircich, 2009; Ely & Meyerson, 2000; Ezzedeen et al., 2015; Kolb & McGinn, 2009; Sturm, 2011).

Leadership Styles and Self-Efficacy

Leadership styles: transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire, affect the self-efficacy of the leader. Individuals in the organization will perceive these leaders by their leadership style and their self-awareness. Self-efficacy and leadership styles are one of the copious factors in leadership that are interdependent (Dahlvig & Longman, 2014).

Transformational leadership and self-efficacy. Transformational leadership is seen as the most effective leadership style, as it involves movement and major changes by communicating a vision. Those with transformational leadership exhibit high self-efficacy, and the success of this type of leadership style is interrelated with such a high self-efficacy (Onorato, 2013, Carleton et al., 2018). These leaders are seen as charismatic leaders who have a high sense of self-belief by “knowing who [they] are based on [their] lifespan of experiences, motivation states, and action orientation” (Lussier & Achua, 2015, p. 331). However, having charisma does not necessarily equate to being a successful leader—it could promote to narcissism of a leader being “self-serving [and having] grandiose goals” (Lussier & Achua, 2015, p. 345).

Transformational leadership styles and self-efficacy were found to be affected by gender in self-ratings (Brandt & Laiho, 2013; Paustian-Underdahl et al, 2014; Stempel et al., 2015). It is difficult to tease apart all of the mediators that are involved with personality, leadership styles, their effects in the social role theory, and external factors. It is necessary to have more views on

the research between personalities and genders in transformational leadership (Brandt & Laiho, 2013; Stempel et al., 2015).

Transactional leadership and self-efficacy. In certain situations, transactional leaders are preferred, depending on social constructs and cultural norms. Gender congruity theory supports that some raters prefer a particular gender with the transactional leadership trait (Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014). Transactional leaders are seen just as effective by raters, as they seek to “promote stability” and are effective managers to fulfill a vision and purpose. Research indicates that both transformational and transactional leadership styles are effective because they are interdependent on each other rather than on opposite spectrums of each other (Lussier & Achua, 2015, Onorato, 2013). Additional research on the relationship between transformational and transactional leadership with self-efficacy would benefit current studies on effective leadership styles.

Laissez-faire leadership and self-efficacy. Laissez-faire leadership has been associated with having negative impacts on the organization due to its passive nature of management. However, Wong, and Giessner (2015) state that empowering leadership, the active form of laissez-faire leadership, may be perceived negatively due to staff members’ dissatisfaction and ignorance of expectations. Although ratings should differ, empowering leadership and laissez-faire leadership styles were rated closer than researchers expected (Wong & Giessner, 2015).

Educational Leadership

Leadership styles have been utilized in research for education (Allen, Grisby, & Peters, 2015; Onorato, 2013; Shatzer, Caldarella, Hallam, & Brown, 2014; Sayadi, 2016; Vanblaere & Devos, 2016). One of the highest educational leadership positions in districts is the position of superintendent. Superintendents believed personal characteristics were the most important

reasons why they were initially hired (Glass, 2001). Leadership styles encompass behavior and personality with regards to the organization. Various leadership styles are used in both business and education aspects with transformational leadership receiving much favor in both realms. In education, there are factors that are different from business organizations (Onorato, 2013; Shatzer et al., 2014). Specific to education, leadership styles are studied in relation to those who are employed, teachers and other staff, and the anticipated outcomes of those leadership styles: which include teacher retention, teacher satisfaction, and student achievement (Shatzer et al., 2014).

In the trait theory paradigm, there are several characteristics in leadership, thus leading to a multitude of leadership styles in research (Lussier & Achua, 2015). An example of a specific leadership style akin to education is instructional leadership. Instructional leadership has been tied to have a stronger relationship with student achievement in education (Robinson, Lloyd, & Rowe, 2008; Shatzer et al., 2014). Instructional leadership has been compared to transactional leadership, but it cannot be used interchangeably due to vastly differing individual factors within the leadership styles. More so, the two leadership styles are not interrelated because they stem from unconnected theories. Further research in leadership styles specific to education can make stronger arguments for current theories and perhaps even conceptualize newer theories, which can influence student achievement (Shatzer et al., 2014).

Further study with regards to educational school leaders and the effects of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership styles would extend the reform movement on teacher and school performance. The effects of these three leadership styles have been studied in various organizations. While these leadership styles are often used in different

industries, it is important to keep effective leadership current with the high demands in education (Allen et al., 2015; Onorato, 2013; Sayadi, 2016).

Impact of Gender on Educational Leadership

Females are highly represented in the field of education, especially in the lower-tiered positions like teachers. As a result, in higher leadership position, females have a disproportionate representation. Regardless of the abundance of females in the teaching field, the representation in higher leadership positions is extremely low for females in education. There is a lack of research literature on senior educational leadership positions maintained by females (Palladino et al., 2016). The senior leadership positions are more occupied by men than women in the education field (Longman & Anderson, 2016; Machida-Kusga et al., 2016; Weiner & Burton, 2016).

In a female-dominated organization, it is inevitable that males are easily differentiated; thus, they can be more quickly perceived as more effective because suddenly there is more of an awareness of masculine traits. The mismatch or congruency of traits affects workplace perceptions (Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014). While women take on more senior leadership positions around the globe and across different career fields, the tensions of disproportionate representations must be explored in education (Longman & Anderson, 2016; Weiner & Burton, 2016).

The willingness to move into senior level positions is considered more of an expected process for males; whereas, females are met with subtle disapproval in the work space. Men are encouraged to move into leadership positions by positive reinforcement, support from peers, friends, family, and co-workers; and subtly, women may not have the same types of support. It is not completely understood what personal social support is necessary to push women out of

middle management positions and into higher executive leadership positions (Diehl & Dzubinski, 2016; Ezzedeen et al., 2015; Silva et al., 2012). However, lower supervisory level positions tend to be more gender-neutral, and in these lower supervisory positions, women tend to be perceived as more effective than men in middle positions due to the relational nature of these positions (Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014). Multiple dimensions affect females and their roles in the educational leadership realm: their attitude, career decision process, and career development opportunities (Diehl & Dzubinski, 2016; Silva et al., 2012), such as self-efficacy at a younger pre-career age (Ezzedeen et al., 2015).

Impact of Gender on Educational Leadership and the “Vicious Cycle”. Due to the lack of role models and appropriate leadership preparation programs, male educational leaders become more suited and better prepared for the higher leadership programs. The “second-generation bias” traps females in a cycle, in which the second generation do not have role models to achieve their highest potential. Consequently, self-efficacy, hiring status, and general representation in higher educational leadership positions affects females. (Diehl & Dzubinski, 2016; Ezzedeen et al., 2015; Weiner & Burton, 2016).

Summary: Leadership, Leadership Styles, Gender, and Self-Efficacy

The literature review establishes the importance of highly-qualified leaders in an organization. The ebb and flow of operational change in modern organization calls for effective leadership. More specifically, educational leadership is highly influential on schools; therefore, factors which influence educational leadership must be studied. Educational leadership is responsible for the shape of the future, as it is the face of guidance for every person who will become an important asset to solving tomorrow’s obstacles. Adding to the current literature on

leadership styles is imperative to train the most effective leaders. Literature indicated that research on educational leadership is imperative to further improve schools and education.

While infinite factors influence leadership, self-efficacy is the most critical component of exemplary leadership and it is intertwined with the constructs that affect the behavior of leaders. Perceived self-efficacy can singularly influence the confidence and effectiveness of a leader. Confident and able leaders instill strong influence in their schools. Certain characteristics affect self-efficacy, and three leadership styles recognize those characteristics. Transformational leadership style is distinguished by trust, integrity, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. Transactional leadership style is classified by characteristics which are constructive and corrective. Laissez-faire leadership style is marked by passive-avoidant behaviors (Bass & Avolio, 2015). Leadership styles along with gender influence self-efficacy.

Focusing on gender constructs in leadership opens opportunities for individuals to reach their highest potential to be extraordinary leaders. Research indicates a shift in the workplace with gender representation, and as a result, research demands for more understanding in gender differences with regards to the social cognitive theory. The role congruity theory presents potential difficulties in gender differences and expected societal roles. Further understanding of the impact of gender along with leadership styles on perceived self-efficacy adds to the building knowledge of changing leadership in education. Research demands for a more comprehensive understanding of the phenomenon of the greatest leaders and the influence of leadership styles, gender, and self-efficacy (Brandt & Laiho, 2013; Dahlvig & Longman, 2014; Diehl & Dzubinski, 2016; Ezzedeen et al., 2015; Lussier & Achua, 2015; Weiner & Burton, 2016).

Chapter Two includes a comprehensive literature review of leadership, educational

leadership, leadership styles, gender, and self-efficacy. The impact of these factors on leadership is important to the future of education. Social cognitive theory, role congruity theory, self-efficacy, and leadership styles are theories, which contribute to the overall framework of this study. The chapter reviews each variable individually and the variables related to each other in every combination.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODS

Overview

A quantitative research study was used to determine if there was a predictive relationship between perceived self-efficacy (criterion variable) and gender and three types of leadership styles (predictor variables) based on self-reported data from the General Self-Efficacy Scale and Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire. The purpose of this study was to determine if there is a significant predictive relationship between perceived self-efficacy and the linear combination of predictor variables, gender and leadership style.

Design

Multiple regression is a type of statistical analysis that is used “to determine the correlation between a criterion variable and a combination of two or more predictor variables” (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2007, p. 353) where each predictor variable is assessed for both linear and predictive relationships between a criterion variable. For the current observational, quantitative study, multiple regression analysis was used to evaluate the relationship between self-efficacy, as the criterion variable, and gender and three types of leadership style as predictor variables.

The rationale for the proposed research design was to evaluate whether a set of independent categorical variables is a statistically significant predictor of one dependent (continuous) variable; therefore, the appropriate statistical test was linear multiple regression (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2007). All of the data was self-reported and gathered through an online, anonymous survey. Choices for the MLQ responses ranged from 0 (not at all) to 4 (frequently, if not always) on a 5-point Likert-type scale. The scoring procedure resulted in an overall score for each participant based on an average of his or her responses for leadership style and indicated where each individual fell along the continuum of TF, TA, or LF. The GSES response set

ranged from 1 (not all true) to 4 (exactly true), on a 4-point Likert-type scale. Responses resulted in a score based on total points. Self-efficacy is defined as the “can-do” attitude to overcome obstacles (Bandura, 1977).

Research Question

RQ1: Is a model based on gender and leadership style a statistically significant predictor of perceived self-efficacy?

Null Hypothesis

H₀1: There is no significant predictive relationship between the criterion variable (perceived self-efficacy) and the linear combination of predictor variables (gender and leadership style).

Participants and Setting

Population

The participants were selected from a population within a school district Tidewater region of southeast Virginia using convenience sampling. The school district is considered a large suburban district and contains approximately 85 schools (Department of Education, 2009). It was chosen because it is one of the largest school districts in the state of Virginia and presented the best opportunity for a large, diverse sample size of within one district. In general, schools in Virginia average 2-5 administrators; therefore, it was expected that the selected district would have approximately 300 administrators at some principal level (all school levels/types combined). In addition, the school district had a large school board, central office administrators, chief officers, specialist administrators, and other diverse administrator groups. For this study, it was expected that the number of participants would exceed the minimum requirement of 106 for a medium effect size (Warner, 2013, p. 456).

The participants were invited from 55 elementary schools, 15 middle schools, 11 high schools, and any other educational facilities in the district such as, school board, central office, technology schools, and academies.

Sample

The final sample of participants included 20 males and 41 females and were of differing types of administration. Participants came from 55 different primary/elementary schools, 15 middle schools, 11 high schools, along with various school boards, central offices, technology schools, and academies. The sample included 23 assistant principals, 10 principals, 3 chief officers, 12 central office administrators, and 15 other types of administrators, with administrative titles such as, academy coordinator, assistant director, director, program planner, school board, counseling director, school improvement specialist, and school test coordinator. The average years of total education experience was 20. The average years of total administration experience was 10. The average number of education licenses was 2.49.

Groups

The statistical method used for this study was based on observational design, which did not include classifying participants into experimental groups. Rather than examining the significant differences between groups, the study focused on the analysis of the relationship between the variables. Within the population there was some naturally occurring group formation based on the following factors.

Sample demographics.

Following is a list of demographics that were reported:

1. Gender;
2. Educational facility type (e.g., primary/elementary, middle, and high school);

3. Type of administrator (e.g., assistant principal, principal, central office, chief officer, superintendent, school board member, athletic director);
4. Years of Total Education Experience;
5. Years of Administration Experience;
6. Number of Education Licenses;

Instrumentation

Multi-Factor Leadership Questionnaire (Predictor Variable)

For data for the independent variables, *leadership styles*, participants responded to the Multi-Factor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) through an online survey hosted by Mind Garden (see Appendix A). The purpose of the instrument was to measure each participant's type of leadership style. The scale is based on the transformational-transactional leadership theory established by Burns (1978) and continued by Bass and Avolio (2000). It has been used in research studies internationally (Judge & Piccolo, 2004, Riaz & Khalili, 2014; Sayadi, 2016; & Zareen et al., 2015). It is considered valid, consistent, and reliable (Rowold, 2005). There are five transformational sub-scales (idealized influence- attributed, idealized influence- behavior, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration), two transactional sub-scales (contingent reward, management-by-exception--active), and two laissez-faire sub-scales (fights fires, avoids involvement) (Rowold, 2005). The instrument MLQ has been widely used to study leadership styles (Bono, Hooper, & Yoon, 2012; Breevaart, Bakker, Demerouti, Sleebos, & Maduro, 2014; Kovjanic, Schuh, Jonas, Van Quaquebeke, & Van Dick, 2012).

The survey MLQ has 45 questions with 36 leadership items, four items per scale, and nine subscales of leadership styles. Five subscales are attributed to TF, two subscales are

attributed to TA, and two subscales are attributed to LF (Avolio & Bass, 2004). 20 total questions are associated with TF: four questions for builds trust (idealized influence-attributed), four for acts with integrity (idealized influence- behavior), four for encourages other (inspirational motivation), four for encourages innovative thinking (intellectual stimulation), and four for coaching and develops people (individualized consideration). Eight total questions are associated with TA: four questions for rewards achievement (contingent reward) and four questions for monitors deviations and mistakes (management-by-exception—active). Eight total questions are associated for LF: four questions for fights fires (management-by-exception: passive) and four questions for avoids involvement (laissez-faire). The combined possible score for TF ranges from 0-4, TA ranges from 0-4, and LF ranges from 0-4 (Bass & Avolio, 2015). The MLQ uses a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 0 to 4 with descriptions: unsure, not at all, once in a while, sometimes, fairly often, and frequently, if not always (Bass & Avolio, 2004).

The MLQ underwent validity testing on 2,000 participants with nine independent group samples of 66 to 475 participants by Avolio, Bass, and Jung (1995). The Confirmatory Factor Analysis was used to test. For fit of statements regarding leadership styles, the following scales were confirmed: three leadership styles and the five sub-scales under TF, two sub-scales under TA, and the two sub-scales for LF leadership.

Previously published MLQ manuals have undergone modifications to ensure more uniformity in procedures (Bass & Avolio, 2004), and the instrument's high internal consistency was further confirmed by cross-validating two data sets of 23 participants including through major validation study with 3,785 participants and a broader spectrum of samples for the confirmatory factor analysis (Bass & Avolio, 2004). The diverse range of samples was less likely to violate the assumption of multivariate normality (Bass & Avolio, 2004).

Validity has been found through conclusions that have been consistent. “Content validity involves the question of whether test items represent all theoretical dimensions or content areas” (Warren, 2013, p. 939). Leadership styles, TF, TA, and LF, have been studied extensively through the MLQ (Sosik & Jung, 2010). Studies continuously explore the effects of leadership styles and particularly, TF (Zhu, Avolio, Riggio, & Sosik, 2011; Zarandi, Ghorbani, & Alavi, 2012). Avolio and Bass (2004) used a Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) with results meeting minimum requirements with a Goodness of Fit index of .91 and Root Mean Square Residual (RMSR) of .05 (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

Reliabilities and statistics for the MLQ for each scale are shown in Appendix B. Coefficient alphas greater than .70 are considered reliable (Green & Salkind, 2011). A sample size of $N=2,154$ reported having reliabilities between .74 to .94 (see Appendix B). The 9 subscales in the data set were found to be reliable (Bass & Avolio, MLQ Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, 2000). See Appendix B for Alpha coefficients of reliability.

General Self-Efficacy Scale (Criterion Variable)

The dependent variable, *self-efficacy*, was based on data gathered from the General Self-Efficacy Scale (GSES) by Schwarzer and Jerusalem (1993) who quantitatively studied self-efficacy as a construct of social cognitive theory (See Appendix C for the full instrument). The purpose of the instrument was to measure participants’ level of general self-efficacy.

The scale has been used extensively used in research to validate self-efficacy around the world in countries including: Germany, Thailand, China, Poland, Indonesia, Japan, and Korea (Luszczynska, Scholz, & Schwarzer, 2005). Cronbach’s alpha ranged from .76 to .90 and is considered reliable (Cohen, 1992). The scale was composed of 10 questions with four Likert-scale item choices of 1 through 4; ‘not at all true’ scores and a 1 and ‘exactly true’ scores a 4. A

participant with the lowest score achieves a 10, indicating that the participant had low self-efficacy, and a participant with the highest score achieves a 40, indicating that the participant had high self-efficacy (Schwarzer, 1993).

GSES has been translated into 33 different languages in various countries and utilized for over 20 years. Löve, Moore, and Hensing (2012) validated the Swedish translation of the instrument, providing its overall functionality. More recently, it has also been used to predict health behaviors (Luszczynska & Schwarzer, 2005; Schwarzer & Luszczynska, 2015).

Schwarzer (1993) used 1,630 German adults to measure self-efficacy with a mean score of 29.28 and a standard deviation of 4.6. The alpha Cronbach ranges from 0.82 to 0.93 (Schwarzer, 1993). Thus, the scale is considered reliable with a high Cronbach's alpha (Warren, 2013). The scale has been tested with factor analyses for unidimensionality.

The GSES takes approximately 2-3 minutes to complete (Schwarzer & Jerusalem, 1993). It was combined with the Multi Factor Leadership (MLQ) and hosted online by Mind Garden. Mind Garden scored data for the GSES with a total numerical score for each participant. Mind Garden was provided with the questionnaire and the letter with the permission to use the instrument by the researcher (see Appendix D).

Procedures

Survey Programming

The MLQ is a custom-built survey, owned and generated by Mind Garden. A customized version of the MLQ survey and GSES were programmed through the Mind Garden company website for the current study as an online survey research for non-commercial research, with universal copyrighted permission by Professor Ralf Schwarzer (see Appendix D). The following survey items were added to the customized version of the MLQ and with the GSES: informed

consent, gender, educational facility type (elementary, middle, high, technology, learning center, academy, school board, other), type of administrator (assistant principal, principal, central office, chief officer, other), years of total educational experience, years of administration experience, number of education licenses (e.g. Special Education, Biology), and an open-ended box for email addresses to enter for a chance to win a raffle prize. These were included on the first two pages on the survey website (see Appendix E), followed by six pages of items from the MLQ and GSES. Mind Garden provided a copyright preview of the MLQ in Appendix A. Appendix C contains the questions to the GSES.

Procedures for Approval

Initially, the school superintendent for the targeted district was contacted through e-mail on the school district's website for permission to conduct the study including a research application specific to the district (see Appendix F). The research specialist sent the completed application for approval to the Chief Strategy and Innovation Officer, and the study was approved (see Appendix G). Liberty University's Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval was then requested, and on July 18, 2018, the study was approved (see Appendix H).

A description of the purpose of the study and the survey link was emailed to the participants on August 20, 2018 (see Appendix I). If participants completed the survey within one week, they were entered into the raffle twice. All other participants' emails were entered in the raffle once. Data collection lasted a total of two weeks and was closed on September 3, 2018, and an email was chosen for the raffle prize.

Procedures for Incentives

The Mind Garden programming separated the email addresses from the survey results so that those entered during the first week of data collection had double entry into the raffle without

threats to participant confidentiality. After the two-week window of data collection, the research specialist randomly chose number 97 as the winner of the iPad recipient (see Appendix J), and the 97th entry was chosen from Mind Garden's list of emails from the order in which they had been received, with double entry for the participants who completed the survey within the first week. The winner was emailed information about the opportunity for name engraving and a request for their best method of delivery (see Appendix K). The researcher purchased the iPad, and it was shipped directly to the recipient.

Data Analysis

Multiple regression was used to test the null hypothesis. The study evaluated if gender and leadership style are statistically significant predictors of perceived self-efficacy. Multiple regression is a statistical test that results in a regression equation that uses "predictor variables [to] provide answers to several different kinds of questions ... [such as] how well Y can be predicted when we use the entire set of predictor variables ... [and] to assess how much variance is predicted uniquely by each individual predictor variable" (Warner, 2013, p. 429). This was the appropriate statistical test because the null hypothesis included two predictor variables (one continuous and one categorical) and one continuous criterion variable.

Data was collected for two weeks, then downloaded from Mind Garden as a csv file, and converted to Excel for data cleansing. Data screening was conducted to scan for inconsistencies or data errors, as recommended by Warner (2013) regarding data errors, inconsistencies, and outliers.

The primary analysis was then conducted using multiple regression to determine the relationship between the variables. An alpha level of .05 was used to test the null hypothesis (Warner, 2013) and Cohen's d was used to report effect size. Cohen (1998) defined effect size

values near 0.02 as *small*, 0.15 as *medium*, and above 0.35 as *large*. The correlation coefficients (r), coefficients of determination (r^2), t-statistics, and p-values for each independent variable are reported. The ANOVA statistic is provided as a measure of the overall statistical significance of the model based on PSE (scores from the GSES) as the outcome variable and gender and participants' leadership styles (i.e., scores from the MLQ) as predictors. The coefficient of determination (r^2) is provided as a measure of the overall amount of variance in the outcome variable (PSE) that can be explained by the independent variables (gender and leadership style).

CHAPTER FOUR: FINDINGS

Overview

The purpose of this study was to determine if there is a significant predictive relationship between the criterion variable, *perceived self-efficacy*, and the linear combination of predictor variables *gender* and *leadership style*. The research question and hypothesis for the study are restated. The descriptive statistics for the sample population are provided. Assumptions were met for the multiple regression analysis. The chapter concludes with a statement of the results and statistics regarding the overall fit of the model of the statistical significance of each of the predictor variables (e.g., gender, transformational (TF), transactional (TA), and laissez-faire (LF) leadership styles) in relation to perceived self-efficacy (PSE).

Research Question

RQ1: Is a model based on gender and leadership style a statistically significant predictor of perceived self-efficacy?

Null Hypothesis

H₀1: There is no significant predictive relationship between the criterion variable (perceived self-efficacy) and the linear combination of predictor variables (gender and leadership style).

Descriptive Statistics

Sixty-four (N=64) surveys were obtained during the two-week window of data collection. While screening the data, the researcher noticed that three data sets was missing gender, so 61 (N=61) data sets were used. In addition, four other data sets included missing information, but the missing information was non-variable demographic information. The researcher decided to include the four data sets in the analysis. For further detail, one participant did not include

administrator type; two did not include years of administrative experience; and one did not include number of educational licenses.

Education Facility Type

Participants were asked to indicate their education facility (See Table 1).

Table 1

Participants' Education Facility Type

Education Facility Type	<i>n</i>	%
Elementary	19	29.7
Middle	7	10.9
High	18	28.1
Technology	1	1.6
Learning Center	2	3.1
School Board	6	9.4
Other	11	17.2

Type of Administrator

Participants were asked to indicate their type of administration: 35.9% indicated assistant principal ($n=23$); 15.6% indicated principal ($n=10$); 18.8% indicated central office ($n=12$); 4.7% indicated chief officer ($n=3$); and, 23.4% indicated as being other types of administrators ($n=15$), which includes administrative titles such as, academy coordinators, assistant directors, directors, program planner, school board, counseling directors, school improvement specialists, and school test coordinators. One participant did not provide information on his/her type (see Table 2).

Table 2

Participants' Administrative Title

Type of Administrator	<i>n</i>	%
Assistant Principal	23	35.9
Principal	10	15.6
Central Office	12	18.8
Chief Officer	3	4.7
Other	15	23.4

Years of Total Experience in Education

Participants were asked to indicate their total years of teaching experience in education, which ranged from three to 45 years. The mean was 20.17 with a standard deviation of 9.491 (see Figure 1). The total years of teaching experience is represented in a normal bell curve.

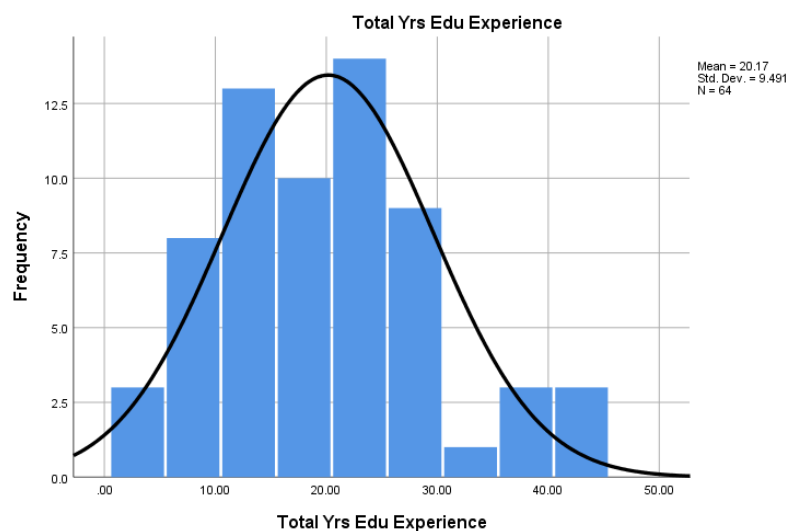


Figure 1. Total Years of Teaching Experience

Years of Administrative Experience in Education

Participants were asked to indicate their years of administrative experience in education. A slightly left-skewed curve is represented in administrative years of experience in education with a mean of 9.85 and standard deviation of 9.331. A mode of two years indicated a population with younger administrative experience (see Figure 2).

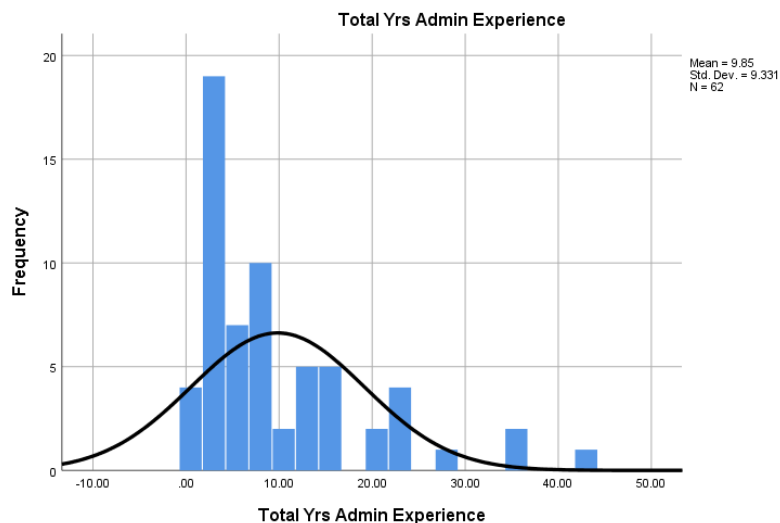


Figure 2. Total Years of Administrative Experience

Number of Educational Licenses

Participants' educational licenses were as reported as seen in Table 3.

Table 3

Participants' Number of Educational Licenses

Number of Educational Licenses	<i>n</i>	%
1	8	12.5
2	22	34.4
3	24	37.5
4	7	10.9

Gender

Gender was one of the two predictor variables. Participants were asked to indicate their gender as male or female. Twenty (31.3%) were males, and 41 (64.1%) were females.

Leadership Style

Scores on the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) was the other predictor variable in the multiple regression model and uses a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 0 to 4 with descriptions: unsure, not at all, once in a while, sometimes, fairly often, and frequently, if not always (Bass & Avolio, 2004). Each data set had a score for the leadership style. In this sample, scores for transformational leadership style had a mean 3.36 and a standard deviation of .373 (see Figure 3). Scores for transactional leadership style had a mean of 2.37 and a standard deviation of .48 (see Figure 4). Scores for laissez-faire leadership style had a mean of .51 and a standard deviation of .411 (see Figure 5).

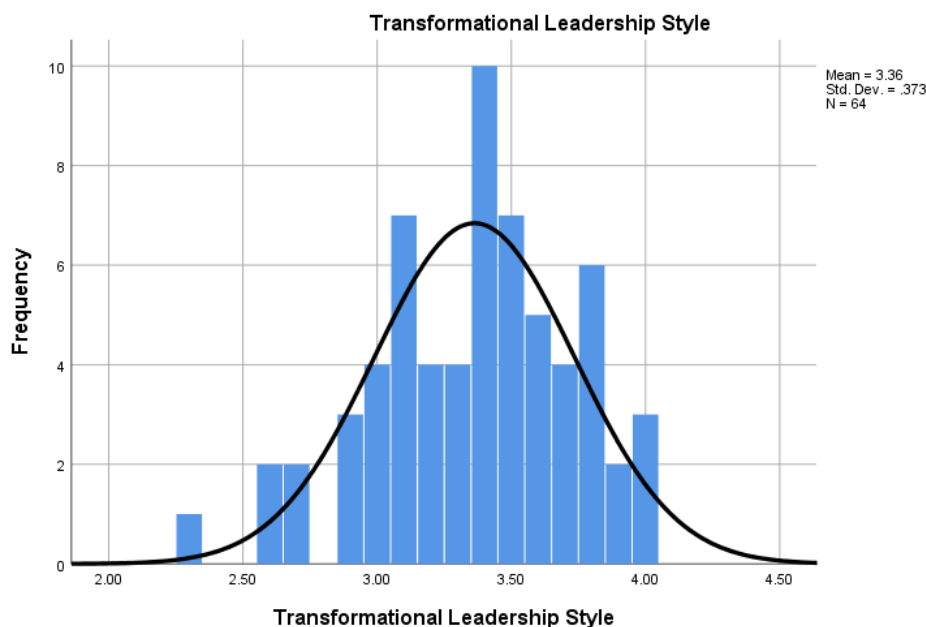


Figure 3. Transformational Leadership Style (scale ranging from 0 to 4 with descriptions: unsure, not at all, once in a while, sometimes, fairly often, and frequently, if not always)

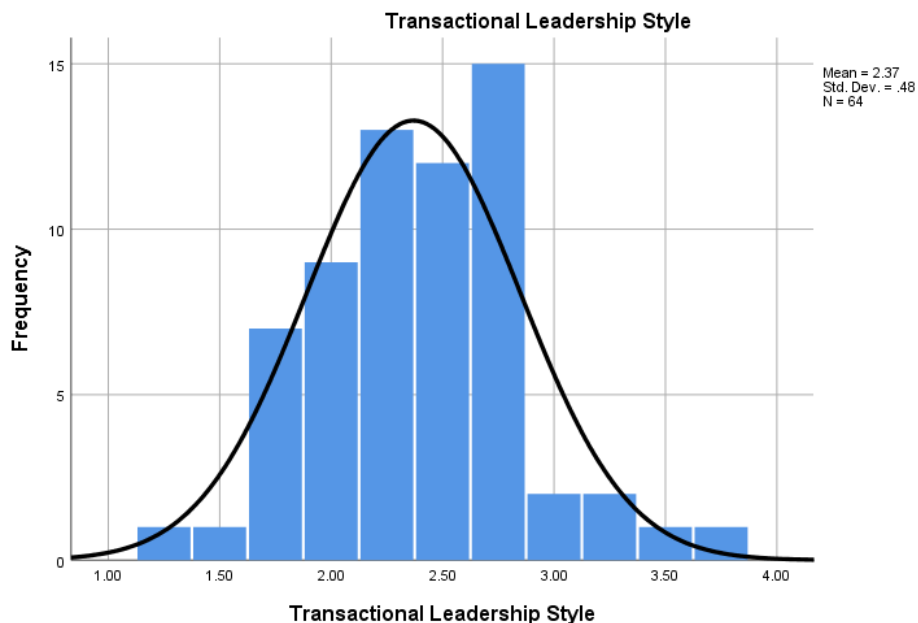


Figure 4. Transactional Leadership Style (scale ranging from 0 to 4 with descriptions: unsure, not at all, once in a while, sometimes, fairly often, and frequently, if not always)

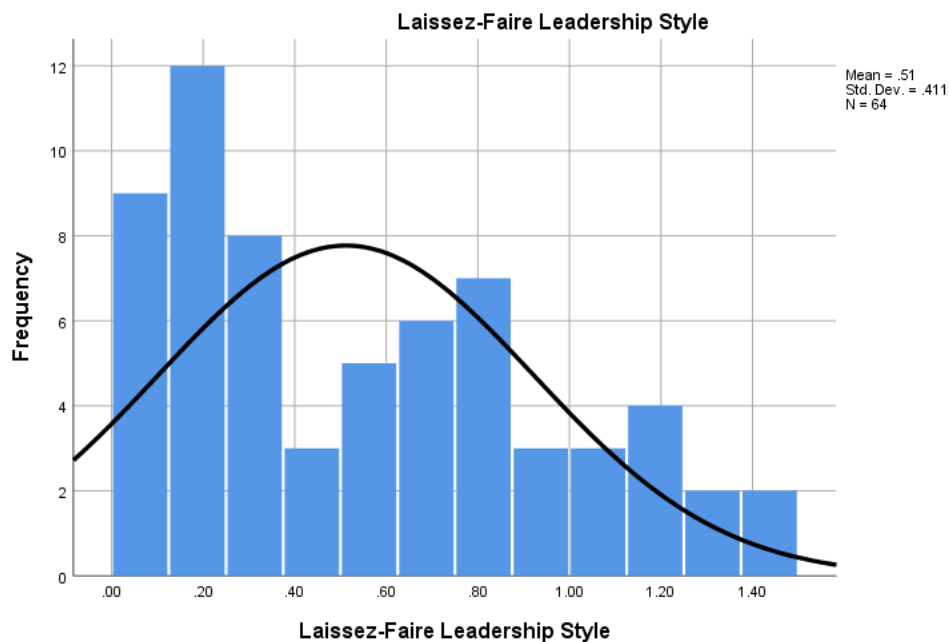


Figure 5. Laissez Faire Leadership Style (scale ranging from 0 to 4 with descriptions: unsure, not at all, once in a while, sometimes, fairly often, and frequently, if not always)

General Perceived Self-Efficacy

Scores on the General Self-Efficacy Scale (GSES) were the criterion variable in the multiple regression model, with a possible range of 0-40. In this sample, the scores ranged from 28 to 39, with a mean of 35.02 and a standard deviation of 3.234 (see Figure 6). The mode was 37.

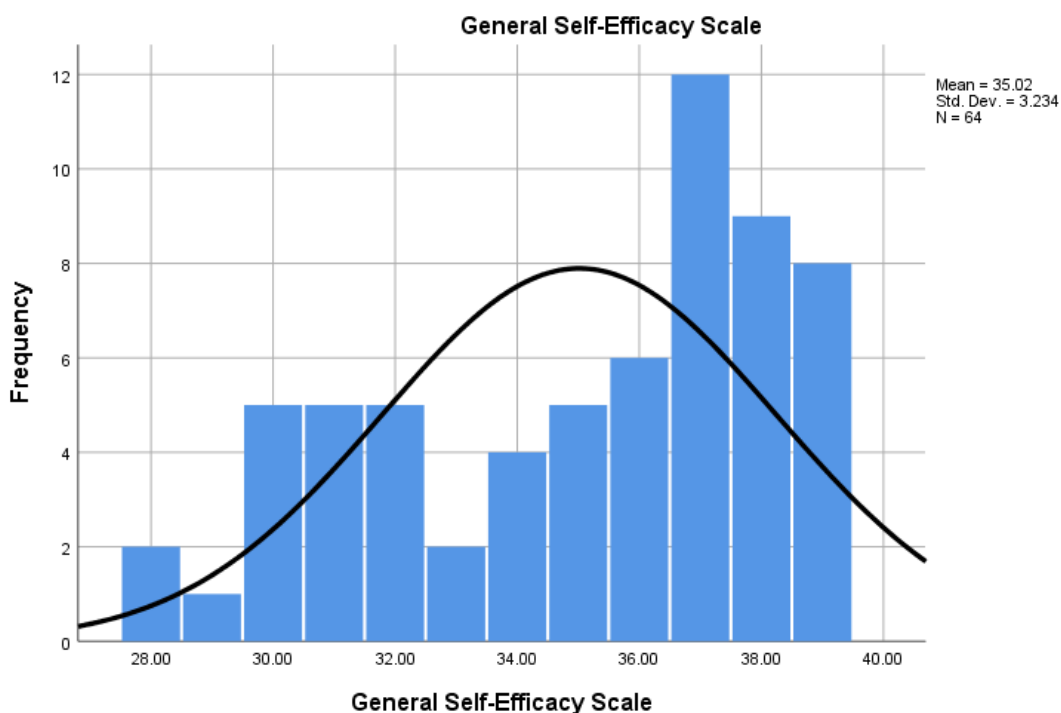


Figure 6. General Self-Efficacy Scale Overall Total Score

Results

A sample of 64 participants (N=64) was obtained during the two-week window of data collection (August 20-September 3, 2018). Using the custom-built survey, Mind Garden® calculated the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) and the General Self-Efficacy Scale (GSES) and compiled the information in an Excel database with data for each questionnaire item including averages for TF, TA, and LF. The total for GSES scores were calculated by the custom-built survey and included in the database. The raw data was examined in-depth for

errors and incomplete cases, and the researcher made strategic decisions regarding data organization and case inclusion. After the data was sorted and organized, it was exported into SPSS Version 25. Using the explore function and case-wise diagnostics in SPSS, the researcher analyzed if the data fit the assumptions for the selected statistical tests.

Assumptions

The analysis ensured that the data met the assumptions for multiple regression. The dependent variable, PSE, was continuous and measured on a Likert scale from the GSES survey. There were two independent variables. Leadership style was continuous and measured on a Likert scale; gender was a categorical variable and measured on a nominal scale. According to Laerd (2017), multiple regression demands a minimum of two independent continuous or categorical variables. This assumption was met.

Additional assumptions include independence of observations. For the current study, this was tested using the Durbin-Watson statistic, which range from 0-4. Values in the approximate range of 2 are considered acceptable (Laerd, 2017). The assumption of independence of residuals was met, with a Durbin-Watson statistic of 1.361.

There should also be a linear relationship between the dependent variable and each of the independent variables, which was assessed by creating scatterplots (see Figure 7).

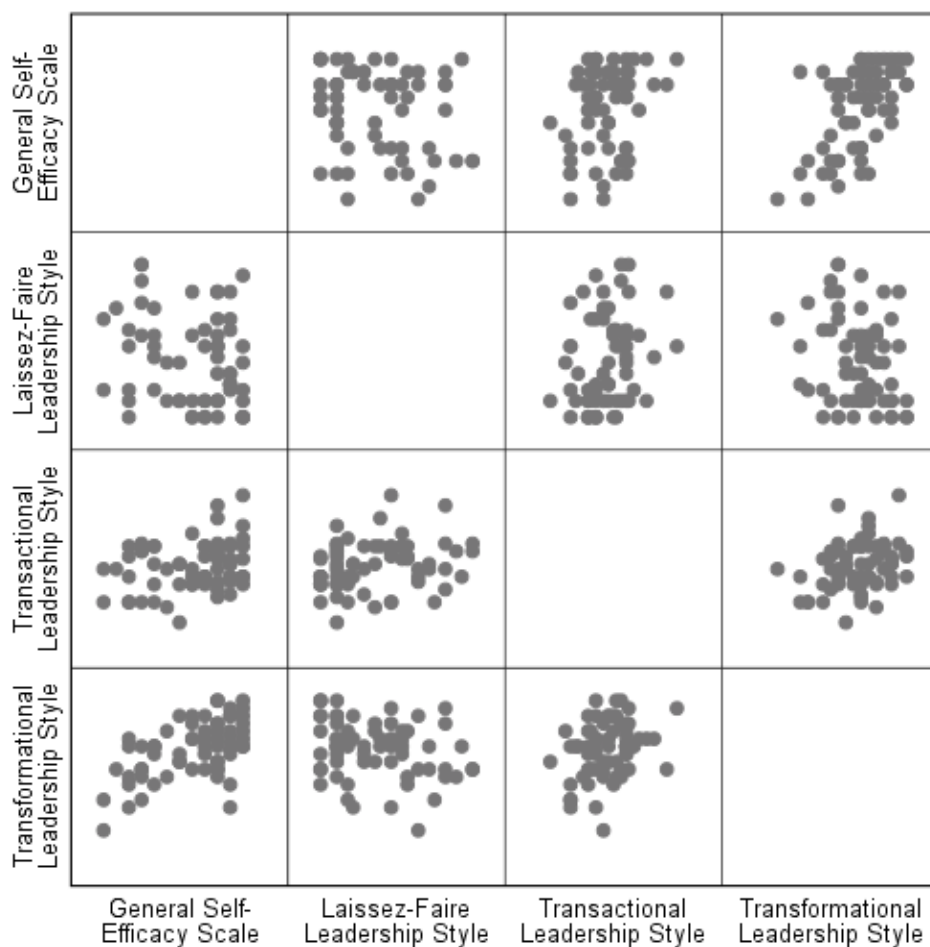


Figure 7. Matrix of Scatterplots for Relationships between the Variables

The following independent variables were found to have a statistically significant linear relationship with the dependent variable and were therefore included in the regression analysis. There was a moderate, positive correlation between PSE and TA, $r(62)=.264, p=.035$, and a strong, positive correlation between PSE and TF $r(62)=.556, p<.001$. No statistically significant relationship was found between PSE and LF $r(62)=-.218, p=.084$, and this variable was excluded from the regression analysis. A single categorical variable, gender, was also included.

Multicollinearity occurs when there is a high degree of intercorrelation between the independent variables and is a violation of the assumption for multiple regression. This assumption was met, as verified by an inspection of the correlation coefficients and

Tolerance/VIF values, none of which should have exceeded values greater than 10. The assumption for no outliers was also considered; however, given that there was categorical data and the Likert scales restricted the range of responses on both instruments, outliers were not a concern.

The final assumptions for the regression analysis were for homoscedasticity (equal error variances) and normal distribution of the residuals. Scatterplots were created for the standardized residuals versus unstandardized predicted values for each statistically significant independent variable (TF and TA) and the assumption for homoscedasticity was passed based on a visual inspection of these plots which depict a fairly even distribution of the residuals along the axes with no unexpected deviances. The assumption for normal distribution of the residuals was met as demonstrated through the Normal P-P plot (see Figure 8).

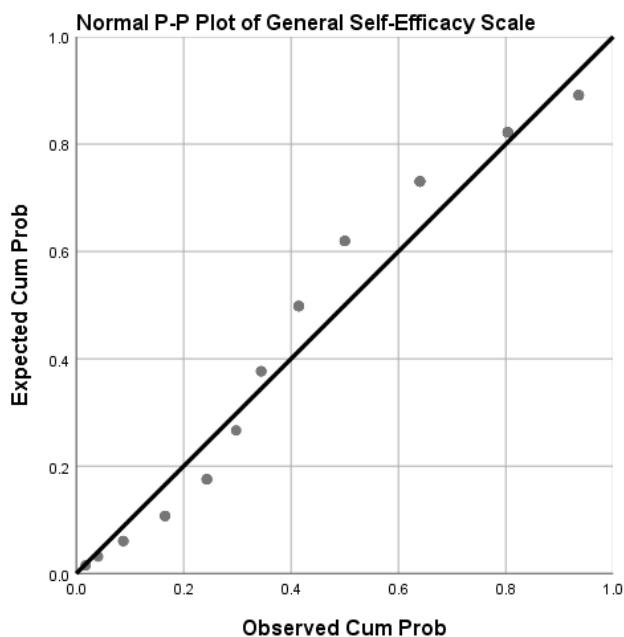


Figure 8. A Normal P-P Plot

Hypothesis

The null hypothesis stated that there would be no significant predictive relationship between the criterion variable (GSES/perceived self-efficacy) and the linear combination of predictor variables (gender and leadership styles/TA, TF). LF was excluded due to its lack of correlation with the outcome variable. Multiple regression analysis was used to test the null hypothesis after the data was assessed for meeting each of the test's assumptions. Every test assumption was met except for the lack of linear relationship between the LF leadership style, and this independent variable was excluded from the analysis. The remaining model resulted in statistical significance, $R^2=.335$, $F(3,57)=9.579$, $p. < .001$.

There is sufficient evidence to reject the null hypothesis at the 0.05 level of significance. The overall model based on gender, TF, and TA can be utilized to predict PSE and explains approximately 33.5% of the variance in PSE; however, when examining the individual coefficients for the predictor variables, only TF was statistically significant, $t(60)=4.815$, $p<.001$. The analysis was rerun using only the one statistically significant IV, and although there was a slight decrease in the amount of variation in PSE that can be explained by the model, there was an increase in the level of statistical significance $R^2=.309$, $F(3,57)=27.685$, $p. < .001$. Either way, the null hypothesis is rejected, and there is a significant predictive relationship between perceived self-efficacy, and gender and leadership style. The true slopes for the regression lines are not zero at the 0.05 level of significance (see Table 4).

Table 4

Multiple Regression Analysis Conducted on TF, TA, and Gender and its Predictability of PSE

	Unstandardized B	Coefficients Std. Error	Standardized Coefficients Beta	95% Confidence Interval for B	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
(Constant)	18.685	3.277		12.122	25.247
Gender	-.773	.765	-.112	-2.305	.759
TF	4.773	.991	.557	2.788	6.758
TA	.638	.776	.094	-.917	2.193

a. Dependent Variable: General Self-Efficacy Scale

Effect Size

Cohen (1998) defined values for effect size near 0.02 as *small*, 0.15 as *medium*, and above 0.35 as *large*. Both models had a large effect size; for $R^2=.309$; $f^2=0.4471780$, for $R^2=.335$; $f^2= 0.504$.

The effect size was calculated by computing the squared multiple correlation coefficient, R^2 , to calculate the power analysis and sample size. This is based on Cohen's (1998) definition of effect size, f^2 as calculated by the coefficient of determination R^2 divided by (1 minus R^2).

Independent Samples T-Tests

A series of independent samples T-tests were conducted with gender as the independent variable and total PSE and each of the leadership styles (TF, TA and LF) as the dependent variables. In addition, an independent sample T-test was conducted with gender and PSE.

No significant differences were found for gender based on total PSE or any of the individual leadership styles (see Table 5 for mean scores). A higher mean indicates that the participants believed they exhibited more of this leadership style on the Likert-scale as follows: 0= not at all, 1= once in a while, 2=sometimes, 3= fairly often, 4= frequently, if not always.

An independent samples t-test was conducted on gender and PSE. No significant difference was found on gender and PSE. The mean level of PSE for men ($M=34.8500$, $s=3.51351$) was almost equivalent to the level for women ($M=34.9756$, $s=3.18973$). Although it was not statistically significant, females consistently scored themselves higher on all leadership questions (see Table 5).

Table 5

Mean Scores and Standard Deviations for Each Gender and Leadership Style

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
TF	Male	20	3.2450	.46280
	Female	41	3.4171	.32703
TA	Male	20	2.2725	.46325
	Female	41	2.3939	.48801
LF	Male	20	.5150	.41489
	Female	41	.5232	.41730

Gender and PSE. An independent samples t-test was conducted on gender and PSE. No significant difference was found on gender and PSE. The mean level of PSE for men ($M=34.8500$, $s=3.51351$) was almost equivalent to the level for women ($M=34.9756$, $s=3.18973$).

CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSIONS

Overview

The chapter begins with the purpose of the study in reference to the research question and hypothesis and a discussion of the results from Chapter Four. The results are discussed followed by the study's implications and limitations. Chapter Five concludes with recommendations for future research.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to determine if there is a significant predictive relationship between the criterion variable, *PSE*, and the predictor variables, *gender and leadership style*. The null hypothesis stated that there is no statistically significant predictive relationship and was rejected. Although a model with all three leadership styles was not statistically significant, a relationship was found between PSE and TA, TF, and gender with approximately 33.5% of the variance of PSE explained by TA, TF, and gender.

Impact of TF and TA on Overall Model

Although using just the TF produced a more statistically significant outcome, using the model that encompasses TF, TA, and gender is a more complete model since it can explain 33.5% of the variance of PSE as opposed to 30.7% with only TF alone. TF and TA are both considered higher quality leadership styles, and Bass even describes them as complementary leadership styles (Lussier & Achua, 2015). The model that includes both TF and TA has a higher R^2 value and supports the notion that these two leadership styles have more of a synergetic relationship. As a result, these higher-quality leadership styles can comprehensively complete the predictive model better than just TF alone. In addition, TA is considered an effective leadership style, and in some communities, it is favored more than TF (Abu-Tineh,

2013; Duevel et al., 2015, Khalil et al., 2016). Although TF is considered to be the more developed leadership style in the MLQ manual, TA should not be overlooked (Dai et al., 2013).

TF and PSE. TF characteristics include: building trust, acting with integrity, encouraging others, encouraging innovative thinking, and coaching and developing people (Bass & Avolio, 2015). Since TF is consistently related to PSE, the study supports this strong relationship of having a greater statistical significance in the overall model. The correlation indicates that the two variables are closely related and can be used to predict PSE based on TF level. Research supports the model as these leaders have a high sense of belief in who they are and their end goals (Carleton et al., 2018; Lussier & Achua, 2015; Onorato, 2013).

TA and PSE. TA characteristics include: rewards achievement and monitoring deviations and mistakes (Bass & Avolio, 2015). TA, included in the overall model, supports the notion that TA levels predict PSE levels. TA did not have as strong of a relationship as TF, and this supports the Bass and Avolio's (2015) profile model that TF is regarded as the more effective and active leadership style in the range of leadership styles. However, TA is still a strong runner-up leadership style to TF, and in some cases, even preferred over TF (Khalil et al., 2016). While TA does not have as strong of a relationship as TF, TF and TA combined built a stronger overall model. This supports Bass's belief that the two leadership styles together promote more effective leadership than having any of those two leadership styles alone (Lussier & Achua, 2015).

Absence of LF in Overall Model

LF was left out of the overall model since it lacked correlation with the outcome variable. LF does not give predictive PSE results, and it is supported by the literature as being a passive leadership style with avoidant behavior (Bass & Avolio, 2015; Onorato, 2013; Sayadi, 2016).

Thus, LF continues to be under-studied and underrepresented (Wong & Giessner, 2015, Yang, 2015). As such, there is lack of true understanding in the effects of LF. LF has consistently been given a negative connotation in the workplace, as negative traits are associated with LF (Bass & Avolio, 2015; Onorato, 2013; Skogstad et al., 2014). In this self-report, it may have been undesirable to admit to having LF characteristics. However, in another situation, such as the banking study by Zareen, Razzaq, and Mutjaba (2015), LF has been seen as more favorable; LF was the leadership style that had the next strongest relationship to PSE after TA.

In the MLQ, certain questions seem inherently negative, such as statements like “I am absent when needed” or “I wait for things to go wrong before taking action” (see Appendix A.) Participants, who in this case, are important higher-tiered educational leaders, may be reluctant to describe their leadership with these types of sentences. This could affect the range of data and restrict the true level of certain individuals’ leadership styles. It could limit the range of LF-type leadership style scores, resulting in an underrepresentation of the LF and minimizing the ability to understand or explain the true impact of LF. This study may be additional support for the difficulty of researching LF and points to the need for a better understanding on this type of leadership style. Wong and Giessner (2015) have encouraged more study on the LF, especially since it appears to be prevalent in modern organizations (Skogstad, Hetland, Glaso, & Einarsen, 2014).

Impact of Gender in Overall Model

Time after time, findings indicate that gender alone does not dictate the effectiveness of a leader (Choge, 2015; Diehl & Dzubinski, 2016; Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014; Weiner & Burton, 2016; Zhao & Jones, 2017). However, when including gender as a predictor factor of PSE in the overall model, it has a higher R^2 value of .335 than the model that excludes gender

($R^2=.309$). Without gender, the overall model excludes more occurrences. Research results support the idea that gender does influence the overall model and that there are likely subtle gender differences that affect equal gender representation in higher educational leadership positions. These variances must be studied to understand the unequal gender representation in higher leadership positions (Carli & Eagly, 2016; Dahlvig & Longman, 2014; Ibarra et al., 2013; Kaiser & Wallace, 2016; Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014; Wood & Eagly, 2012)

Gender impact alone. No statistically significant relationship was found between the variables of gender and PSE. In fact, both men and women had high levels of PSE in this self-rated survey and their mean levels of PSE were almost equivalent. Since this study included a self-rated survey, it is difficult to understand how a mismatch in role congruity could affect gender and self-efficacy. Gender role congruity affects raters' favorability towards men and women, which could in turn affect self-efficacy (Koch et al., 2015). High self-efficacy is one of the most important aspects of a successful leader, and the current study did not find any statistically significant differences between males and females in perceived levels of self-efficacy.

Similarly, gender was not significantly related to any of the leadership styles alone based on statistical analysis. Females tended to score themselves higher for each leadership question and did have higher overall mean scores for each leadership style. Both genders scored higher in TF than any other leadership style.

A significant, strong, positive correlation between TF and PSE supports research; TF, PSE, and gender affected self-ratings (Brandt & Laiho, 2013; Paustian-Underdahl et al, 2014; Stempel et al., 2015). All mediators, such as personality, leadership styles, and other factors, cannot be easily teased apart with gender impact (Brandt & Laiho, 2013; Stempel et al., 2015).

This supports the research findings that gender alone cannot explain the underrepresentation of women in higher level management positions (Choge, 2015; Diehl & Dzubinski, 2016; Ibarra et al., 2013; Silva et al., 2012; Wood & Eagly, 2012) With regards to gender representation, numerous facets control the underrepresentation that needs to be further studied.

Discussion on Descriptive Statistics Findings

Most administrators were from middle management positions (i.e., assistant principals) with the fewest administrators from the higher-level management positions, with just three chief officers. This supports the rise of females in middle management positions (Zhao & Jones, 2017). The data showed a large range of total educational experience with a minimum of three years and a maximum of 45 years and demonstrated ever increasing levels of diversity of experience in the model. Years of total educational experience were high, with a mean of 20 years. Surprisingly, the years of experience specific to administration was rather young with a mode of two years, which is a representation of a population of less experienced middle management positions in the education field.

Implications

A model with focus on perceived self-efficacy (PSE) to add to the research in high-quality leadership is important, as self-efficacy's influence on leadership is significant. High self-efficacy is attributed to higher successes in leadership (Lussier & Achua, 2015). Transformational (TF), Transactional (TA), and gender are indicative predictors of PSE and add to the gap of inconsistent findings in leadership with regards to leadership styles and gender (Khalil et al., 2016; Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014; Zhao & Jones, 2017). While there is a high emphasis on TF, studying leadership styles in relation to gender and PSE can only add to the body of knowledge on higher-quality leadership.

Gender alone was not a predictor of PSE; however, it is recommended that it remains in the overall regression model analysis because of its ability to explain more of the variance in PSE as compared to when it is left out. The model supports research that is aimed at a better understanding of gender influences in higher leadership positions with regards to the social cognitive theory. The social cognitive theory includes branching theories, such as the social role theory, gender role theory, and role congruity theory (Choge, 2015; Eagly & Karau, 2002; Wood & Eagly 2012). As more women enter higher leadership positions, and men and women alike exhibit differing leadership styles and resulting PSE, it is important to continue to study the constructs that support better leadership (Koch et al., 2015; Longman & Anderson, 2016; Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014).

With supporting research, more leaders can be better equipped to understand gender constructs in PSE, which affect leadership success. Wood and Eagly (2012) feature social and biological constructs that mold people of differing genders while both genders can be equally successful in leadership. Success in leadership is attainable by the existence of role models, who are lacking for females in higher management positions (Zhao & Jones, 2017). In this study, most females depicted middle management positions, but gave continuing information on the overall model of relationships between gender, leadership styles, and PSE. By providing this study to continuing research, more attention might be given to the topic of second-generation bias, stereotypes, glass ceilings (Black, Jensen, Lleras-Muney, 2018; Kolb & McGinn, 2009; Longman & Anderson, 2016; Pardhan, 2018).

Studies regarding gender, leadership styles, and PSE is important to educational leadership, as there are factors that are different from business leadership (Onorato, 2013; Shatzer et al., 2014). A plethora of research highlights leadership overall (Bass & Avolio, 2014;

Lussier & Achua, 2015; Wong & Giessner, 2015) but a focus on educational leadership would encourage more information to be available in administrator training. Current theories could be backed by information that influences student achievement (Shatzer et al., 2014). Educational leadership is one of the most important types of leadership in society, as educational leaders have a hand of influence in every school and teacher, and as a result, have influence for every student.

The results support literature reviewed in that leaders must have high PSE. It is perhaps the single, most important trait that has allowed the person to enter and maintain an educational leadership position. The correlation between a high PSE and the highly favored leadership style of transformational leadership shows the importance of PSE in good leaders.

Similarly, TA requires a high PSE as well, and good leaders will also exhibit TA traits. Scoring high on both leadership styles, TF and TA, in relation to high PSE would be of interest. TF and TA styles working in conjunction are valuable since leaders find themselves in a variety of situations that require flexible actions.

While gender continues to be independent of signifying successful leadership, gender differences are still embedded. For example, most middle management or lower leadership positions are mostly female, while higher positions are mostly male. A myriad of reasons could describe this common scenario, but the vast number of males in the higher positions should not harbor negativity, nor should it be dismissed as differences in gender roles; but rather, these gender differences should be studied and distinguished to promote the best leadership in each person. Not only does greater understanding contribute to one's own PSE, but also adds to the support and comradery in higher educational leadership.

The effects of gender congruity cannot be highlighted in these results, as it would not only have required self-rated surveys, but also surveys of a leader's male and female

subordinates. Given the limit of resources and time, it was not plausible to study gender congruity with regards to leadership style and PSE. Gender congruity and favorability in leadership styles is important, as educators may often stay or leave their job according to the overall morale of their workplace. This workplace is heavily influenced by the leadership style and PSE of the administrator.

Limitations

Although gender was included in the overall model, the statistical significance was not as strong as the model that excluded gender. The literature review focuses on understanding gender impact on educational leadership, and most analyses with gender supported the notion that there was minimal difference between males and females alone. For example, there was no difference between male and female PSE scores or leadership styles. A small portion of the model could be explained by gender differences.

About 60% of PSE could not be explained by the overall model. In other words, there are even more constructs to be studied in relation to leadership styles, gender, and PSE. Perhaps, more variables could be tested with the overall model, such as years of overall educational experience or even years of administrative experience.

A large range did not exist for PSE scores. As a matter of fact, most participants self-reported as having high PSE; participants had a minimum score of 28, a maximum score of 39, mode of 37, standard deviation of 3.234, and mean of 35.02. It is difficult to get lower PSE scores from leaders, as most leaders have higher self-efficacy (Dahlvig & Longman, 2014; Lussier & Achua, 2015). If leaders had lower self-efficacy, they would be inept to lead.

Other limitations included a rather small sample size (N=64), and a smaller range of administrative experience was represented in this sample population. In addition, experience

specific to administration was relatively young in this sample, with a mode of two years. Since moving from middle management to higher-tiered leadership positions is of interest, the administrative level in this study is unable to present a wide case for the highest levels of educational leadership. However, in any given population, there will always be more middle management positions than the higher management positions. In addition, there was a restricted random sampling procedure to one school district, which was an intentional decision based on the extensive wait time between the district's application process and the IRB but should nevertheless be considered in light of the results.

Each MLQ license had to be purchased regardless of participant completion, and each survey had to have an email log-in due to GSES copyright restrictions, so sampling one large district allowed for efficient procedural methods. Nonetheless, the study had strong internal validity with the two instruments, GSES and MLQ. The GSES is widely used in various studies (Löve, Moore, & Hensing, 2012; Luszczynska et al., 2005) and considered to be both valid and reliable, with alpha Cronbach ranging from 0.82 to 0.93 (Schwarzer, 1993). Therefore, the instrument holds acceptable internal validity because the construct PSE and the instrument GSES have been used before in these well-tested and well-defined studies.

Likewise, the MLQ was considered valid and reliable, as it has been used in research studies internationally (Judge & Piccolo, 2004, Riaz & Khalili, 2014; Sayadi, 2016; Zareen et al., 2015). The MLQ underwent validity testing by Avolio, Bass, and Jung in 1995 using the Confirmatory Factor Analysis. The validity was further confirmed by Bass and Avolio (2004) by cross-validating two data sets of 23 participants, with a high value of internal consistency.

Even with complete anonymity and the iPad raffle prize, participation peaked only after the first email and dwindled thereafter. Participants were dissuaded with the extra log-in step,

and some participants even expressed confusion with procedures. A larger sample size would be more ideal; even so, the effect size was considered large using Cohen's formula. Since participants had to participate by answering emails, participants were self-selected depending on their willingness and interest in leadership. Participation was entirely of their own accord (Lavrakas, 2008).

Comparatively, participants rated themselves in both the MLQ and GSES. In this case, self-reported measures indicated respondents' perceptions of their own self-efficacy (Lavrakas, 2008). It is difficult to measure leadership characteristics without self-reporting unless the leader decides to allow the organization to report. Self-reported measures do not address role congruity favorability, which can affect self-efficacy (Koch et al., 2015).

Recommendations for Future Research

Although gender was included in the overall model due to its acceptable effect size, more studies including a larger sample size would enrich the understanding of the impact of gender. This study also had double the number of females as males. Comparing the middle management positions to higher management positions would benefit from a larger sample size, as most participants were in entry-level leadership positions. There is a large representation of females in leadership positions, but literature currently focuses on females attaining higher leadership positions (Machida-Kosuga et al., 2016).

Since 60% of the model cannot be explained by the constructs provided, perhaps including other variables would allow for a more complete version of the regression model. Social expectations for leaders are important, as some leaders seem to come from social groups that rarely produce leaders (Bosak, Eagly, Diekman, & Sczesny, 2018). Combining other

variables with this study's model, gender, leadership styles, and PSE, would contribute to gaining broader perspective of leadership characteristics.

The instruments, MLQ and GSES, were best fit for the constructs: leadership styles and PSE, albeit the lack of positive statements for LF. Using another instrument for measuring LF or other leadership styles would be useful to the overall model. MLQ was self-reported through the survey participants, but there are other versions of the MLQ for others to report on the participants. This would require extensive methods, so that each rater would match with each participant, in which the study would require even more participants. Nonetheless, others' ratings would contribute to understanding how a mismatch in role congruity could affect self-efficacy, as females do not receive the same ratings as men with certain roles, which can affect self-efficacy (Koch et al., 2015; Weiner & Burton, 2016; Zhao & Jones, 2017).

Although LF was excluded in the overall model, it contributes to the gap in literature. The study helps understand LF's role in relation to PSE and gender in this model, further emphasizing the importance to continue studies including LF. Positive LF traits have been clearly stated in prior research, LF in an organization can support more individual autonomy (Amanchukwu et al., 2015; Sayadi, 2016) and positive LF leadership styles are rare in research. Thus, additional study could include more information on LF styles using this or a similar model. Findings to support or reject LF in educational leadership would be beneficial.

TF and TA's integral relationship could be studied in conjunction with PSE or another leadership outcome variable. The interdependence of TF and TA versus TF and TA alone would be beneficial to leadership training, as currently, there is a heavy emphasis on TF leadership styles (Adeyemi & Bolarinwa, 2013; Carli & Eagly 2016; Zhu et al., 2012;).

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

www.mindgarden.com

Appendix B

www.mindgarden.com

Appendix C

Data Collection Instruments- General Self-Efficacy Scale

<https://userpage.fu-berlin.de/health/engscal.htm>

Schwarzer, R., & Jerusalem, M. (1995). Generalized Self-Efficacy scale. In J. Weinman, S. Wright, & M. Johnston, Measures in health psychology: A user's portfolio. Causal and control beliefs (pp. 35-37). Windsor, UK: NFER-NELSON.

Appendix D

Documentation of the General Self-Efficacy Scale

8



Freie Universität Berlin, Gesundheitspsychologie (PF 10),
Habelschwerdter Allee 45, 14195 Berlin, Germany

Fachbereich Erziehungs-
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Permission granted

to use the General Self-Efficacy Scale for non-commercial research and development purposes. The scale may be shortened and/or modified to meet the particular requirements of the research context.

<http://userpage.fu-berlin.de/~health/selfscal.htm>

You may print an unlimited number of copies on paper for distribution to research participants. Or the scale may be used in online survey research if the user group is limited to certified users who enter the website with a password.

There is no permission to publish the scale in the Internet, or to print it in publications (except 1 sample item).

The source needs to be cited, the URL mentioned above as well as the book publication:

Schwarzer, R., & Jerusalem, M. (1995). Generalized Self-Efficacy scale. In J. Weinman, S. Wright, & M. Johnston, *Measures in health psychology: A user's portfolio. Causal and control beliefs* (pp.35-37). Windsor, UK: NFER-NELSON.

Professor Dr. Ralf Schwarzer
www.ralfschwarzer.de

Appendix E

transform
by **mind garden.com**

Ed Leadership Survey- 4 Sections- Raffle for iPad Pro



Page 1 of 8

The Liberty University Institutional Review Board has approved this document for use from 7/18/2018 to -- Protocol # 3343.071818

CONSENT FORM

The Relationship Between Leadership Styles and Administrators' Perceived Self-Efficacy in a Suburban Virginia School District
Nary Esther Kitson
Liberty University
School of Education

You are invited to be in a research study on perceived self-efficacy of male and female public school administrators and leadership styles. You were selected as a possible participant because you are an administrator in a public school setting. Please read this form and ask any questions you may have before agreeing to be in the study.

Nary Kitson, a doctoral candidate in the School of Education at Liberty University, is conducting this study.

Background Information: The purpose of this study is to research perceived self-efficacy of male and female public school administrators and leadership styles.

Procedures: If you agree to be in this study, I would ask you to do the following things:

Take a brief, online (5-10 min) anonymous survey.

Risks: The risks involved in this study are minimal, which means they are equal to the risks you would encounter in everyday life.

Benefits: Participants should not expect to receive a direct benefit from participating in this study.

Compensation: Participants will be compensated for participating in this study by entering in a raffle for an Apple iPad Pro MSRP \$1,079 (256 GB, WiFi + cellular, gold- 12.9" display, includes name engraving). Participants who finish the survey within the first week of receiving the invitation email will have their email address entered in the random drawing twice for the Apple iPad Pro. The email addresses will be provided anonymously by Mind Garden, separate from the survey answers. As stated on the recruitment document, a random drawing will occur two weeks after the survey's completion deadline. The winner will be contacted by email to determine the best form of immediate delivery.

Appendix E (continued)

Confidentiality: The records of this study will be kept private. Research records will be stored securely, and only the researcher will have access to the records.

- Participant responses will be anonymous. Data will be stored on a password locked computer and may be used in future presentations. After three years, all electronic records will be deleted.

Voluntary Nature of the Study: Participation in this study is voluntary. Your decision whether or not to participate will not affect your current or future relations with Liberty University. If you decide to participate, you are free to not answer any question or withdraw at any time prior to submitting the survey without affecting those relationships.

How to Withdraw from the Study: If you choose to withdraw from the study, please exit the survey and close your internet browser. Your responses will not be recorded or included in the study.

Contacts and Questions: The researcher conducting this study is Nary Kitson. You may ask any questions you have now. If you have questions later, **you are encouraged** to contact her at [REDACTED]. You may also contact the researcher's faculty chair, [REDACTED] at [REDACTED].

If you have any questions or concerns regarding this study and would like to talk to someone other than the researcher, **you are encouraged** to contact the Institutional Review Board, 1971 University Blvd., Green Hall Ste. 1887, Lynchburg, VA 24515 or email at irb@liberty.edu.

Please notify the researcher if you would like a copy of this information for your records.

Statement of Consent: I have read and understood the above information. I have asked questions and have received answers.

* I consent to participate in the study.


Yes
 No

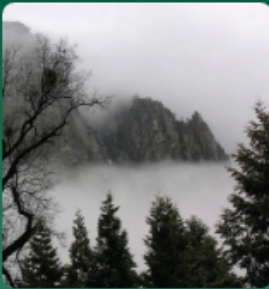
Items marked by * are required.

Next >

For technical assistance, contact us.

Appendix E (continued)





Ed Leadership Survey- 4 Sections- Raffle for iPad Pro

Page 2 of 8

1. Educational facility type:

PREVIEW

- elementary
- middle
- high
- technology
- learning center
- academy
- school board
- other

If you selected **other**, please specify:

2. Gender:

male
 female

3. Type of administrator:

PREVIEW

- assistant principal
- principal
- central office
- chief officer
- superintendent
- other

If you selected **other**, please specify:

4. Years of Total Educational Experience:

5. Years of Administration Experience:

6. Number of educational licenses:

1
 2
 3
 4 or more

7. Please provide your email address for raffle entry for an iPad PRO (128 GB, WiFi + Cellular, gold – 12.9” display) (your email will be entered twice if completed within the first week):

< Previous
Next >

Appendix F

The Liberty University Institutional
Review Board has approved
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7/18/2018 to --
Protocol # 3343.071818

CONSENT FORM

The Relationship between Leadership Styles, Gender, and Administrators' Perceived Self-Efficacy in a Suburban Virginia School District

Nary Esther Kitson
Liberty University
School of Education

You are invited to be in a research study on perceived self-efficacy of male and female public school administrators and leadership styles. You were selected as a possible participant because you are an administrator in a public school setting. Please read this form and ask any questions you may have before agreeing to be in the study.

Nary Kitson, a doctoral candidate in the School of Education at Liberty University, is conducting this study.

Background Information: The purpose of this study is to research perceived self-efficacy of male and female public school administrators and leadership styles.

Procedures: If you agree to be in this study, I would ask you to do the following things:
Take a brief, online (5-10 min) anonymous survey.

Risks: The risks involved in this study are minimal, which means they are equal to the risks you would encounter in everyday life.

Benefits: Participants should not expect to receive a direct benefit from participating in this study.

Compensation: Participants will be compensated for participating in this study by entering in a raffle for an Apple iPad Pro. Participants who finish the survey within the first week of receiving the invitation email will have their email address entered in the random drawing twice for the Apple iPad Pro. The email addresses will be provided anonymously by Mind Garden, separate from the survey answers. As stated on the recruitment document, a random drawing will occur two weeks after the survey's completion deadline. The winner will be contacted by email to determine the best form of immediate delivery.

Confidentiality: The records of this study will be kept private. Research records will be stored securely, and only the researcher will have access to the records.

- Participant responses will be anonymous. Data will be stored on a password locked computer and may be used in future presentations. After three years, all electronic records will be deleted.

Voluntary Nature of the Study: Participation in this study is voluntary. Your decision whether or not to participate will not affect your current or future relations with Liberty University. If you decide to participate, you are free to not answer any question or withdraw at any time prior to submitting the survey without affecting those relationships.

Appendix F (continued)

The Liberty University Institutional
Review Board has approved
this document for use from
7/18/2018 to --
Protocol # 3343.071818

How to Withdraw from the Study: If you choose to withdraw from the study, please exit the survey and close your internet browser. Your responses will not be recorded or included in the study.

Contacts and Questions: The researcher conducting this study is Nary Kitson. You may ask any questions you have now. If you have questions later, you are encouraged to contact her at [REDACTED]. You may also contact the researcher's faculty chair, [REDACTED] at [REDACTED].

If you have any questions or concerns regarding this study and would like to talk to someone other than the researcher, you are encouraged to contact the Institutional Review Board, 1971 University Blvd., Green Hall Ste. 1887, Lynchburg, VA 24515 or email at irb@liberty.edu.

Please notify the researcher if you would like a copy of this information for your records.

Statement of Consent: I have read and understood the above information. I have asked questions and have received answers. I consent to participate in the study.

Appendix G

March 27, 2018

Good morning [REDACTED],

I am reaching out to you today as a doctoral student at Liberty University, pursuing an Ed.D. in Educational Leadership. I am researching the effect of school administrators' levels of perceived self-efficacy on leadership style as my dissertation. For data collection, I am using a **brief, online (5-10 min) confidential survey** for all levels of school administration.

The results will include a synopsis of these factors that I am anticipating will not only be a useful resource for professional development but also potentially a powerful self-reflection tool for your leaders. There would not be any cost for you or them. In fact, participants will receive gift cards, along with their individualized results if they wish. Whatever details you need can be provided upon request, but in summary, the district would receive a written report about how administrators currently view themselves and how that affects and interacts with specific leadership styles. All information (district name, superintendent's name, administrators' names, school names, etc.) will be kept confidential. The results will be broken out by male and female administrators, and leadership styles, based on the **MultiFactor Leadership Questionnaire**, a widely used tool in educational research.

The proposed method is as follows:

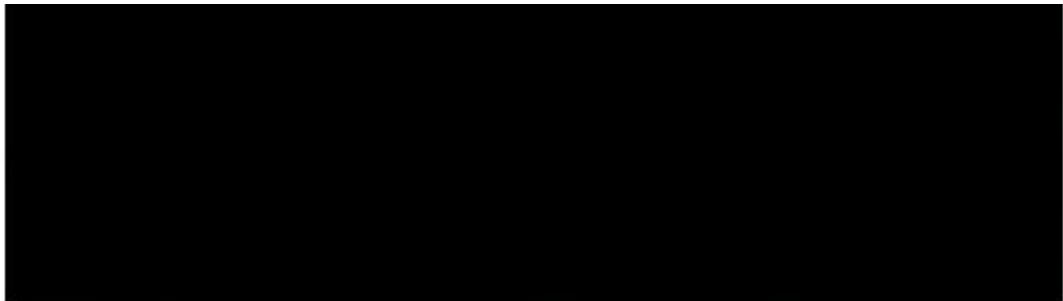
- I provide a brief email invitation for your approval to distribute.
- Your administrators (central office, elementary, middle, high schools, tech schools, learning centers, campuses, academies, and any other administrators) receive a brief email invitation for the survey.
- The administrators will have 2 weeks to complete the questionnaire.
- At the end of the first week, I will send a follow up reminder to them about the questionnaire.

I would be grateful to speak about this at your earliest convenience and can be reached at [REDACTED] or [REDACTED].

I request that you provide me with permission to conduct this research in your school district. Please complete the attached letter template. All you would need to do is copy and paste it onto district letterhead, fill in appropriate information in the blue brackets, and send it back as an attachment through email.

I sincerely thank you for your time and consideration,
Nary Kitson

Appendix H





Ms. Nary Kitson



Dear Ms. Kitson:



This letter serves as the Department of Planning, Innovation, and Accountability's approval for your research study entitled "The Relationship Between Leadership Styles and Administrators' Perceived Self-Efficacy in a Suburban Virginia School District." Your request to administer a survey to division administrators regarding their leadership styles and perceived self-efficacy was approved. Your research was approved with the understanding that you will not identify the names of the participants, schools, or the school division in any potential reports. As always, the final decision to participate rests with the school division administrators, and you are expected to discuss your study with them prior to starting your research activities.

Our approval for your study will expire one year from the date of this letter. If there are any changes to your study, you must submit the changes to our office for review prior to proceeding. It is our expectation that you will submit an electronic copy of the final report upon its completion to the Department of Planning, Innovation, and Accountability. Please send the report to  If you have any questions, please contact me at 


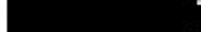
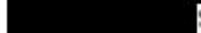
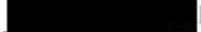

Sincerely,



Research Specialist

cc:  Chief Strategy and Innovation Officer 
Department of Planning, Innovation, and Accountability

Senior Staff

 Senior Executive Director of High Schools
 Senior Executive Director of Middle Schools
 Senior Executive Director of Elementary Schools
 Director of Elementary Schools
 Director of Elementary Schools
Department of School Leadership

All Principals



Appendix I

Cover Letter to Participants:

August 20, 2018

Dear Administrators and Educational Leaders of [REDACTED]

As a graduate student in the School of Education at Liberty University, I am conducting research as part of the requirements for a doctoral degree. The purpose of this research is to study the relationship between leadership styles, gender, and administrators' perceived self-efficacy, and I am writing to invite you to participate in my study.

If you are persons in school-level or district-level administration roles such as assistant principal, principal, central office administrator, chief school officer, superintendent, athletic director, or other administrative position, and are willing to participate, you are being asked to take a survey. It should take approximately 5-10 minutes to complete the survey. Your participation will be completely anonymous, and no personal, identifying information will be collected.

To participate, go to [REDACTED] and click on the link provided. A consent document is provided as the first page you will see after you click on the survey link. The consent document contains additional information about my research. Please click on the survey link at the end of the consent information to indicate that you have read the consent information and would like to take part in the survey.

If you choose to participate, you will be entered in a raffle to win an Apple iPad Pro (256 GB, WiFi + cellular, gold – 12.9” display, includes name engraving).

Sincerely,

Nary Kitson
Doctoral Candidate
Liberty University


Appendix J

 Kitson, Nary
Fri 9/7, 3:59 PM

  Reply all | 



Sent Items

Good evening 

The time frame of 2 weeks has ended for my research study. All participants who wished to provide their email for the raffle have a number (Mind Garden has recorded the order of emails in which the survey had been completed-- with those who completed it within the first week having their email address recorded twice.)

Could you choose a number between 1-113 for the selection of the iPad recipient to validate a fair selection?

Thank you so much for all your help,
Nary Kitson

  | 

Mon 9/10, 8:21 AM

Absolutely, hopefully you got everything you needed.

Number: **97**

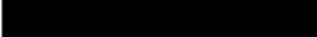


Appendix K

 Kitson, Nary
Yesterday, 3:54 PM

Good evening 

I want to thank you for participating in my survey again. 
chose number 97, and the survey company listed your email in the order
it was received, as being the winner of the iPad!

Please send me the name you'd like engraved on the iPad and an address
so that we can mail it out to you.


I hope you have a wonderful Saturday!

Nary Kitson


 

  Reply all | 

Today, 11:14 AM
Kitson, Nary 



Nary,
What???? I never win anything!! I am sooooo excited! Thank you so
much!!


Thank you, again!!

