

2021

## **Descriptions and Differences by Regions and Divisions in the United States: Female Secondary School Administrative Leaders**

Bobbie Lyn Brown

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Descriptions and Differences by Regions and Divisions in the United States: Female  
Secondary School Administrative Leaders

By

Bobbie Lyn Brown

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment  
of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Education  
in  
Leading and Learning

University of Portland  
School of Education

2021

**Descriptions and Differences by Region and Division in the United States:**

**Female Secondary School Administrative Leaders**

by

**Bobbie Lyn Brown**

This dissertation is completed as a partial requirement for the Doctor of Education (EdD) degree at the University of Portland in Portland, Oregon.

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### **Abstract**

This ex post facto comparative, non-experimental study investigated the demographics and characteristics of female secondary school administrative leaders ( $N = 1,068$ ) to determine if the community types, individual characteristics, school leader characteristics, and school characteristics varied by regions and divisions in the United States. To determine the demographics and characteristics of female secondary school administrative leaders, survey data from the *National Teacher and Principal Survey (NTPS)* from the 2017-2018 school year published by the National Center for Educational Statistics (NCES) data were analyzed in this study. The results of this study indicate that there were statistically significant differences among female secondary school administrative leaders regarding community type, race, ethnicity, participation in an aspiring administrator program, experience as a department chair, highest degree earned, school size, and working at schools accessing Title 1 funding by regions and divisions in the United States.

*Keywords:* Female secondary school administrators, descriptions, differences, U.S. regions and divisions, gender, educational leadership, *National Teacher and Principal Survey (NTPS)*

## **Acknowledgements**

First and foremost I want to acknowledge the tremendous support I received from my dissertation committee throughout the process of completing this project. Dr. Jacqueline Waggoner, I cannot thank you enough for your level of dedication and support on this project. Not only were you encouraging and excited about this project from the beginning, but I could not have accessed this data set without your commitment and support. Dr. Bruce Weitzel, your expertise in educational leadership as a construct, as well as your lived experiences about how the dynamics of gender and educational leadership manifest in public schools was a tremendous asset to this project. Dr. Rebecca Smith, your thoughtfulness regarding how a study focused on socially charged topics, such as gender and leadership, can make an impact in the public school setting prompted me to really consider the importance of taking on a study on this topic.

I also benefitted from a tremendous network of mentors, colleagues, and friends. Whether you helped me talk through my thoughts and ideas about gender and leadership in schools, served as a critical editor during the writing process, or listened to a presentation in preparation for the defense, your contribution was essential to the success of this project! I could not be more grateful for your friendship and willingness needed to support me over the course of completing a dissertation.

### **Dedication**

This dissertation is dedicated to my loving and supportive family. First and foremost, I could not have completed this process without the support of my husband, Matthew Brown. It takes an extraordinarily special partner and friend to wholeheartedly support a spouse through the process of completing a doctoral program. You inspire me to always work toward my full potential. Not only do you serve as an inspiration, but you are also willing to sacrifice and work hard to make that potential a reality. I cannot thank you enough or fully express my gratitude for who you are and what you mean in my life.

To my son, Jay Brown, and daughter, Evan Brown: Thank you for hanging in there while I attended classes, wrote papers, got home late at night, and worked through so many weekends. You both made sacrifices to support me! I appreciate your patience during these years! I am so proud of how much you both have changed and matured over the years I was in school. I truly hope that you were able to benefit from watching me struggle through the process of learning, growing, and changing so that you can trust yourselves to take risks when you work toward your full potential and as you navigate through all the stages of life.

## Table of Contents

Abstract .....	iii
Acknowledgements.....	iv
Dedication .....	v
Table of Contents.....	vi
List of Figures.....	xii
Chapter 1: Introduction .....	1
The Status of Women in Educational Leadership .....	3
Explaining the Phenomena.....	4
Gender Gap in Educational Leadership by Region in the United States .....	7
Purpose Statement.....	8
Significance .....	11
Summary.....	12
Chapter 2: Literature Review .....	14
Current Trends.....	14
Gender .....	16
Explaining the Gender Gap Discrepancy in Leadership .....	18
Women and Educational Leadership .....	27
Women and Secondary Educational Leadership .....	35
Regions in the United States and Women Educational Leaders .....	40
Summary.....	66
Chapter 3: Methodology .....	69
Purpose and Research Questions .....	70
Research Question 1 .....	71
Research Question 2 .....	71
Research Design .....	72
The Rationale for the Methodology.....	73
Instrumentation.....	74

Population and Sample.....	81
Research Ethics and Human Subjects.....	81
Data Analysis.....	82
Chapter 4: Results.....	86
Introduction.....	86
Organization.....	88
Results.....	88
Sample.....	88
Results of Research Question 1.....	89
Results of Research Question 2.....	107
Summary.....	123
Chapter 5—Findings, Conclusions, and Implications for Further Study.....	125
Introduction.....	125
Summary of Purpose.....	125
Summary of Procedures.....	126
Findings.....	126
Demographic Data by Gender and School Type.....	127
Conclusion 1: Trends of School Type by Region and Division and Gender of Administrative Leaders.....	128
Demographic Data of Female Secondary School Leader by Region and Division.....	133
Conclusion 2: Frequency of Female Secondary School Administrators by Region and Division.....	133
Conclusion 3: Secondary School Leadership Community Type by Region and Division.....	134
Conclusion 4: Female School Principals’ Age Remains Consistent Regardless of Region and Division.....	139
Conclusion 5: Race and Ethnicity by Region.....	141
Conclusion 6: Years of Experience as School Administrative Leader and Classroom Teacher.....	145
Conclusion 7: Aspiring Administrator Program or Department Chair Experiences .....	146
Conclusion 8: Highest Degree Earned by Region and Division.....	149



Conclusion 9: Student Numbers by Region and Division .....	151
Conclusion 10: Schools who Receive Title 1 funds by Region and Division.....	153
Implications for Practice and Research.....	156
Implications for Practice and Research by Region and Divisions.....	157
Northeastern Region.....	158
Midwestern Region.....	159
Southern Region.....	161
Western Region.....	163
Limitations .....	164
Concluding Remarks.....	166
References .....	167
Appendix A .....	191

### List of Tables

Table 1.1 Demographics of Female Secondary School Leaders by regions (Northeast, South, Midwest, West) and divisions (Pacific, Mountain, West North Central, East North Central, West South Central, East South Central, South Atlantic, Middle Atlantic, and New England).....	9
Table 4.1 Frequency and Percentage of Leader by School Level, Gender, and Region.....	90
Table 4.2 Frequency and Percentage of Principal by School Type, Gender, and Division.....	91
Table 4.3 Frequency and Percentage of Female Secondary School Principal by School Level, and Region.....	92
Table 4.4 Frequency and Percentage of Principal by School Level, and Divisions.....	93
Table 4.5 Frequency and Percentage of Principal by Community Type and Region.....	94
Table 4.6 Frequency and Percentage of Principal by Community Type and Division.....	95
Table 4.7 Average Age of Principal by Region and Division.....	96
Table 4.8 Race and Ethnicity of Secondary School Principal by Region 1, Divisions 1, and 2.....	97
Table 4.9 Race and Ethnicity of Principal by Region 2, Division 3, and 4.....	98
Table 4.10 Race and Ethnicity of Principal by Region 3, Division 5, 6, and 7.....	99
Table 4.11 Race and Ethnicity of Secondary School Principal by Region 4, Division 8, and 9.....	101
Table 4.12 Principal Average Years of Experience as School Administrative Leader and Classroom Teacher by Region and Division.....	102
Table 4.13 Participation in Program for Aspiring Leader or Experience as Department Chair by Region and Division.....	103

Table 4.14 Highest Degree Earned by Region and Division.....	104
Table 4.15 Total Student Numbers by Region and Division.....	105
Table 4.16 Frequency of Female Led Schools who Receive Title 1 funds by Region and Division.....	106
Table 4.17 Chi-Square Frequency Count of Principal by Community Type and Region.....	107
Table 4.18 Chi-Square Frequency Count of Principal by Community Type and Division.....	108
Table 4.19 ANOVA of Principal by Age and Region and Division.....	109
Table 4.20 Chi Square Count of Race and Ethnicity by Region.....	110
Table 4.21 Chi-Square Count of Race and Ethnicity by Division.....	111
Table 4.22 ANOVA of Secondary School Principal Years of Experience as a School Administrative Leader by Region and Division.....	112
Table 4.23 ANOVA Secondary School Principal Years of Experience as a Classroom Teacher by Region and Division.....	113
Table 4.24 Chi-Square Participated in Aspiring Administrator Program prior to Administrative Leadership by Region.....	114
Table 4.25 Chi-Square Secondary School Principal by participation in Aspiring Administrator Program by Division.....	115
Table 4.26 Chi-Square Female Secondary School Administrative Leader as Department Chair prior to Administrative leadership by Region.....	116
Table 4.27 Chi-Square Count of Female Secondary School Administrators as Department Chair.....	117
Table 4.28 Chi-Square Count of Highest Degree Earned by Region.....	118
Table 4.29 Chi-Square Count of Highest Degree Earned by Division.....	119
Table 4.30 Chi-Square Count of School Size by Region.....	120

Table 4.31 Chi-Square Count of School Size by Division.....	121
Table 4.32 Chi-Square Count of Schools who Accessed Title 1 funds by Region.....	122
Table 4.33 Chi-Square Count of Schools who Accessed Title 1 funds by Division....	122

**List of Figures**

Figure 4.1 U.S. Census Regions and Divisions.....87

## **Chapter 1: Introduction**

The demand for highly qualified school administrative leaders, or school principals and school vice principals, in the K-12 public school system in the United States is high and will continue to be so for years to come. In 2001, The Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS) projected that a 10% employment increase was needed to fill school administrative leadership positions in public schools. Teachers and other educators working in public schools have the experience needed to fill these roles and even though women outpace men as teachers at elementary schools, middle schools, and high schools, there is a discrepancy along gender lines and school type regarding who become school administrative leaders (U.S. Department of Education, 2018). This discrepancy along gender lines is well established in all regions of the country and has been attributed to historical, internal, and intuitional causes (Eckman, 2004; Elfers et al., 2017; Fuller, 2018; Kruse & Krumm, 2016; Murakami & Tornsen, 2017).

More recent estimates suggest that the turnover rate of principals working in schools occurs at 35%, therefore making the need to fill school administrative leadership positions in public schools more than at a rate of 10% (Bailes & Guthery, 2020; Doyle & Locke, 2014; Goldring & Tale, 2018). Additional research shows that one out of every two principals working in public schools was not retained beyond their third year of leading a school (National Association of Secondary School Principals, 2017). Reasons for the occurrence of these vacancies vary. Whether due to a new opportunity or leaving the profession outright, it is clear these positions are not

being filled at a rate equal to the need. As a result, school districts are challenged with the task of recruiting qualified applicants to replace them (Bailes & Guthery, 2020; Doyle & Locke, 2016; National Association of Secondary School Principals, 2017). As individuals in school administrative leadership roles in public school districts retire, transition to new positions, or change careers, it is imperative that school districts fill their positions with qualified individuals (Blackman & Fenwick, 2000; McCreight, 2001; Whitaker, 2003). Given that the need to replace school administrative leadership roles is ever-present and will continue to be a need in the future, women, who outnumbered men in classrooms through the United States (U.S.), should be filling roles as school principals, or school administrative leaders, at a higher rate.

The quality of school principals working in the K-12 public school setting matters because the skills of these leaders are directly linked to school and student success (Webb, 2010; U.S. Department of Education, 2016). The job of an effective school principal has changed over time. In decades past, effective school principals were responsible for managing tasks that focused on school-based responsibilities (Whitaker, 2003). For example, school principals were held accountable for decisions such as budgeting, educational programming, and personal management, based on-school and department performance (Whitaker, 2003). While school principals are still expected to manage school-based and department tasks, additional job expectations have emerged (Blackman & Fenwick, 2000; Whitaker, 2003). In addition to the school-specific management tasks, increases in administrative responsibilities can

include but are not limited to tasks such as mobilizing school teams, staying the course on district-wide strategic planning goals, implementation of strategic goals, flexibility, continuing professional development, addressing managerial requirements, mobilizing the power of data, and engaging stakeholders at the school and district levels (Blackman & Fenwick, 2000; Whitaker, 2003).

### **The Status of Women in Educational Leadership**

However, despite a well-established and documented need for qualified educators to take school principal positions, highly qualified women continue to be underrepresented in the field (Domenech, 2012; U.S. Department of Education, 2018). Additionally, women in public education constitute more than 50% of the graduate students enrolled in educational administration programs. They are the majority of teachers working in schools, have earned the necessary credentials, and have the necessary years of experience in education to move into leadership roles (Björk et al., 2014; U.S. Department of Education, 2018). Qualified women who work in public education are in a position to fill these vacancies and lead schools, alleviating the workforce shortage of school principal candidates in the K-12 public school system (Bailes & Guthery, 2020; Doyle & Locke).

Although the demand for qualified school principals is high, and these leaders are essential to educational outcomes for students, women are less likely than men to hold school leadership positions. Although 72% of the public education workforce consists of women, the representation of women in school principal roles is much lower when compared to men and varies by type of leadership position (Glass, 2000;



Glass et al., 2000; U.S. Department of Education, 2018). In the U.S., women are more likely to serve as school administrative leaders in the role of elementary school principals, with 68% of these jobs being held by women. But at the secondary school level, women are less likely to hold public school principal jobs. At the middle school level, 40% of principals who hold school administrative leadership positions are women, and, at high schools, the rate of women is 33%. Finally, in the head job of superintendent, 24% of positions are represented by women (Domenech, 2012; U.S. Department of Education, 2018). The most recent result of the *Characteristics of Public and Private Elementary and Secondary School Teachers in the United States from the 2017-2018 school year* published by the National Center for Educational Statistics (NCES) reports that 88.6% of women represent elementary school teaching staff, 72.1% of women represent the middle school teaching staff, and 60.0% of women represent the high school staff throughout the country; these data suggest a considerable discrepancy in gender equity in school administrative leadership (Taie & Goldring, 2020).

### **Explaining the Phenomena**

Since the early 1990s, the discrepancy between men and women working as school administrative leaders in the K-12 public school setting is well established (Domenech, 2012; Glass, 2000; Glass et al., 2000). Historical, cultural, institutional, and internal barriers have been identified in the literature to explain the discrepancy of the underrepresentation of women working as school administrative leaders in the K-

12 public education setting, (Eckman, 2004; Elfers et al., 2017; Fuller, 2018; Kruse & Krumm, 2016; Murakami & Tornsen, 2017).

Despite these barriers, since the 1990s, women have made tremendous strides as school principals at the elementary school level (Domenech, 2012; U.S. Department of Education, 2018). Studies have examined the demographics of women school principals in the K-12 public school setting by leadership type (elementary, secondary, superintendent), location (urban, suburban, town, and rural locations), characteristics of women school principals (years in the field of education, years in the classroom, leadership characteristics, disciplinary practices), and characteristics of the schools and school districts they serve as indicators of the phenomena (Elfers et al., 2017; Fuller et al., 2018; U.S. Department of Education, 2018). Studies have examined the lived experiences of women who lead schools and school districts and have also shown the progress in the representation of women school principals (Eckman, 2004; Elfers et al., 2017; Fuller, 2018; Kruse & Krumm, 2016; Murakami & Tornsen, 2017; U.S. Department of Education, 2018).

Although the rates of women serving K-12 schools as school principals are increasing since the 1990s, barriers continue to exist (Brown, 2004; Skrla et al., 2000; Violette, 2006). While women are progressively increasing their presence in school principal positions in the K-12 public school settings, women are less likely to serve in the role of secondary school principal (Domenech, 2012; Elfers et al., 2017; Fuller et al., 2018; Goldring & Tale, 2018). Research indicates that experience as a secondary school principal allows doors to be opened to individuals aspiring to the role of the

central office or superintendent, which is underrepresented by women (Bailes & Guthery, 2020; Domenech, 2012; U.S. Department of Education, 2016). To create an equitable representation of women in educational leadership positions from elementary to the role of superintendent and continue progress addressing barriers which exist for women who are or aspire to be secondary school principals and superintendents, it is essential to understand the characteristics of women who achieve the status of the secondary school principal in the U.S. Although there have been several studies that examine the demographics of women who are principals, such as race, age, and years spent in the classroom and additional characteristics such as leadership type, barriers, and the schools they lead as secondary school principals, few studies have analyzed progress in the representation of these women by U.S. regions.

The United States Census Bureau divides the country into four geographic regions that include the Northeast, Midwest, South, and West. Regions are further described by divisions within each geographic region. The Northeast Region includes two divisions: Division 1: New England (Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, and Vermont) and Division 2: Middle Atlantic (New Jersey, New York, and Pennsylvania). The Midwest Region also includes two divisions: Division 3: East North Central (Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Ohio, and Wisconsin); and Division 4: West North Central (Iowa, Kansas, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, and South Dakota). The Southern Region includes three divisions: Division 5: South Atlantic (Delaware, District of Columbia, Florida, Georgia, Maryland, North Carolina, South Carolina, Virginia, and West Virginia); Division 6: East South Central

(Alabama, Kentucky, Mississippi, and Tennessee); and Division 7: West South Central (Arkansas, Louisiana, Oklahoma, and Texas). And lastly, the Western Region includes Division 8: Mountain (Arizona, Colorado, Idaho, New Mexico, Montana, Utah, Nevada, and Wyoming); and Division 9: Pacific (Alaska, California, Hawaii, Oregon, and Washington) (U.S. Census Bureau, 2018).

The U.S. Census regions and divisions are a well-established standard used to differentiate between geographical differences in the country. Furthermore, the regions and divisions will serve as a characteristic to document progress or lack of progress in gender equity in educational leadership in the public school setting. Determining if the characteristics of women leaders who achieve the status of secondary school principals vary by region and division in the U.S. might provide a novel approach to describing the progress of gender equity in school administrative leadership.

### **Gender Gap in Educational Leadership by Region in the United States**

As the gender gap in education is explored across the U.S., some studies have described the phenomena of the underrepresentation of women educational leaders at the individual region and state level. Studies focusing on individual regions and states have included topics related to gender and leadership such as the characteristics of women school leaders, barriers to K-12 leadership, influencing factors for women who may aspire to move into the next role as a school leader, factors of female school principals by levels have also been investigated in the literature to describe women who lead elementary, middle, high school, and superintendency at the state or regional level (Goldring & Tale, 2018; Fuller et al., 2018; Hewlett & Luce, 2005; McGee,

2010; Sargent, 1997; Woverton & MacDonald, 2004). The literature also explores interactions between, gender, race, engagement in instructional management, time management, leadership behaviors, student performance, and disciplinary practices for women who lead at the state or regional level (Domenech, 2012; Elfers et al., 2017; Ely et al. 2014; Green, 2015; Nichols & Nichols, 2014).

At this time, a research gap exists examining the demographics of women leaders in the K-12 public school setting by leadership type (i.e., elementary, secondary, superintendent), location (i.e., urban, suburban, town, and rural locations) by geographic regions. A research gap also exists examining if individual characteristics (i.e., race, age, relationship status, parental status), characteristics of women before becoming school principals (i.e., years in the classroom, trajectory before leadership), and leadership characteristics (i.e., leadership style, disciplinary practices) vary by geographic region. Finally, characteristics of the schools and school districts that secondary school female leaders serve (i.e., rates of free and reduced-cost lunch, climate, teacher job satisfaction, the performance of standardized assessments) have not yet been explored in the literature by geographic regions in the U.S.

### **Purpose Statement**

The purpose of this ex post facto comparative, non-experimental study was to investigate the national trends in the demographics and characteristics of the schools served by women who are secondary school administrative leader in the U.S. to determine if trends in the demographics and characteristics of the schools varied by

geographical region. Table 1 shows the community types, individual characteristic, school leaders characteristics, and school characteristics analyzed in this study.

**Table 1**

*Demographics of Female Secondary School Leaders by regions (Northeast, South, Midwest, West) and divisions (Pacific, Mountain, West North Central, East North Central, West South Central, East South Central, South Atlantic, Middle Atlantic, and New England)*

<b>Community</b>	<b>Individual</b>	<b>School Leader</b>	<b>School</b>
<b>Types</b>	<b>Characteristics</b>	<b>Characteristics</b>	<b>Characteristics</b>
City	Race and Ethnicity	Years a School Leader	Title 1
Suburb	Age	Participation in Mentorship	Student
Town		Management and Department	Enrollment
Rural		Chair	Numbers
		Highest Degree Earned	

This study expanded the understanding of where women have made progress in educational leadership and/or where research efforts may be needed to identify further barriers to gender equity in the K-12 public education system by analyzing the characteristics of female secondary school administrative leaders by region, division, individual characteristics, characteristics as a school leader, and school characteristics. The literature has identified a multitude of studies that explored the characteristics and the lived experiences of women who are school administrative leaders (Domenech, 2012; Elfers et al., 2017; Ely et al. 2014; Green, 2015; Nichols & Nichols, 2014). By highlighting geographic locations, characteristics of female school leaders, and

schools that are led by women, this study provided a novel approach to exploring the characteristics of a historically underrepresented group of leaders by regions in the U.S.

The following research questions will be explored in this study:

What are the individual characteristics of women who are secondary school leaders in the K-12 public school setting by community type (rural, suburban, town, and urban locations), individual characteristics (age, race and ethnicity), school leadership characteristic (years as a school leader, participation in mentorship, department chair experience, and highest degree earned), and school characteristics (student population and accessed Title 1 funding) by four geographic regions that include the Northeast, Midwest, South, West, and nine division (New England, Middle Atlantic, East North Central, West North Central, South Atlantic, East South Central, West South Central, Mountain, and Pacific) within each geographic region?

To what extent do individual characteristics of women who are secondary school leaders in the K-12 public school setting significantly vary by community type (rural, suburban, town, and urban locations), individual characteristics (age, race and ethnicity), school leadership characteristic (years as a school leader, participation in mentorship, department chair experience, and highest degree earned), and school characteristics (student population and accessed Title 1 funding) by four geographic regions that include the Northeast, Midwest, South, West, and nine division (New England, Middle Atlantic, East North Central, West North Central, South Atlantic,

East South Central, West South Central, Mountain, and Pacific) within each geographic region?

This study analyzed survey data from *National Teacher and Principal Survey (NTPS)* from the 2017-2018 school year published by the National Center for Educational Statistics (NCES) to understand if individual characteristics, characteristics as a school leader, and school characteristics of female secondary school leaders vary by region and division.

### **Significance**

From entry-level leadership positions to the superintendency, research points to patterns in careers leading to the ascension of women aspiring to be educational leaders. In “The Study of the American Superintendency” (Glass et al., 2000) the most typical trajectory to the superintendency was explored. The majority of superintendents spent an average of 6 to 10 years in the classroom, gained their first administrative position before the age of 35, entered into educational leadership as a secondary level building administrator, and had previous athletic coaching experience. Glass et al. (2000) further identified patterns of career trajectories for women who have achieved the status of the superintendent. This study found that female superintendents who participated in the study had fewer years overall in education, spent more years as classroom teachers, served in smaller districts, and worked in elementary schools when compared to their male counterparts. Female superintendents were more likely to begin their leadership careers in elementary positions, and few had athletic coaching experiences, while their male counterparts had significantly more



experience as secondary school leaders and coaches (Bailes & Guthery, 2020; Doyle & Locke, 2014). These studies, which examine the most common pathways to the superintendency, highlight discrepancies in the experiences of superintendency along gender lines. If women are to have equal access to all leadership opportunities in public schools, secondary school leadership experience is an important piece of improving access to all leadership options. By highlighting geographic locations and characteristics of female secondary school leaders, this study provided a novel approach to exploring the characteristics of a historically underrepresented group of leaders by regions in the U.S. to describe where progress is happening and where more work needs to be done.

### **Summary**

The quality of school leaders working in the K-12 public school settings matters to school and student success. Despite the need for quality school leaders to lead public schools, and although women significantly outnumber men working as teachers, women are not equally represented in leadership positions when compared to their male counterparts (Taie & Goldring, 2020, U.S. Department of Education, 2018). This discrepancy in leadership by gender is especially pronounced at the secondary school and superintendent level of leadership. Secondary school leadership has been shown to open doors to the superintendency. Therefore, if barriers exist for women who may someday lead public schools at all levels of public education, having a better understanding of the demographic and characteristics of women these roles regionally

might open doors to understanding where eliminating barriers might focus future research efforts.

This study is organized into five chapters, appendices, and references. Chapter 1 introduced the problem, provided context to the phenomena of gender inequity in educational leadership, described the purpose of the study, research questions, limitations, and delimitations. Chapter two includes a literature review of gender and leadership, barriers to leadership, barriers to leadership in the K-12 system, and regional studies that describe the current status of women and school leadership. Chapter three includes the research, research sample, instrument, data source, collections, and analysis methods. Chapters four and five includes the results of the study and the implications of the findings.

## **Chapter 2: Literature Review**

Leadership in the United States (U.S.) has been and continues to be dominated by men (Kellerman & Rhode, 2007; U.S. Department of Education, 2005). The explanation for the underrepresentation of women holding leadership positions in the U.S. has been explored in the literature to include historical, cultural, institutional, and internal causes (Belkin, 2003; Zimmerman & Clark, 2016). In comparison to leadership trends in the U.S., the K-12 public school setting has historically been overrepresented by men. Although the representation of women who lead schools and school districts has improved since WWII in the K-12 public school setting, particularly for women who seek to become elementary school principals, women continue to be unrepresented in school leadership at the secondary levels (Blout, 1998; Eckman, 2004; Elfers et al., 2017). This chapter seeks to describe the current trends, barriers, and characteristics of women who seek or hold leadership positions in the U.S., in the K-12 public school setting, and at the secondary school principal level and by four geographic regions that include the Northeast, Midwest, South, West, and nine division (New England, Middle Atlantic, East North Central, West North Central, South Atlantic, East South Central, West South Central, Mountain, and Pacific).

### **Current Trends**

To explore the topic of women and leadership in K-12 public school settings, understanding current trends in leadership for women across multiple career paths is

critical. Woman's rights have undergone significant changes in recent history such as voting, access to higher levels of employment, and higher education; and yet, they continue to be underrepresented in leadership across multiple career types. Although progress has been made toward women achieving management positions, it has not been in leadership roles viewed by society as having the highest levels of power. When it comes to positions of leadership and the highest levels of power in U.S. society, women continue to fall behind men in positions that have the greatest amount of influence and power on organizations (Kellerman & Rhode, 2007; U.S. Department of Education, 2005).

As of 2018, women have earned more than 57% of undergraduate degrees, 59% of master's degrees, 48.5 % of all law degrees, 47.5% of all medical degrees, 38% of Master of Business Administration and other generalists degrees, and 49% of Master's degrees in other specialized areas (U.S. Department of Education, 2019). Women account for 47% of the U.S. labor force and 52.5% of the college-educated workforce, and yet they lag behind men in leadership positions (Warner et al., 2018; Refki & Echete, 2012; U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, 2004). In legal professions, they represent 45% of associate positions, but only 22.7% of partners and 19% of equity partners. In academia, women have the majority of doctoral degrees but only 32% are full-time professors and 30% are college presidents. In the financial sector, women have 61% of roles as accountants and auditors, 53% of financial managers, and 37% of financial analysts, but only hold 12.5% of the chief financial officer positions in Fortune 500 companies (Catalyst, 2019). Currently in

government, in 2020, women hold 27% of the seats in the House of Representatives and 24% of the seats in Congress. Despite these gains, women represent only 18% of governorships (Dittman, 2017). Of the women who go down the path of law, less than 20% ended up as law firm partners, federal judges, and law school deans (Patton, 2004).

Despite holding half of the college degrees, about 25% of women hold upper-level state government positions, 27% are state judges, and 25% are federal judges (U.S. Department of Education, 2019; Refki & Eshete, 2012). In business, women hold about one-third of the MBAs in the United States, yet account for only 5.4% of Fortune 500 companies. This discrepancy of female leadership to male leadership is also true for women holding top leadership positions on the board of directors and corporate officers (Catalyst, 2019). In the religious world, regardless of holding half of the degrees from divinity schools, women hold 3% of the head pastor jobs at large churches (Banerjee, 2006). As these studies indicate, women are not acquiring leadership roles indicative of qualifications and education at the same rate as men; men, across multiple career paths in leadership, continue to hold the majority of leadership roles.

## **Gender**

Gender is a powerful characteristic and determining factor impacting the life of every individual on the planet. Depending on the culture and time in history an individual is born, the gender identity of an individual can have implications for the experiences that an individual might have. For this paper, gender and how it impacts

the perception of women as educational leaders can best be understood through a developmental and cultural lens defined by western culture in the 20<sup>th</sup> century.

In the 1970s academic researchers began to differentiate terminology to more precisely describe both the biological and the social differences experienced by male, female, and intersex individuals (Owen-Blakemore et al., 2009; Muehlenhard & Peterson, 2011; Parpart et al., 2000). In 1973, psychologist John Money introduced the term “gender” as a concept differentiated from the term “sex” about the behavior and perceptions of the sexes separately than the biological differences in characteristics of males and females. Money (1973) also coined the term “gender roles” to capture the social experiences and behavioral expectations of males and female individuals in western culture. Money defined gender roles to include general mannerisms, deportment, and demeanor; spontaneous topics of talk in conversation and casual comment; content of dreams, daydreams and fantasies; replies to oblique inquiries and projective tests; evidence of erotic practices and, finally, the person’s replies to direct inquiry. Additionally, social psychologist Kay Deaux (1984) further proposed that gender might be associated with judgments both positively and negatively about gender differences associated with masculine and feminine characteristics of the sexes. Deaux further argued that gender stereotyping of masculine and feminine characteristics was subject to hold value in western culture, which influenced gender roles.

More recently, academic research has provided evidence of gender stereotyping along sex-based gender roles. Gender roles have also been identified to

be culturally and socially created, associated with and the most common biological sexes (i.e. male and female), and are associated with a positive and negative value in western culture (Hollingshead & Fraiden, 2003; Onea & Cruz, 2014; Pryzgoda & Chrisler, 2000). Gender stereotypes associated with masculinity have been shown to include, but not be limited to: competitiveness, assertiveness, decisiveness, competence, daring, more likely to make visual and auditory associations while gender stereotypes associated with femininity have been identified to include but not limited to characteristics such as superior emotional intelligence, networking capacity, warmth, comforting, collaborative, and expressive (Onea & Cuza, 2015; Stănculescu, 2009). Furthermore, studies have demonstrated that both males and females use gender stereotypes to determine gender-specific tasks and skills (Ellemers & Jetten 2013; Garcia et al., 2010; Hollingshead & Fraiden, 2003).

### **Explaining the Gender Gap Discrepancy in Leadership**

Several explanations have been proposed to address discrepancies between men and women who hold positions of leadership in the U.S. Research studies have explained this phenomenon to be a result of several factors which include, but are not limited to: women's choice to opt-out of career paths to care for children, difficulty with balancing gender-based family expectations with pressure to perform at work, inflexible workplace structures, inadequate public policies to support working parents, gender bias in a leadership opportunity, gender bias in evaluation and mentoring, and perception of women leadership styles (Deaux & Kite, 1993; Eagly & Karau, 2002; Heilman, 2001; Northhouse, 2016; Rudman & Kilianski, 2000).

### **Gender Bias in Leadership Opportunity.**

As women make their way toward leadership positions, barriers exist in the structure of organizations. Some of these barriers include a disconnect between models of leadership and gender-stereotyped characteristic of women, bias in evaluation, and bias in mentoring opportunities.

### **Gender stereotypes and leadership characteristics.**

Traditional models of leadership are based on characteristics associated with masculinity (Deaux & Kite, 1993; Heilman, 2001; Northouse, 2016). These characteristics have included dominance, authority, assertiveness, and other stereotypical masculine qualities. Despite changing views of desirable leadership qualities, some of which are attributed to qualities associated with femininity, such as interpersonal strengths, cooperative behaviors, and collaboration, people still rate men high on most qualities associated with leadership (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Rudman & Kilianski, 2000). In cases where women leaders present with characteristics associated with men, these women can be viewed negatively and deemed to be overly ambitious (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Rudman & Kilianski, 2000). Additionally, views about the legitimacy of a woman in a leadership position can be influenced by gender stereotypes and how closely aligned are her followers' beliefs (Baldner & Pierro, 2018).



### **Gender bias in evaluation and mentoring.**

Even when women achieve management and professional jobs, they often experience fewer opportunities to develop the leadership skills needed to ascend to the next level of power. Two factors that have been identified as necessary to leadership development are feedback from evaluations and mentoring opportunities. Research indicates that people demonstrate in-group favoritism. In-group favoritism is defined as the preferences that individuals feel for members of their group (Kellerman & Rhode, 2007). In-group favoritism, or member of the dominant group, attributes the success of its members to positive intrinsic personal qualities such as intelligence, drive, and commitment while viewing out-of-group members' success to luck (Foschi, 2000; Ridgeway, 1997). Because males are more likely to hold leadership roles and are considered the dominant group in leadership roles across multiple domains, their perception of women aspiring to lead may be influenced by their out-of- group status. The perceptions of women in leadership, therefore, may not be attributed to their positive intrinsic qualities, which have been shown to impact evaluations (Eagly, 2007; Ridgeway, 1997). When evaluation results do not indicate characteristics favorable to leadership, women can unintentionally be passed over for mentoring opportunities based on their evaluations, while males have been shown to receive overly positive feedback from male superiors, and therefore are identified as having leadership potential. In-group favoritism in the evaluation process is particularly harmful to a woman's career, because mentors have been identified as one of the most important factors in the ascension of individuals into positions of leadership (Landau,

1995; Van Gils, 2018). Good mentorships can provide an aspiring leader with access to networks, contacts, and professional development opportunities (Foschi, 2000; Ridgeway, 1997).

### **Women's choice.**

A commonly held position taken to explain the discrepancy between men and women holding leadership in the United States includes the concept of women opting out of the workforce by choice, preferring to maintain the business of home life (Belkin, 2003; Kellerman & Rhode, 2007; Cabrera, 2007). Women currently earn undergraduate and graduate degrees similar to their male peers, and despite high levels of academic achievement, choose to exit the workforce after becoming parents. In some ways, the phenomena of investing time and resources into education, yet choosing not to pursue professional achievement, flies in the face of the tenants of the feminist movement and the achievements that movement aspired to begin in the 1960s and beyond. Specifically, one major goal of the feminist movement was to remove barriers to women accessing education so that women might have equal opportunity to achieve like men. This achievement included taking ownership of financial and decision-making power in all career paths (Belkin, 2003; Nicholson, 1990). However, even with increased financial and decision-making power, women have not achieved leadership positions that yield high levels of power similarly to men (Belkin, 2003; Nicholson, 1990).

Despite reductions in barriers to women seeking education and participating in the workforce, some women opt out of career paths that might lead to leadership

opportunities in the future, citing a desire to stay at home and tend to the business of home life as their motive (Belkin, 2003; Zimmerman & Clark, 2016). Cabrera (2007) did a study to examine the motivation behind why women leaders ( $n = 497$ ) at the management level took career breaks and measured the frequency of those breaks. Results indicated that over 50% of women opted to take career breaks, and the most common reason for the break was due to child-rearing. Additionally, Herr and Wolfram (2011) conducted a study that also examined the motivations of women ( $n = 1522$ ) who opted out of careers. The results of this study used data from the National Study of Graduates and Harvard Alumnae. The results indicated women in this study primarily took a break in their careers to care for children.

Interestingly, this number of highly educated women opting out of career life is much smaller than the percentage of women who continue to engage in their careers, even after becoming parents. When comparing studies examining the frequency of women participating in the workforce from the 1960s to more recent frequencies, the results show a significant jump in numbers. Specifically, in 1960, 36% of women were fully employed. In 2013, 53% of women participated in the workforce full time, and 70% of these women also identify as mothers (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2014). Given the high number of women who continue to pursue a career after becoming mothers and are equally represented in the workforce when compared to their male peers, women still do not achieve leadership roles at the same rate as men. Therefore, research has identified underlying hidden barriers which make it increasingly difficult

for highly educated and skilled women to opt-out of their potential as leaders in all areas of the working world.

***Gender Roles in family settings.***

Although the workforce has shifted and women are participating in the workforce more than ever, women continue to face pressure to take on more of the parenting and domestic responsibilities than their male counterparts. Numerous studies indicate that women do on average make different choices than men when it comes to responding to child-rearing and carry a greater load regarding domestic responsibilities (Ely et al., 2014; Hewlett & Luce, 2005; Kellerman & Rhode, 2007; Stone & Lovejoy, 2004).

***Impacts of child-rearing.***

Studies examining how childrearing impacts professionals are well documented to differ by gender. Hewlett and Luce (2005) surveyed three thousand high-achieving American women and men. These high-achieving individuals were defined as those with graduate or professional degrees or high honors undergraduate degrees who had opted to leave the workforce. In this study, four in 10 women reported leaving their professional life or opted for a position that provided lesser compensation and fewer responsibilities to accommodate for their domestic responsibilities. This study also revealed that only one in 10 men left their professional life for the same reasons. The top three factors given for leaving professional life for women included: family time (44%), earn a degree or other training (23%), and work not enjoyable (17%). Men on the other hand indicated a desire to change careers

(29%), earn a degree or other training (25%), and work no enjoyable (24%) as the top three factors influencing opting to leave their positions. According to this study, the women who participated were more influenced by the impact of childrearing and family responsibilities than men (Hewlett & Luce, 2005).

Ely et al. (2014) explored the career trends of female graduates of the Harvard Business School MBA program and revealed that despite a desire to hold senior leadership positions, career opportunities were impacted along with gender role expectations. Specifically, in this study, once child-rearing became part of the dynamic for these women, they reported pressure to prioritize family over work. However, despite these pressures, 70% of the women in this study opted to stay in their careers but reported feeling overwhelmed by the combination of domestic, child-rearing, and work responsibilities. Furthermore, due to these domestic responsibilities, the women in this study were unable to put in the time necessary to move up the career ladder at the same pace as their male colleagues. Essentially, women in the study reported disappointment with the uneven career pace when compared to their male peers with children (Ely et al., 2014).

### ***Domestic responsibilities.***

In addition to experiencing impacts of parental responsibilities, working women experience unequal domestic responsibilities. Even as women increase their numbers in the working world, and attitudes about working women have dramatically shifted, they continue to shoulder more domestic responsibilities than their male peers (Bureau of Labor and Statics, 2019). When looking at the percentage of time spent

engaging in selected activities, the Bureau of Labor Statistics (2019) reveals that women continue to spend more time engaging in household activities, purchasing goods and services, caring for and helping household management, engaging in educational activities, completing phone calls, mailing, and e-mailing tasks than their male peers. When compared to U.S. women, men spend more time engaging in work-related behaviors, leisure, and sports. When looking at how domestic responsibilities affect high-achieving women, a similar picture emerges. Specifically, high-achieving women thought their male husband and partners created more domestic work than they managed (Hewlett, 2001). Additional studies have explored the reasons for well-educated women who left the workforce. The most prevalent factors influencing these women to leave the workforce included their lack of perceived support from their husbands to manage childcare and other domestic tasks (Stone & Lovejoy, 2004). These inequities in domestic responsibilities may impact the ability of working women to take on more workplace responsibilities, including leadership opportunities.

### **Inflexible Workplace Structures and Inadequate Public Policies.**

Considering that working women experience different pressures about child-rearing and domestic responsibilities than male peers, workplace practices can create barriers to women aspiring or holding leadership positions in the U.S. (Kellerman & Rhode, 2007).

#### **Inflexible and long hours.**

Leaders in all professional domains, regardless of gender, face highly demanding schedules. Regardless of work options, such as flexible work schedules

and the ability to communicate to the outside world through technological advances, people holding management and executive positions work 60 hours or more each week on average to meet the demands of the job and meet expectations of leadership (Bureau of Labor and Statistic, 2019; Kellerman & Rhode, 2007). Research indicates there are pressures for leaders to meet the long hour demands of leadership positions (Bureau of Labor and Statics, 2019; Cabrera, 2007; Ely et al., 2014; Hewlett & Luce, 2005). These studies and reports indicate that any reduction in hours by the leaders has consequences for future career prospects. For example, if a professional woman or man aspires to work their way up the career ladder, any gap in work or lapse in time commitment toward the job might result in fewer opportunities to advance in the future. A lapse in work, say for maternity leave, family responsibilities, or caring for an aging parent, or opting to work part-time, are more likely to impact women than men (Stone & Lovejoy, 2004; Warner et. al, 2018). The unrealistic pressures of keeping long hours, maintaining family responsibilities, and upholding domestic expectations can make climbing the ladder to leadership for women much more challenging.

#### **Ineffective public policies.**

When women and men are required to or choose to take a gap in work, the U.S. Department of Labor has regulations regarding the entitlements included in the Family and Medical Leave Act (FMLA) (U.S. Department of Labor, 2019). For FMLA, qualified employees are entitled to twelve workweeks of leave in 12 months for the birth of a child; care for a newborn child within one year of birth; care of and

placement of a child for adoption or foster care; to care for one's spouse, children, or parent with a serious health condition; a serious health condition that renders an employee unable to perform their job; and any qualifying military member (U.S. Department of Labor, 2019). Under the FMLA, if a person returns to work within the 12 weeks, their job is protected under the law. Unfortunately, evidence exists that women who are attempting to work their way up the ladder view a gap in work as career suicide (Kellerman & Rhode, 2007; Palazzari, 2007; Porter, 2014). In cases where women take time off from work beyond what is allowed through the FMLA, high achieving women report that their male peers that opted not to take leave for family reasons are given opportunities to move forward in their career because they are perceived to be more committed to the organization since they can put in the long hours (Palazzari, 2007; Ely et. al, 2014). Because working women experience workplace practices and public process, these barriers can impact women aspiring or holding leadership positions in the U.S.

### **Women and Educational Leadership**

As with professional women who are in multiple career paths in the United States, leadership in the K-12 public school setting in the United States has historically been overrepresented by men. Women who seek to become elementary school principals have made gains in leading schools; however, women continue to be unrepresented in school administrative leadership at the secondary levels.

This section of the literature review will explore the topic of women and secondary school administrative leadership in K-12 public school setting to understand



the historical context of women in educational leadership, explore trends in gender leadership gaps at school and school districts, define internal and external barriers to women leaders, and examine the trends and experiences of the women who lead at the secondary school level.

### **History of women in educational leadership.**

The perceptions of women as school administrative educational leaders and the opportunities provided them to lead schools has been highly impacted by historical factors. These historical factors include but are not limited to: first-wave feminism, perception of teaching as a feminized profession, and major historical events such as World War II (Blout, 1998; Seller, 1989; Stinger, 2018).

*Early Trends.* During the 1800s in the United States, men were considered to be the most appropriate gender to provide an education to school-aged children. As America's public-school system began to align with state and national standards and more administrative controls from local and state governments, men fled the profession, which allowed women to emerge as teachers in the public and private school setting (Blout, 1998). Interestingly, around the early 1900s women represented 70% of the teaching workforce. Additionally, the first female superintendent, Ella Flagg Young, was promoted to the Chicago City School District in 1909 (Stringer, 2018). Due to the feminization of the teaching profession in the early years of the 1900s, teaching became socially constructed as women's work. This social construct of a feminized profession also aligned with the women's suffrage movement, jump-starting first-wave feminism in the United States (Blout, 1998). First-wave is defined

as the movement occurring in the early 1900s that addressed equal contract and property rights for women, which was in opposition to ownership of married women by their husbands. The first-wave feminism had an impact on the perception of education and leadership, which impacted the rate of women leading schools. By the late 19th century, feminist activism was primarily focused on the right to vote. American first-wave feminism ended with the passage of the 19th Amendment to the U.S. Constitution in 1919, granting women voting rights (Drucker, 2018). For example, in 1920, the percentage of women educators peaked at 84% and included a dominance of women in supervisor and administrative positions in schools (Seller, 1989).

***Representation of women in educational leadership post-WWII.***

Although gains achieved in the representation of women as educational leaders during the first-waves of feminism were promising, by 1966 only 4% of women were serving as school elementary principals. This change was a dramatic shift from the representation of women in school leadership from 1950 in which women represented 56% of elementary school principal positions in the U.S. Additionally, a similar pattern of decline in female representation in the superintendency was noted during this period (Blout, 1998). In 1966, scholars and the public hypothesized reasons for this decline included, but are not limited to: backlash to women who crossed gender-appropriate lines during the suffrage movement and first-wave of feminism; institutionalized efforts by school administrators, university professors, government, and private funding to promote school administration as acceptable work for men who

were veterans from World War II; the rise of school administrative training programs; G.I. Bill that allowed funding for men to attend college and programs for school administrators; efforts to force women building administrators to return to the classroom or retire to open up school administrator positions for men returning from war (Blout, 1998).

### **Exploring gender gaps.**

Barriers to women seeking and serving schools in leadership positions in the K-12 public school system have been well established and identified. These barriers are similar to barriers experienced by women seeking and serving in leadership positions across all career types. Barriers to women accessing leadership in education can be broadly characterized to include internal and external forces that cause leadership gaps by gender. Some barriers, which have been identified by women in educational leadership include, but are not limited to: negative stereotypes about women as leaders, bias and discrimination, role conflicts, low salaries, high job demands, lack of mentors, lack of support by other leaders, slower ascension rate achieving educational leadership positions, family responsibilities, and low confidence (Gupton, 2009; McGee, 2010; Pirouznia, 2013; White, 2017; Wolverton & MacDonald, 2004).

### ***Internal barriers.***

As previously mentioned, the barriers women face seeking leadership positions in the K-12 public school setting are similar to those across all career types (Gupton, 2009; McGee, 2010; Pirouznia, 2013; Wolverton & MacDonald, 2004).

One internal barrier identified in the literature that contributes to the underrepresentation of female leaders working in public schools is the choice to delay or opt-out of pursuing leadership roles in a school district (McGee, 2010; Pirouznia, 2013; Wolverson & MacDonald, 2004). For the women who aspire to be school leaders, some women report a lack of encouragement, lack of aspiration, and low-self-esteem as being contributing factors. In a qualitative study conducted by Pirouznia (2013), nine aspiring women school leaders identified a growing lack of encouragement to pursue leadership opportunities despite completing administrative licensing programs. The participants in the study indicated that, in their experiences, gender bias toward women leaders contributed to a lack of motivation to pursue a school leadership position, which is viewed as more suited for stereotypical male characteristics. A study by Wolverson and MacDonald (2004) examined the most common career paths in the superintendency in school districts in the Pacific Northwest. The researchers compared career paths along gender lines for potential individuals who might ascend to the highest position of power in a school district. The results of this study indicated that women who could potentially ascend to the superintendency report a lack of motivation, or choose to opt-out, due to a lack of support and a desire to avoid a highly scrutinized, and crisis ridden position.

For many women who aspire to become school principals, juggling a career while managing the pressures of child-rearing domestic responsibilities have been reported to be an internal barrier to seeking school leadership opportunities (Gupton, 2009; McGee, 2010; Pirouznia, 2013; White, 2017). Numerous studies indicate that

women do on average make different choices than men when it comes to responding to child-rearing, and they carry a greater load regarding domestic responsibilities. A study, using narrative inquiry methods, was conducted by White (2017) to examine how four women superintendents in Wisconsin understand and manage the challenges of balancing work aspirations and domestic responsibilities. White's findings indicate that all the women in the study experienced struggles balancing work and family as educational leaders. The study conducted by Wyland (2016) explored the underrepresentation of women superintendents in Minnesota. A mixed-methods approach was used to examine the perceived barriers of female participants. Study findings indicated that family responsibilities and expectations were identified barriers for the participants of the study as they ascended to the role of superintendent. A study conducted by McGee (2010) examined commonalities and differences between aspiring women school leaders. McGee identified a common desire among the participants of this study to delay seeking school leadership roles until their children had grown to an age of greater independence. Additionally, a study conducted by Pirouznia (2013) examined perceptions of women aspiring to the role of school principal also identified balancing work and family life as a barrier to pursuing school leadership opportunities.

***Institutionalized or societal barriers.***

Women working in schools face institutional and societal barriers when pursuing leadership positions in the K-12 public school setting similarly to women

pursuing leadership positions across all career types (Gupton, 2009; Gupton & Slick, 1996; Morrison, 2012; Shepard, 1997; Skrla et al., 2000; Violette, 2006).

One institutionalized or social barrier that has been identified for women seeking educational leadership roles is the negative views on traits associated with femininity. The 1996 study titled “Women as School District Administrators: Past and Present Attitudes of Superintendents and School Board Presidents” found that approximately 70% of the superintendents and school board presidents, at the time of the study, still believed stereotypes associated with feminine behavior (Shepard, 1997). Additionally, stereotypical attitudes about femininity and the influence of emotions on the decision has been cited in the literature as barriers to women seeking educational leadership roles (Skrla et al., 2000). In a study conducted by Skrla, Reyes, and Scheurich (2000), researchers explored the role of sexism in the experiences of women superintendents. This study used a qualitative research design where case study methodology was used to collect the lived experiences of three retired women superintendents. All participants indicated that they experienced comments and views expressed by board members, committee members, teachers, and parents, throughout their careers that they perceived would not have been experienced by a male superintendent. Specifically, each participant reported that they were asked to reassure the school community, that as women, emotions would not get in the way of good decision making. Additionally, Violette (2006) conducted a mixed-methods study to explore barriers to women superintendents. All six female superintendents interviewed reported encountering gender discrimination at some point in their careers in

educational leadership. Barriers experienced by the participants included lack of gender issue training in educational administration preparation, expectations to follow traditional leadership styles, stereotypes, and cultural expectations, political barriers, perception of a glass ceiling, and a “good ole boy” network as they ascended to the position of superintendent.

As additional institutionalized or social barriers for women seeking educational leadership roles have been identified, the literature has also included a lack of support or mentorship experiences for women with leadership qualities in the K-12 public school setting (Gupton & Slick, 1996; Morrison, 2012; Wyland, 2016). Research indicated that a lack of sufficient support and mentorship opportunities for women in educational leadership is an established barrier to achieving leadership positions in the public school system. A seminal study, conducted by Gupton and Slick, during the years 1992-1993, examined the experiences of women educational leaders. Consequently, researchers published a book titled *Highly Successful Women Administrators: The Inside Stories of How They Got There* (1996) to expand on the findings of their study. Gupton and Slick identified several barriers to women through their experiences as educational leaders. Barriers experienced by women in educational leadership identified in the study included: lack of support and mentoring, experienced negative views toward women, lack of training, and lack of opportunity to lead. A study by Morrison (2012) sought to examine if the same barriers identified in the Gupton and Slick’s study held years later for women educational leaders in Pennsylvania. Results of the findings revealed that although more women held

educational leadership roles than during the years of 1992-93, a lack of support and mentorship continued to present as a barrier to women new to educational leadership.

Furthermore, research indicates that women in educational leadership roles experience a slower rate of ascension from classroom teachers to educational leaders in the K-12 public school setting. Time spent in the classroom varies by men and women before achieving a leadership position (Glass, et al., 2000; Wyland, 2006). Once out of the classroom and in leadership roles, women educational leaders are older than male peers when attaining secondary positions, central office, and superintendent positions (Glass et. al, 2000; Wyland, 2006). In a study conducted by Wyland (2016), in addition to identifying family responsibilities and expectations as barriers for 34 women educational leaders, the study also identified perceptions of seven women and the ascension rate to achieving entry-level leadership positions when compared to their male counterparts through interviews. Specifically, participants reported that although ultimately the individuals in the study ascended to leadership positions, male colleagues, sometimes with less experience, obtained leadership positions more quickly than the women in the study. A study conducted by Glass et al. (2000) also found that women in educational leadership roles take longer to obtain entry-level educational leadership positions than men.

### **Women and Secondary Educational Leadership**

In addition to all women who are or aspire to be school administrative leaders, women who lead schools at the secondary levels face internal and institutionalized or societal barriers. Current trends suggest that women at the secondary levels are less



likely to serve as school administrative leaders when compared to their peers who lead elementary schools. The underrepresentation of women at the secondary levels suggests some additional barriers exist for women who seek to access secondary administrative school experiences.

### **Current trends.**

In the K-12 public school setting, women have made significant strides achieving school leadership positions as elementary school principals. According to the U.S. Department of Education (2018), 68% of elementary school principal positions are held by women. However, at the secondary level of school leadership, women continue to lag behind men. The U.S. Department of Education (2018) reports that women are less likely to hold public school principal jobs with 40% of women representing at the middle school and 33% at the high school level. Studies examining the rates of women in principal positions at the secondary level by state are similar to reports presented by the U.S. Department of Education. In a study conducted by Fuller et al. (2018), the researchers examined the representation of public-school principals by gender and type of leadership position (elementary, middle, and high) in the K-12 system in Texas. A quantitative research methodology was used to analyze the gender of school principals by school type and school characteristics over 25 years. The results of this study concluded that the percentage of women working as principals has improved over 25 years in Texas. Women were found to more frequently hold positions at elementary schools, fewer at middle school, and the least of all at the high school level. At middle schools and high schools, women were more likely to serve as

principals in urban areas (large cities, mid-range cities, and large suburbs) than in rural areas.

Elfers et al. (2017) examined demographic characteristics of 1,928 principals and 1,197 assistant principals in Washington state between the years of 2000 to 2016. Researchers examined the characteristics of individuals holding the principal and vice-principal positions. The outcome of this study found that in 2016 roughly half of the principals (49.8%) and assistant principals (50.2%) were female. Interestingly, a larger proportion of females work in elementary administrative roles (57% principals; 62.8% assistant) and more males work in secondary administrative roles (62.5% principal; 55.4% assistant). This study identified that most of the principals were White (89.4% principals; and 83.9% vice-principals). Additionally, nearly all principals (96.7%) and assistant principals (98.6%) had earned a Masters or Doctoral degree.

Skeete (2017) also analyzed the demographic profiles of public school districts in four of the largest states in the United States: California, Michigan, New York, and Texas. This study explored the characteristics of school districts by locale, size, diversity of student population, and the poverty level of the schools by the gender of the superintendent. The results of this study found no relationship between the locales of the districts and the gender of the superintendent but did find female superintendents were more likely to lead smaller school districts with higher poverty rates than male superintendents.

**Institutionalized or societal barriers.**

Both internal and institutionalized, or societal barriers have been identified in the literature to explain the discrepancy in leadership at the secondary level by gender (Eckman, 2004; Elfers et al., 2017; Fuller, 2018; Kruse & Krumm, 2016; Murakami & Tornsen, 2017). Some barriers that have been identified by women in educational leadership at the secondary level include, but are not limited to: negative stereotypes about women as leaders, bias and discrimination, role conflicts, low salaries, high job demands, lack of mentors and support by other leaders, slower ascension rate achieving educational leadership positions, family responsibilities and expectations, and low confidence (Gupton, 2009; McGee, 2010; Pirouznia, 2013; White, 2017; Wolverton & MacDonald, 2004).

In a study by Eckman (2004), the researcher employed a survey to collect quantitative data on 174 male and 164 female high school principals to compare their experiences and paths to the principalship. After quantitative data were collected, participants were selected to complete individual interviews. The results of this study indicated that although male and female high school principals shared similar experiences in the ascension to their roles as secondary leaders, such as reporting conflicts with work-life balance and job satisfaction, there were some distinctions between genders. Specifically, the male principals in this study were noted to have intentionally sought the position of principal, perceived benefiting from access to the “good old boys” club, identified clear mentorship opportunities that guided their career paths, as well as reported leadership styles associated with traditional leadership

models. In contrast, female principals in this study reported that they had not intended on becoming principals when they entered into education, expressed frustration with the “good old boys club” dynamics, were intentional about seeking mentors to help them develop, and reported leadership styles that emphasize instructional leadership.

Murakami and Tornsen (2017) examined the perceptions and lived experiences of two female principals, at the secondary levels, involving issues of equitable practices around the development of their professional identities in their roles as leaders. This study employed a case study methodology, which included semi-structured interviews. The findings of this study indicated that both women perceived inequity in the development of their professional identities around similar themes. The themes that emerged included apprehension from building staff about their democratic leadership styles and ethical decision making, a lack of emphasis on the positive qualities of leadership associated with feminine characteristics, and the lack of mentorship opportunities for aspiring female leaders. These perceived barriers to women in this study were reported to make experiences as leaders more challenging than their male peers.

Through the lens of Standpoint Theory, Kruse and Krumm (2016) used qualitative methodology to understand the lived experiences of four female high school principals in Oklahoma. Female high school principals were selected to participate in individual interviews, touring their schools, observing classrooms, and meeting the teachers and staff. In this study, the researchers identified female high school principals as underrepresented in secondary leadership, even when compared to

national averages. This study identified barriers to these participants. These barriers included family responsibility, lack of confidence in formal education, and lack of mobility. This study also found that connections with a male in a superior leadership position were important to employment opportunities. Participants also identified that they experienced a rite of passage that included experience working in lower-level administrative positions, a self-imposed notion of leadership, and finding their female leadership style. All participants noted that they had a strong network of community members, were from supportive families and friends, had mothers who worked in education and were supportive of their daughter's aspirations.

Based on the studies conducted by Eckman (2004), Murakami & Tornsen (2017), and Kruse and Krumm (2016), women who are school leaders at the secondary levels may experience barriers similar to women who hold or aspire to leadership positions similar to women in careers outside of education.

### **Regions in the United States and Women Educational Leaders**

Research seeking to explore the topic of women and leadership in the K-12 public school setting includes current trends, barriers, and the lived experiences of women by state and regions. To better understand current trends, barriers, and lived experiences of women by region, this section will summarize research about women's educational leaders as defined by the U.S. Census Bureau.

The U.S. Census Bureau divides the country into four geographic regions that include the Northeast, Midwest, South, and West. Regions are further described by divisions within each geographic region. The Northeast Region includes two divisions:

Division 1: New England (Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, and Vermont) and Division 2: Middle Atlantic (New Jersey, New York, and Pennsylvania). The Midwest Region also includes two divisions: Division 3: East North Central (Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Ohio, and Wisconsin); and Division 4: West North Central (Iowa, Kansas, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, and South Dakota). The Southern Region includes three divisions: Division 5: South Atlantic (Delaware, District of Columbia, Florida, Georgia, Maryland, North Carolina, South Carolina, Virginia, and West Virginia); Division 6: East South Central (Alabama, Kentucky, Mississippi, and Tennessee); and Division 7: West South Central (Arkansas, Louisiana, Oklahoma, and Texas). And lastly, the Western Region includes Division 8: Mountain (Arizona, Colorado, Idaho, New Mexico, Montana, Utah, Nevada, and Wyoming); and Division 9: Pacific (Alaska, California, Hawaii, Oregon, and Washington) (U.S. Census Bureau, 2018).

### **The Northwest Region.**

The Northwest Region in the U.S. is organized by two divisions. States in Division 1 or New England include Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, and Vermont. States in Division 2, or Mid-Atlantic, include New Jersey, New York, and Pennsylvania (U.S. Census Bureau, 2018). Studies that examine current trends, barriers, and lived experiences of women in these regions in the Northwest will be summarized in the following section.

Research exploring the topic of women and leadership in K-12 public schools by states or the Northwest Region overall are included in this section of the literature

review. Studies focusing on the Northwest Region appear to be primarily accomplished through the work of dissertations and do not include all the states included in this region. Specifically, this literature review was only able to uncover studies in Connecticut, New Jersey, New York, and Pennsylvania. The studies uncovered topics about the characteristics of women's educational leaders, leadership qualities, and effectiveness as leaders.

#### **Characteristics of women educational leaders in the northeast region.**

A quantitative research study by Wells (1993) was conducted in Connecticut's five largest urban school districts to examine the relationship among instructional management behavior, time management, years of administrative experiences, school size, and gender of elementary school principals. An analysis of variance, correlation, and hierarchical regression analysis revealed a significant relationship between perceived instructional management behavior and time management was found to differ by gender of the school principal.

Another quantitative research study by Sargent (1997) was conducted to describe the self-perceived leadership behavior of female school principals in New Jersey public schools. Additionally, this study sought to examine the relationship between leadership behavior concerning age, marital status, ethnicity, number of children, type of school, educational attainment level, attendance at private or public universities, years of teaching experience, years of administrative experience, level of education of parents, occupation of parents, birth order in the family, and subject and grade level taught. Findings from 230 female principals in New Jersey found that the

majority of the respondents were married, White, had two children, worked in public schools, achieved a Master's Degree, attended a state university as an undergraduate and graduate student, taught for 11 to 15 years, served as administrators for 6 to 10 years, grew up in homes with parents with a high school diploma, were the oldest children in their families' birth order, taught experiences included general education instruction, and worked as elementary school principals. Additionally, principals who participated in this study showed a preference for leadership behaviors associated with a participatory orientation. There were relationships found between perceived leadership behaviors and any of the characteristics of the participants of this study. The researcher concluded that women school principals in New Jersey perceive their leadership to be collaborative, which adds to the body of research suggesting that women lead differently than their male colleagues.

A qualitative study by Gray (2016) explored how gender impacts relationships and opens opportunities for five female and five male high school principals in Pennsylvania. Through semi-structured interviews, this study identified emerging themes of the lived experiences and career steppingstones to district level leadership opportunities for both male and female high school principals. The themes identified included the experiences of daily work, or how the participants managed their career, leadership traits which support their work, gender expectations at work and home, and how the participants related to school staff. Results of this study revealed that both males and females in this study provided examples of gender-based role expectations



at work and home, both genders describe similar lived experiences regarding experiences of daily work, relationship building strategies with school staff.

**Effectiveness of women as educational leaders in the northeast region.**

A mixed-methods study by Green (2015) analyzed student performance scores based on the principal gender and additional student characteristics such as borough, race, and gender in New York City high schools. Data on differences in student performance and the gender of the principal was analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics. The results of the study indicated that the gender of the principal did not affect the student performance scores of the students about borough, race, and gender. The results of this study suggest that the gender of a high school principal should have a limited impact on the long term academic and vocational outcomes of high school-aged students in New York City. Rather, the race of the student had a far greater impact on the performance scores of students in this study.

Another exploratory mixed-methods design was conducted by Harry (2013) to explore if the gender of secondary school principals impacts the safety of the learning environment and the effective promotion of safety in New York City high schools. The results of this study indicate that gender did not play a role in a high school principal's ability to impact or effectively promote safety in New York City high schools.

Finally, a quantitative research study was conducted by Hoffman-Miller (2001) to determine whether or not there is a relationship between student suspensions and a principal's gender and race in an urban school district in Pennsylvania. This study

used discipline data during the academic year 1999-2000 and disaggregated data by the grade, race, and gender of the students attending the urban schools included in this study. The results of this study indicated that African American female principals assigned more frequent and longer suspensions than White or Hispanic principals. Additionally, African American female principals assigned more frequently and longer suspensions than African American or White male principals.

### **The Midwest Region.**

The Midwest Region in the U.S. is organized by two divisions. States included in Division 3, or East North Central include Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Ohio, and Wisconsin; while Division 4, or West North Central include Iowa, Kansas, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, and South Dakota (U.S. Census Bureau, 2018). Studies that examine current trends, barriers, and lived experiences of women in these regions in the Midwest will be summarized in the following section.

Research exploring the topic of women and leadership in K-12 public schools by state or the Midwest Region overall are included in this section of the literature review. Similarly, to the states in the Northeast, studies focused on the Midwest Region appear to be primarily accomplished through the work of Dissertations, with slightly more peer-reviewed journal articles. There does not appear to be equal representation for each state addressing gender and K-12 leadership. The literature review includes studies examining the Midwest Region from studies spanning across multiple states in the region, Iowa, Kansas, and Missouri. Based on studies that were uncovered in this literature review of the Midwest Region, topics about the

principalship at all levels of school leadership, the principalship at secondary leadership, and the interactions between, gender, race, and school leadership are explored in this section, and how superintendents in the region experience the top job.

### **Women as elementary school principals in the Midwest region.**

Regional studies in the Midwest have also focused on the interaction between gender and the principalship. A study by Nichols and Nichols (2014) explored the climate data of 33 elementary schools in the Midwest to determine the relationship among perceptions of effective school leadership and student achievement based on the gender of the principal. The findings of this study indicated that female principals were rated significantly lower on their leadership skills than male principals by their staff. However, when the researchers cross-referenced student academic achievement on standardized test scores with the gender of the school principal no differences in student achievement were found.

An additional qualitative study case study examining the elementary school principal by Wachel (2017) was conducted to examine how female elementary school principals in the Midwest region perceive the role of the teacher leader, mentored teacher leaders to develop leadership skills, and which leadership style was utilized throughout the mentorship process. The results of this study indicate a need for female elementary school leaders to clearly define the leadership goals for teacher leaders. Additionally, this study suggests that female elementary school principals vary their leadership style when mentoring teacher leaders to develop leadership skills.

**Women as secondary leaders in the Midwest region.**

Also in the literature are studies that explore the topic of women and secondary leadership in K-12 public schools in the Midwest states. A study of women and secondary leadership in Illinois, Minnesota, and Wisconsin, Eckman (2004) examined the similarities and differences between how male and female high school principals experience the role. This study employed a mixed-methods research design that included the collection of survey data measuring the levels of role conflict, role commitment, job satisfaction as well as to gather demographic data including age, ethnicity, marital status, presence of children at home, career paths, and aspirations. In-depth interviews were also conducted with eight female and eight male high school principals to expand on their careers and aspirations, role conflict, role commitment, job satisfaction, and leadership styles. Results of the study indicate that the vast majority of the participants, both male and female were White with a mean age of 49 years old. The age of the male principals starting range was six years younger and three years older than the female principals. Both male and female principals were more likely married, and female principals reported a less likely chance of having children at home. Males were reported to have spent less time in the classroom than their female peers as well as reported experiences as a school coach. The majority of the male principals had planned their trajectory into an administrative role, while female principals reported that they did not intend on becoming administrators at the beginning of their careers. Both male and female respondents reported the presence of a “good old boys” club, which acted as a barrier to women advancing into the role of

the high school principal, but benefited male principals. The male principals reported the “good old boys” club made it easier to find mentors who helped them develop their leadership skills. Female principals reported more role conflict than male peers. Additionally, males and females noted differences in leadership styles.

Additionally, a study by Hobson-Horton (2000) examined the relationship between gender, race, and leadership in secondary leadership. In this qualitative study, four African American female principals in Wisconsin participated in semi-structured narrative interviews to explore their lived experiences as school leaders. The results of this study indicated that both race and gender impacted how these leaders experienced and exercised leadership. Participants reported conflicts with parents, students, and teaching staff due to their female gender. Additionally, participants reported a high level of skill in political maneuvering and communication. Participants expressed the need to connect with a spiritual lens to guide them through decision making. All participants reported experiencing more barriers due to gender than due to race as they ascended to their principalship.

### **Gender and the superintendency in the Midwest region.**

Several regional studies have explored gender and K-12 school leadership in the Midwest region. A number of these regional studies focused on the interaction between gender and the superintendency. In a mixed-methods study conducted by Bollinger (2016), the job satisfaction of female superintendents in South Dakota, Nebraska, Kansas, Missouri, and Iowa was explored. Survey and semi-structured interview data revealed themes that included expressions of satisfaction,

dissatisfaction, challenges related to the position, and how they managed challenges to continue to remain in the role of superintendent. Each of these themes was revealed to contribute to their overall satisfaction and willingness to continue to serve in their roles.

A mixed-methods study conducted by Budde (2010) explored factors that influenced Iowa female principals' decision to pursue the superintendency. In this study, the researcher identified the growth rate for female superintendent in Iowa fell well below the national pace, and subsequently, sought to examine a more in-depth examination of female superintendents through survey data and focus group themes. The results of survey data identified gender bias, mentoring, personal career balance, recruiting, and hiring practices as factors influencing the participants of this study in the pursuit of a role as a superintendent in the future. Additionally, survey data identified gender bias, mentoring, personal career balance, recruitment, hiring practices, and self-perception as barriers to the superintendency. Focus group data identified the following themes that present as challenges for women seeking to become superintendents in Iowa: gender bias, lack of mentoring opportunities, concerns about work-life balance, purposeful recruiting practices to attract female candidates, and challenges with self-perception.

Another qualitative study examining gender and the superintendency was conducted by Miles (2019) to investigate the lived experiences of female superintendents in Kansas. In-depth, semi-structured interviews with female school principals, district leaders, current superintendents, and former superintendents were

conducted to understand the barriers, lived experiences, and overcoming obstacles in a field dominated by White males. The themes that emerged in this study included lived experiences in which the participants experienced biases based on gender, race, and age; conflicts with finding a work-life balance with child-rearing; challenges with access to leadership building opportunities, family support, and emotional constraints; the importance of mentorship and having the spark to lead; and challenges of inclusion into the group, balancing gender stereotypes.

Another study by Johnson (2003) examined gender-based barriers to the superintendency in Missouri. In this study, all superintendents were invited to complete a survey regarding factors influencing inequity in the gender distribution of the high school principalship and superintendency. The survey included the four predetermined barriers: 1) handling discipline, 2) willingness to supervise evening activities, 3) handling budgets and finance, 4) handling the political aspect of the position. The results of this study indicated that the greatest barriers to women who aspire to be a high school principal or superintendent are concerns about how to handle discipline and the political aspect of the position.

### **The Southern Region.**

The Southern Region in the U.S. is organized by three regions. Those regions include Division 5, or South Atlantic includes Delaware, District of Columbia, Florida, Georgia, Maryland, North Carolina, South Carolina, Virginia, and West Virginia; Division 6, or East South Central includes Alabama, Kentucky, Mississippi,

and Tennessee; and finally, Division 7, or West South Central includes Arkansas, Louisiana, Oklahoma, and Texas (U.S. Census Bureau, 2018).

Similarly, to the states in the Northeast and the Midwest Regions, the topic of gender and leadership is explored primarily through the work of dissertations, with some peer-reviewed journal articles. This literature review includes studies examining the Southern Regions from studies spanning across multiple states in the region as well as specifically targeting southern states that include Delaware, Florida, North Carolina, South Carolina, Alabama, Kentucky, Mississippi, Tennessee, Louisiana, and Oklahoma. When compared to the most recent literature on gender and leadership in the Northeast and the Midwest regions, the Southern regions have a greater number of studies to draw from on the topic of K-12 leadership. Based on studies that were uncovered in this literature review of the Southern Region, topics about characteristics of women school leaders, barriers to K-12 leadership, influencing factors for women who may aspire to moving to the next role as a school leader, examining characteristics, barriers, and influencing factors of female school principals by levels have also been explored in the literature (i.e. elementary, middle, high school, and superintendency).

#### **Characteristics of women educational leaders in the southern region.**

Characteristics of female school leaders have been studied in the Southern Region. A mixed-methods study by McGee (2010) examined the percentage of women administrators in the public education system, explored commonalities or differences of self-imposed barriers to leadership by level (elementary, middle, and



high school), and positions (principal, assistant principals, superintendents, and assistant superintendents) in Florida. The results of the study indicated that women in this study transitioned to educational leadership as an administrator at a later age than their male peers, were delayed in their transition due to raising children and finding a work-life balance, women plan to increase their confidence of being prepared before seeking an administrative position, busy women raising families and completing degrees lack time for social networking circles that men already are accepted into when compared to their male peers.

An additional study examining characteristics of female school leaders was conducted by Hyndman (2008) to measure uniformity of principal gender across Kentucky from 1989 to 2005 as well as the relationship between gender and schools with high percentages of Free and Reduced cost lunch. The finding of this study indicated that women have made significant progress over time ascending to the role of elementary school principals, less progress as middle school principals, and limited progress as high school principals. Additionally, there was a positive relationship between female principals and serving at schools with high percentages of free and reduced-cost lunch.

Another quantitative study examining the characteristics of female principals was conducted by Boone (2004); it compared male and female principals' perceptions of their visionary leadership behaviors in high schools in North Carolina. The participants completed the Visionary Leadership Behavior Questionnaire-Self (LBQ-S) along with a demographic profile. The results of this study revealed no statistical

differences in the total visionary leadership characteristics between the genders. However, there were statistically significant differences between the genders regarding visionary leadership scaled scores. This study indicates that male principals in this study perceive themselves to be more visionary than female principals who completed the survey. Additionally, female principals perceived themselves to be more creative than male principals in this study.

A quantitative study by Mouton (2011) explored demographic data and the relationship between the gender of secondary school principals, campus size, campus level, and campus rating in Texas. The results of the study showed that the women leaders were more likely to be school principals at elementary schools, less likely to be middle school principals, and least likely to be high school principals. A statistically significant relationship between a principal's gender and school ratings, grade level, and campus size was found. Female principals were more likely to lead smaller schools, elementary-aged students, and receive lower school ratings as measured by Texas Achievement Knowledge and Skills (TAKS). Fuller et al. (2018) also examined the representation of public-school principals by gender and type of leadership position (elementary, middle, and high) in the K-12 system in Texas. A quantitative research methodology was used to analyze the gender of school principals by school type and school characteristics over 25 years. Results of this study concluded that the percentage of women working as principals has improved over the span of 25 years, but similarly to Mouton's findings, female school principals more frequently held positions at elementary schools, less often at middle school, and the least of all at the

high school level. At middle schools and high schools, women were more likely to serve as principals in urban areas (large cities, mid-range cities, and large suburbs) than in rural areas. Likewise, Marczyński and Gates (2012) analyzed data gathered from 1998 to 2011 to identify professional, leadership, and school characteristics of schools led by women secondary leaders in Texas. The results of this study reveal that the percentage of secondary school leaders continues to be dominated by men; yet, female secondary school principals are achieving the role at a younger age than years past and more likely serve in schools in urban areas of the state.

Finally, a qualitative study conducted by Brittingham-Stevens (2016) examined the phenomena of African American females' lived experiences in leadership positions as school principals, assistant/associate principals, and district-level administrators in Delaware. The emerging themes in this study included experiencing hidden barriers associated with race and gender, resilience and spirituality, visibility, and included themes related to mentorships and networking.

**Aspirations and barriers of women to school leadership in the southern region.**

Several studies have explored influencing factors for women who may aspire to move into the next role as a school leader. A mixed-methods study was conducted by Seawell (2015) to investigate how a hypothetical vice principal job description impacted the recruitment of female candidates in North Carolina. The results of the study indicate that the most significant factor influencing female candidates to pursue a transition from the classroom into a school building vice-principal position was

based on the school they would be leading and access to collaborative leadership of the principal leading the school. Additionally, the participants of this study also indicate age and years in the classroom as highly influential factors to pursuing a vice-principal position.

A qualitative study was conducted by Johnson (2017) to investigate the career aspirations of female high school vice principals in the Southeast region of the United States. Through semi-structured interviews, this study revealed persistent perceived gender-based barriers and access to supports to further career aspirations in educational leadership opportunities, especially when the high school vice principals discussed the process of how to transition into the high school position of principal.

Studies examining characteristics, barriers, and influencing factors of female school principals by levels have also been explored in the literature (i.e. elementary, middle, and high school). A sequential mixed-methods study by Templat (2015) explored the perceptions of 200 teachers' of their school administrative leaders, 2 male principals and 2 female principals, by perceived leadership characteristics and gender of Louisiana elementary school principals. This study sought to understand to what degree does the gender of the school principal relate to the principal's perception of their leadership characteristics and to what degree does the gender of the school principal relate to the teacher's perception of the principal's leadership characteristics. The results of the study indicated that male principal's perceptions of their leadership characteristic study aligned closely with the perceptions of the teachers who rated them, while the female principal's perceptions of their leadership characteristics did

not align closely with the perceptions of the teachers. Teachers rated their male principals as ambitious, caring, cooperative, determined, and forward-looking while the same principals rated themselves as broad-minded, caring, determined, and forward-looking. Teachers rated their female principals as caring, competent, intelligent, mature, and supportive while the female principals rated themselves as broad-minded, caring, cooperative, dependable, and fair-minded.

### **Women as elementary school principals in the Southern region.**

A mixed-methods study was conducted by Polk (2005) to examine the impact of generational differences or gender differences in perceived leadership practices of elementary school administrators in Florida. Quantitative data revealed no statistically significant gender or generational differences in perceived leadership practices. However, the results of qualitative interviews revealed that perception of leadership practices varied by gender and generation. Specifically, male and female elementary school administrators from later generations perceived differences in leadership style by gender of the leader while male and female elementary school administrators from more recent generations did not perceive leadership to vary by gender of the leader.

A qualitative study by Gamble (2001) was conducted to understand the impact of principal task-oriented and socially-oriented leadership style and gender on the elementary school climate in Alabama. The results of the study indicate that leadership traits, such as a socially-oriented leadership style, resulted in the perception of a positive school climate rather than the gender of the school administrator.

### **Women as secondary school principals in the Southern region.**

Kruse and Krumm (2016), completed a case study grounded in Standpoint Theory to identify factors influencing access to Oklahoma's secondary school principalship positions. This study identified factors that supported secondary female principals' transition from classroom teacher to the principal position. These factors included experiences such as having another individual who supported and nurtured their transition from the classroom to leadership. Male sponsors were the female principals' primary encouragers, and the female principals had a strong emotional investment in the schools and communities.

Another study examining secondary leadership included a qualitative study conducted by Bronars (2015) that examined secondary school women's perspective on the underrepresentation of women in secondary school principalships in Tennessee. Through the lens of social role theory, survey and interview data revealed themes that include beliefs that prospects for women attaining a secondary principalship are improving, women make choices not to pursue the principalship primarily due to family obligations, and gender bias continues to help men while hindering women from attaining building leadership.

A few studies in the Southern Region explored leadership specific to middle school leadership. A qualitative study by Tindal (2009) examined perspectives on gender issues in administration for middle school principals in South Carolina. Through semi-structured interviews, both male and female middle school principals identified the leadership behaviors of school leaders by gender. This study

acknowledged critical behaviors of effective middle school principals and supported the possibility that gender bias plays a role in the underrepresentation of women secondary leaders and leadership. The characteristics reported by both male and female middle school principals in the Tindal study aligned with stereotypical male roles, which can lead to a reduction in opportunities for women in educational leadership.

A qualitative case study by Shannon (2015) examined the middle school teachers' experiences and perceptions of African American female principal's leadership style in Tennessee. This study employed semi-structured, open-ended interviews to explore the phenomena of gender, race, and leadership style. Two themes emerged in the interviews by participants. The participants reported favorable and positive experiences with the leadership style of their school leaders and expressed that gender and race were not perceived to be barriers to positive feelings toward their leader. However, the participants implied that other teachers at other middle schools may not hold a positive view of working with an African American female principal.

Studies using qualitative and quantitative methodology have specifically targeted high school leadership. A quantitative study conducted by Johnson (2019) explored the perceptions of principals and superintendents of two women and six men as high school principals in Mississippi. Data were collected using a survey to determine barriers and facilitators for women who aspire to be high school principals. The results of the study indicated that principals and superintendents who participated

in this study had the same perceptions of gender-based barriers and facilitators faced by women when pursuing a high school principal position.

An explanatory quantitative study by Payne (2017) sought to determine if a relationship exists between principal gender, teachers' perceptions of the school climate, and the suspension rate of high school students in the Southern region of the United States. The results of the study indicated that the gender of the principal did not demonstrate a statistically significant difference in teachers' perceptions of school culture. However, statistical significance rates of suspension and exclusion were demonstrated based on the gender of the principal. Female high school principals were less likely to suspend and expel students in this study.

A qualitative study using narrative design conducted by Smith (2017) sought to explore how African American mothers who were principals of urban high schools in the Southern region of the United States experienced societal expectation and gender stereotyping when navigating work and family conflicts. Additionally, this study explored support systems and strategies to maintain a work-life balance when an African American female is a high school principal. The emerging themes in this study suggest that the participants sacrifice time with family, striving to be a good example, yet feeling a sense of guilt for missing out on family time, and experience gender-based external and internal barriers, both associated with race and gender. Additional themes in this study suggest that having a personal support system, such as through spousal and family support, as well as taking time for oneself, were essential



to maintain a work-life balance as a mother and an African American female high school principal.

A qualitative study was conducted by Esslinger (2016) to understand the lived experiences of female high school principals in Alabama. This study employed phenomenological methods to investigate the perceptions and experiences of the participants regarding how they navigated multiple roles and strategies they implemented to minimize conflict. The results of this study indicated that as high school principals, the participants occupied multiple roles that take time and emotional energy away from their family time. The participants also emphasized the importance of planning and organizing their work and home lives, establishing boundaries, and developing a support system.

#### **Gender and the superintendency in the Southern region.**

Finally, studies focused on the topic of gender and the superintendency have also been explored in the literature. A qualitative study using narrative inquiry by Ashburn (2018) explored the underrepresentation of female superintendents in North Carolina. The results of the study revealed gender-based barriers to the participants of this study. The researchers found unequal expectations for women's quality of work, discriminatory working conditions, unachievable work-life balance, and inequitable pay, all of which result in the exclusion of women who aspire to the superintendency.

A qualitative study was conducted by Webb (2017) to measure the perceptions of gender equity female superintendents in Kentucky. This study explored common experiences and traits, rewards and challenges, and reasons for the underrepresentation

of female superintendents in the state. The results of this study highlighted the participants' perceptions included the importance of mentors, support systems, having good communication and interpersonal skills, getting into the position for the right reasons, wanting to make a difference for children, enjoying setting the mission of the organization, and working collaboratively to do what is best for children.

### **The Western Region.**

The Western Region in the U.S. is organized by two divisions. States included in Western Region are Division 8, or Mountain states which include Arizona, Colorado, Idaho, New Mexico, Montana, Utah, Nevada, and Wyoming; and Division 9, or Pacific states which include Alaska, California, Hawaii, Oregon, and Washington (U.S. Census Bureau, 2018). Studies that examine current trends, barriers, and lived experiences of women in these regions in the West will be summarized in the following section.

Research exploring the topic of women and leadership in K-12 public schools by states or the Western Region are included in this section of the literature review. Similarly, to the previously examined regions, the topic of gender and K-12 public school leadership has been primarily accomplished through the work of dissertations, with few peer-reviewed journal articles. In the Western Region, there is not equal representation found in the literature for each state addressing gender and K-12 leadership. The literature review includes studies examining the Western Region from studies spanning across multiple states in the region, Arizona, Colorado, New Mexico, Utah, California, and Oregon. Based on studies that were uncovered in this literature

review of the Western Region, topics about characteristics of women school leaders, influencing factors and barriers, and examining characteristics and barriers such as challenges with work-life balance, child-rearing, lack of mentorship, and gender-bias toward female school leadership. Influencing factors of female school principals by levels have also been explored in the literature (i.e. elementary, middle, high school, and superintendency).

### **Characteristics of women educational leaders in the western region.**

A quantitative correlational study was conducted by Zacharakis (2017) to determine how teachers with female principals at California Business for Education Excellence (CBEE) schools in California rate principals' leadership skills, how they rate their own job actions, and if there is a relationship between a principals' gender and employee job satisfaction. The results of this study found a statistically significant relationship existed between female principals' leadership skills and job satisfaction. This study also found the mean scores of teacher responses on measures to indicate high levels of behaviors associated with Transformational Leaders. Additionally, teachers' job satisfaction was positively correlated with characteristics of leaders' ratings on measures of Transformational Leadership.

Another study from California using qualitative methodology was conducted by Lovie (2018) to explore barriers leading to the underrepresentation of women pursuing the principalship of female teachers. The results of this study revealed a general limit to these teachers' knowledge of how the principalship impacted student achievement, noted having children as a factor limiting their desire to become

principals, and the long hours and availability to the school community were identified as barriers to pursuing becoming a school leader.

**Aspirations and barriers of women to school leadership in the western region.**

Additionally, a study was conducted by Becenti (2016) to address perceived obstacles and barriers facing Navajo female school administrators in New Mexico. The participants of this study completed a survey that indicated participants believed their career choices and opportunities were supported. However, the results of this study also indicated the respondents believed support and opportunities were limited as these female administrators transitioned from the classroom to school leadership positions.

Studies examining characteristics, barriers, and influencing factors of female school principals by levels have also been explored in the literature in the Western Region (i.e. elementary, middle, and high school). A qualitative study by Gutch (2001) explored factors and issues that lead women into and out of elementary school principalship in Colorado. In this study, surveys, interviews and focus groups revealed that the women pursued the principalship because of a strong desire to be part of the positive change element to improve public education and a belief that they possessed leadership traits that would benefit a school. The most common path to the principalship for the participants in this study included classroom teaching, coaching, dean positions to vice principalship before acquiring their positions as principals. The vast majority of the participants indicated that they had to overcome gender-related

bias toward female school leadership to achieve their first administrative position, as the school districts showed preferences for male candidates, who benefited from the “good old boys club” system of mentorship and opportunity. Most of the participants indicated that gender did not play a role in the responsibilities of the position.

At the secondary level, a mixed-methods study conducted by Madsen (2000) in Colorado sought to identify and analyze patterns of career paths of women in the high school principalship regarding leadership styles and skills, the social construct of gender, and mentorship. The results of this study indicated that the female school principals in this study experienced a lack of sufficient mentorship before serving in their current role. These leaders also reported a collaborative style of leadership, gender-based barriers to ascending to their role, valued their experiences in curriculum and instruction. Finally the leaders in this study experienced mentorship and encouragement from a male district leader, most often the superintendent in their school district.

Another qualitative study conducted by Miller (2008) used a phenomenological design to explore the lived experiences of women in high school administrative positions in Utah. The results of this study indicated that school culture is predominantly driven by Mormonism, and through that religious lens, the culture of school leadership was impacted. Specifically, participants in this study in Utah reported a patriarchal tradition posed barriers to female school leaders.

A Phenomenological Study by Jones (2016) examined the perceived barriers and support systems of thirteen female high school principals in California. Semi-

structured interviews revealed unique and complex tensions and barriers to women who serve in the position of high school principals. The principals in this study also reported receiving support as they moved from teachers into school leadership but also experienced challenges to entering into a leadership role that values stereotypical male leadership expectations.

### **Gender and the superintendency in the western region.**

Studies examining the superintendency in the Western region include a quantitative study by Wolverton and MacDonald (2004) that examined the career routes and demographic characteristics of superintendents (N= 1,180) in the Pacific Northwest. This study compared the routes taken to becoming a superintendent by the gender of the superintendents in this study. The results of the study revealed that male superintendents were more likely to be married than their female counterparts. Female superintendents also had fewer administrative experiences and had fewer years into their careers as superintendents. This study also revealed that men were more likely to have had high school principal experience while women were more likely to have had experience as associate superintendents or district office level leadership experiences before becoming superintendents.

Additionally, a qualitative study conducted by George (2013) explored the journey of female superintendents in Oregon. This study, through interviews, field notes, and personal reflections revealed a hard work ethic and willingness to take on additional roles and responsibilities before ascending to the role of the superintendent; difficulty with balancing work and family life, high level of the time commitment

required to do the job; and an emphasis on the importance of staying true to personal values, especially regarding doing what is best for children, even in the face of opposition.

### **Summary**

This chapter described the current trends, barriers, and characteristics of women who seek or hold leadership positions in the U.S., in the K-12 public school setting, and at the secondary school principal level in the public school setting. Current trends in leadership roles for women in the United States suggests slow progress. Woman's rights have undergone significant changes in recent history such as voting, access to higher levels of employment, and higher education; and yet, women continue to be underrepresented in leadership across multiple career types.

Historically, women who lead schools have also been underrepresented in leadership positions. However, progress has been made, particularly in elementary school leadership, but women continue to be underrepresented in leadership at the secondary school level and the superintendency. The literature has pointed to several barriers to women who might lead secondary schools and at the superintendency. Common barriers include institutionalized or societal causes.

This chapter also explored the literature about women's educational leaders by regions in the United States. The US Census categorization was the basis for division and discussion of the various regions. Those regions include the Northeast, Midwest, South, and West. Literature exploring the Northeast region reveals women who lead schools were likely to be married, White, parents, had many years in the classroom

before taking leadership roles, and most likely led elementary schools. Additional studies reveal that the gender of school leadership had no significant impact on student performance.

The literature exploring the Midwest region revealed that the gender of the school leader had a limited impact on student performance. Additionally, female school leaders were rated lower on their leadership skills by school staff. When exploring the literature about women who lead secondary schools in the Midwest region, studies reveal that women begin their principalship at a later age, have more time in the classroom before becoming school leaders, experience barriers to their ascensions differently, and express a high level of role conflict than their male peers. Additionally, studies examining the Midwest reveal a lower rate of women who serve school districts as superintendents when compared to the United States at large. Gender bias, lack of mentorship, challenges with work-life balance, and challenges with self-perceptions were noted as barriers to women who participated in studies examining the superintendency.

The literature exploring the Southern region reveal that women have made strides in elementary school leadership but continue to lag behind their male peers regarding secondary school leadership. Studies analyzing demographic data in the Southern regions reveal women who serve as principals lead schools with a higher percentage of free and reduced-cost lunch than their male peers, lead smaller schools, lead schools that receive lower school ratings, serve at urban schools, and begin their leadership roles at younger ages than in the past. Women who lead schools also report



experiencing gender bias regarding their ability to lead schools. Women who lead schools also reported that navigating work and family life was the most significant barrier to taking on school leadership roles. Studies exploring women who lead school districts as superintendents report significant barriers which included gender bias regarding their quality of work, discriminatory working conditions, inequitable pay, and challenges with work-life balance. Women who achieved the superintendency in the Southern region also reported a strong sense of service, well-developed interpersonal skills, and report high levels of motivation to improve the educational outcomes for children.

The literature exploring the Western region also indicates barriers to women who lead schools. Some of these barriers include gender bias in perceptions about women as leaders, lack of mentorship, and lack of motivation to pursue more leadership opportunities due to uncertainty about how the principalship might impact student outcomes. Studies from the Western region also reveal the women present with qualities of a transformation leadership style, ascend to leadership through experiences in curriculum and instruction, and also are noted to have more experience in the classroom before beginning their school leadership experience.

### **Chapter 3: Methodology**

The following chapter discusses the methodology used to describe the regional differences between the characteristics of female secondary school leaders by region and division in the United States (U.S.). Prior studies on gender and K-12 educational leadership have examined the phenomena of the underrepresentation of women who serve as school principals in the U.S. (Domenech, 2012; Glass, 2000; Glass, et al., 2000; U.S. Department of Education, 2018). To describe this trend in educational leadership, studies have examined the demographic data and characteristics of women leaders in the K-12 public school setting by leadership type (i.e. elementary, secondary, superintendent), community type (i.e., urban, suburban, etc.), individual characteristics (i.e. race and ethnicity, age, relationship status, parental status), characteristics of women prior to becoming school principals (i.e. years in the classroom, trajectory prior to leadership), leadership characteristics (i.e. leadership style), and characteristics of the schools and school districts they serve (i.e. rates of free and reduced cost lunch, school climate and culture, teacher job satisfaction under female leadership, performance of standardized assessments) (Boone, 2004; Eckman, 2004; Elfers et al., 2017; Fuller, 2018; Gray, 2016; Green, 2015; Hyndman, 2008; Kruse & Krumm, 2016; McGee, 2010; Murakami & Tornsen, 2017; Nichols & Nichols, 2014; Payne, 2017; Sargent, 1997; Templat, Tindal, 2009; 2015; U.S. Department of Education, 2018; Wolverton & MacDonald, 2004; Zacharakis, 2017). Findings from these studies have defined characteristics of women who lead schools,

in some cases, by some U.S. states or regions, but previous studies do not compare the characteristics of women who are school principals by states or regions. Moreover, previous studies have not explored the characteristics of women who lead secondary schools by the United States' four geographic regions that include the Northeast, Midwest, South, and West and New England (Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, and Vermont), Middle Atlantic (New Jersey, New York, and Pennsylvania), East North Central (Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Ohio, and Wisconsin), West North Central (Iowa, Kansas, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, and South Dakota), South Atlantic (Delaware, District of Columbia, Florida, Georgia, Maryland, North Carolina, South Carolina, Virginia, and West Virginia), East South Central (Alabama, Kentucky, Mississippi, and Tennessee), West South Central (Arkansas, Louisiana, Oklahoma, and Texas), Mountain (Arizona, Colorado, Idaho, New Mexico, Montana, Utah, Nevada, and Wyoming), and Pacific (Alaska, California, Hawaii, Oregon, and Washington) (U.S. Census Bureau, 2018).

Chapter 3 introduces the details of the methodology used to conduct this study. This chapter also describes the purpose and research question, research design, methodology, the rationale for the methodology, ethical considerations, participants in this study, data source, design of the study, and limitations of this study.

### **Purpose and Research Questions**

The purpose of this ex post facto comparative non-experimental study was to understand if there was variation by region and division in the U.S. in individual characteristics, characteristics as a school leader, and school characteristics female

secondary school administrative leaders, or school principals, lead vary by region and division in the United States. The following research questions were explored in this study:

### **Research Question 1**

What are the individual characteristics of women who are secondary school leaders in the K-12 public school setting by community type (rural, suburban, town, and urban locations), individual characteristics (age, race and ethnicity), school leadership characteristic (years as a school leader, participation in mentorship, department chair experience, and highest degree earned), and school characteristics (student population and accessed Title 1 funding) by four geographic regions that include the Northeast, Midwest, South, West, and nine division (New England, Middle Atlantic, East North Central, West North Central, South Atlantic, East South Central, West South Central, Mountain, and Pacific) within each geographic region?

### **Research Question 2**

To what extent do individual characteristics of women who are secondary school leaders in the K-12 public school setting significantly vary by community type (rural, suburban, town, and urban locations), individual characteristics (age, race and ethnicity), school leadership characteristic (years as a school leader, participation in mentorship, department chair experience, and highest degree earned), and school characteristics (student population and receives Title 1 funding) by four geographic regions that include the Northeast, Midwest, South, West, and nine division (New England, Middle Atlantic, East North Central, West North Central, South Atlantic,

East South Central, West South Central, Mountain, and Pacific) within each geographic region?

### **Research Design**

This study employed an ex post facto comparative design. Descriptive and quantitative methods were used to understand if the characteristics of female secondary school leaders in the K-12 public school setting vary by community type (city, suburb, town, and rural locations), individual characteristics (age, race and ethnicity), school leadership characteristic (years as a school leader, participation in mentorship, department chair experience, and highest degree earned), school characteristics (student enrollment numbers, and accessed Title 1 funding) by four geographic regions that include the Northeast, Midwest, South, and West and nine divisions within each geographic region.

This study described and analyze survey data from the *National Teacher and Principal Survey (NTPS)* from the 2017-2018 school year published by the National Center for Educational Statistics (NCES). The characteristics of female secondary school leaders will be examined by community type the serve as a secondary school leaders (city, suburb, town, and rural), individual characteristics (race and ethnicity, age), school leadership characteristic (years as a school leader, participation in mentorship, department chair experience, and highest degree earned), and school characteristics (student enrollment numbers and if school receives Title 1 funding) by the US Census four geographic regions that include the Northeast, Midwest, South, and West and nine divisions within each geographic region. *NTPS* data was used to

calculate categorical data using Pearson's chi-square to analyze if there is variance by regions and divisions, and interval data was used to conduct analysis of variance (ANOVA) to determine if there was variance by regions and divisions.

### **The Rationale for the Methodology**

Quantitative methods are best used when testing a theory, comparing characteristics that can be measured, rely on standardized measures, methods can be generalized and replicated, and can be used with a large sample size (Creswell, 2009; Creswell & Creswell, 2017; Morgan, 2014). This study compared the characteristics of female secondary leaders by U.S. regions and divisions.

Ex post facto research is acceptable when conducting quantitative research when the researcher cannot manipulate personal factors such as gender, race and ethnicity, age, and additional characteristics that are unique to participants and cannot be randomly selected (Creswell, 2009; Muijs, 2011; Simon & Goes, 2013). This study examined categorical and interval data; including community type; gender; race and ethnicity; age; mentorship and leadership experiences; and school characteristics, all of which cannot be randomly assigned or manipulated by the researcher

This study described the demographics and characteristics of women secondary school leaders by geographical regions. To answer the research questions explored in this study, descriptive quantitative calculations were used in this study (Blessing et al., 1998; Field, 2013; Muijs, 2011). Furthermore, when a study seeks to look at the frequency of categorical data sets through surveys such as the *NTPS*, descriptive analysis can be effective in comparing variables by frequency and/or

percentages. Descriptive analysis of characteristics of female secondary school leaders by region and division determined if these characteristics varied by U.S. region and division.

Given that this study compared categorical data, Pearson's chi-square allowed the researcher to analyze if variance by region and division is due to chance or due to differences in women who are secondary school leaders in the U.S. (Field, 2013; Muijs, 2011). This study examined multiple characteristics of female secondary school principals, including community type, race and ethnicity, school leadership characteristic such as participation in mentorship, department chair experience, highest degree earned, and school characteristics, all of which may be contributing factors to the probability of the representation of women who lead secondary schools and may vary by U.S. region and division.

For examining interval data in this study, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) can be used when a researcher wants to compare more than two conditions (Field, 2013; Muijs, 2011). For this study, determining if the age and years of experiences of women who are secondary leaders varied by regions and divisions, which may be contributing factors to the phenomena of gender inequity in educational leadership, was calculated to determine statistical significance.

### **Instrumentation**

The dataset entitled "Characteristics of Public and Private Elementary and Secondary School Principals in the United States: Results From the 2017-2018 *National Teacher and Principal Survey (NTPS)*" (Taie & Goldring, 2019) was

imported and analyzed to answer the research questions proposed in this study. The survey data includes demographic data and characteristics of school principals which can be analyzed to answer the following research questions: 1) What are the characteristics of women who are secondary school leaders in the K-12 public school setting, and 2) Do characteristics of women who are secondary school leaders in the K-12 public school setting vary community type (rural, suburban, town, and urban locations), individual characteristics (age, race and ethnicity), characteristics of school leaders (years of experiences as school administrative leader, participation in mentorship, department chair experience, highest degree earned), and school characteristics (student population and receives Title 1 funding) by the U.S. Census four geographic regions that include the Northeast, Midwest, South, and West and nine divisions within each geographic region?

The NCES is the primary entity tasked with collecting, analyzing, and reporting on the current status of education in the U.S. (Taie & Goldring, 2019). According to the NCES, data collection analysis activities are designed to address high-priority education data needs; provide consistent, reliable, complete, and accurate indicators of education status and trends; and report timely, useful, and high-quality data to the U.S. Department of Education, the Congress, the states, other education policymakers, practitioners, data users, and the general public (Taie & Goldring, 2019).

The *NTPS* survey was designed as an updated edition to the original *School and Staffing Survey for Principals (SASS)*. The *SASS* survey included explored



professional preparation, professional development, experiences, salary, levels of autonomy, the priority of goals, perceived barriers, and information about school characteristics of school principals. From 2011 to the present day, the NCES maintained the core objectives of the 2011 version of the *SASS* but addressed emerging issues in elementary and secondary education in the 2012 version of the *NTPS* (NCES, 2020).

To increase the reliability validity of this survey, the *SASS* was redesigned seven times between the years of 1987 through 2011 to collect characteristics and demographic data on public school principals. Studies exploring the reliability and validity of the *SASS* have been explored in the literature. A study by Camburn et al. (2010) constructed a multitrait-multimethod (MTMM) matrix to show intercorrelations among four divisions of the *SASS*. This study reported evidence of the survey's validity, with correlations between all four divisions exceeding .50. The authors concluded that the survey was a valid source of the principals' self-report data. A more recent study conducted by Boyce (2015) analyzed the validity of the *SASS* using three methodologies: meta-narrative review, three-step latent class analysis, and four-fold cross-validation multilevel factor analysis. The results of this study concluded that *SASS* is a valid measurement of the principal's perceptions of leadership. Therefore, for the purposes of this study, analyzing survey responses of principals collected through the 2017-2018 *NTPS* will serve as a valid source of data for this study.

**Data source.** The 2017-2018 *NTPS* is a state and nationally representative sample survey of public and private school principals and teachers at the K-12 grade levels across the 50 states and the District of Columbia (Taie & Goldring, 2019). The results of the *NTPS* for the 2017-2018 school year represents the second collection of this survey. Up until the 2010-2011 school year, the *SASS* collected demographic data to explore characteristics of public and private school principals and teachers at the K-12 grade levels. The *NTPS* was first introduced to collect data for the 2015-2016 academic school year (Taie & Goldring, 2019).

The *NTPS* collects the following data on public and private school principals: years as classroom teachers before leadership; experience as a vice/associate principal or management experience before principalship; participation in school district training for aspiring school principalship; highest degree earned; current licensure status; annual salary; years of experience as a school principal; perception of influence on decisions concerning activities in their school; experiences with school climate and safety; the rate of parental participation at their school; teacher evaluation process and procedures; teacher professional development process and procedures; the principal evaluation process and procedures; principal engagement; school type, selected school characteristics; and principal demographic data (i.e. race and ethnicity, age, and gender).

The *NTPS* question employed a variety of yes/no response, Likert scales, multiple-choice once selections throughout the survey (See Appendix A).

**Data collection.** The 2017-2018 *NTPS* used a school-based sample of public and private school principals to participate in the survey. The sampling of public and private school participants was drawn to support estimates of U.S. geography, grade level, and public or charter status. The data were initially collected via mailed questionnaires and e-mailed instructions. Telephone and in-person follow-up data collection methods were also used to complete missing survey data. Data were collected beginning in September 2017 and ending in August 2018 (Taie & Goldring, 2019). The selected samples were included on 10,600 traditional and charter public school teachers and their principals; and 4,000 private schools and their principals. The weighted unit response rate was 70.2 % of public school principals 2018 (Taie & Goldring, 2019).

**Data access.** This study analyzed a secondary data set accessible through the Institute of Education Sciences (IES), the wing of the U.S. Department of Education (National Center for Educational Statistics, 2019). To access the *NTPS* data set, the researcher collaborated with the Dissertation Committee Chair, Dr. Jacqueline Waggoner, to access these data set through the NCES system of restricted use-data licensure. The *Restricted-Use Data Procedures Manual* (National Center for Educational Statistics, 2019) notes the procedural steps for accessing restricted-use data sets through the IES data-base. To qualify for access to restricted-use data, an organization (i.e., university or research institution) must submit the following:

- a) An online Formal Request through the NCES application system (<http://nces.ed.gov/StatProg/instruct.asp>);

- b) Designate a Principal Project Officer (PPO), Senior Official (SO), and System Security Officer (SSO);
- c) Execute Affidavits of Nondisclosure for all individuals with access to the data set;
- d) Sign a security plan.

Prior to completing the NCES application system, starting in December 2019, the Doctoral Candidate researcher, Dissertation Committee Chair, Dr. Jacqueline Waggoner, serving as the PPO, University of Portland Provost, Dr. Thomas Greene, serving as the SO, and the Infrastructure Manager of Information Services, Mr. Joey Houck, serving as the SSO completed the Annual Licensee Training, a required training needed to apply for a restricted license, to reviewing procedures for securing data, setting up a secure project office, securing a computer, securing the CD-ROM and hardcopy of restricted-use data, procedures for presenting results of the study, procedures for review of research findings by the IES prior to publication, procedures for keeping the restricted license up to date, procedures for inspection of in-person site inspection, laws and penalties for license violations.

Once the Annual Licensee Training was completed, all the previously mentioned individuals executed an Affidavits of Nondisclosure to document an understanding of procedural and legal process of securing and managing the *NTPS* data set and all Affidavits were notarized by a Notary Public. Following the completion of the Annual Licensee Training and Affidavits of Nondisclosure, Dr. Jacqueline Waggoner, PPO completed the NCES application on behalf of the Doctoral

Candidate researcher. The application included name, title, and contact information of the PPO, SO, SSO, and Doctoral Candidate, title of the dataset, the description of the statistical research project, estimated loan period of the dataset, copies of completed Annual Licensee Trainings, Affidavits of Nondisclosure to document an understanding of procedural and legal process, Security Plan for location and secure storage of the dataset.

In February 2020, the PPO received notification from the Department of Education/IES/NCES that the project was pending approval. At that time, additional description of the research objective was requested and submitted on behalf of the Doctoral Candidate. Additionally, prior to approval of a restricted license, the Department of Education/IES/NCES requested a COVID plan, addressing access to the dataset during any restrictions to accessing the secured space on the University of Portland campus. In preparation for a restricted-use license with access to *NTPS* dataset, the University of Portland, School of Education secured a stand-alone desktop computer (without access to an internet connection and secured from unauthorized access) in an office space only accessible to university approved keyholders, and as well as uploaded SPSS Statistics software package on the stand-alone desktop computer.

In July 2020, Dr. Jacqueline Waggoner PPO, received confirmation of approval of the restricted-license to access *NTPS* data set for 2016-2017 school year. Dr. Jacqueline completed an amendment to the license to include the *NTPS* data set for the 2017-2018 year. The CD-ROM packages were sent via Restricted Delivery -

Certified Mail to the University of Portland, School of Education. All restricted-use data on CD-ROM are encrypted and require a passphrase to open. After receiving CD-ROMs with 2016-2017 and 2017-2018 NTPS data, the data was uploaded onto the stand-alone desktop computer. The CR-ROM included data from the *NTPS*, Principal Questionnaires, School Questionnaires, Teacher Questionnaires, *User's Manual for the 2017-2018 National Teacher and Principals Survey Volume 1: Overview* (NCES 2020-211).

### **Population and Sample**

#### **Participants.**

Principals who participated in the survey were a selected sample, which included 10,600 traditional and charter public schools and their principals and 4,000 private schools and their principals across the 50 states and the District of Columbia (Taie & Goldring, 2019).

### **Research Ethics and Human Subjects**

To ensure the welfare, rights, and privacy of the participants in this study, before conducting quantitative analysis, a proposal to the Institutional Review Board (IRB) was submitted and approved on 7/28/2020 on behalf of the University of Portland's federally registered Institutional Review Board. Additionally, in order to access data from *NTPS* for the 2017-2018 school year, the IES/NCES required rigorous procedural safeguards to protect personal information from the data becoming available to any non-approved individual. These safeguards include obtaining a restricted-use data license through the NCES. To obtain a restricted-use

Data License, an individual must apply through an organization, data must be kept secure at all times in a secure location, and the location and data a subject to on-site inspections (National Center for Education Statistics, 2019). This study completed the application process through the NCES and was approve for access to the *NTPS*.

### **Data Analysis**

The data sets from the *NTPS* from the 2017-2018 school was be extracted from the CD-ROM delivered from the NCES. The following data was collected through the *NTPS* survey questions and selected from the Principals Questionnaire and School Questionnaire to create the data extracted into an Excel spreadsheet prior to import into SPSS for analysis:

#### Geographic Location:

- a) Region: Question 11-1 Principal Questionnaire. Responses to “Print your name, home address, your work, cell, and home telephone Number, and your work and home e-mail address.”
- b) Division: Manually inputted as defined by the United States Census Bureau and based on *NTPS* data indicating the U.S. State designation.
- c) Community type: Question 11-1 Principal Questionnaire: city, suburb, town, and rural,

#### Individual Characteristics:

- d) Gender: Question 9-1 Principal Questionnaire. Responses to “Are you male or female?”

- e) Ethnicity: Question 9-2 Principal Questionnaire. Responses to “Are you of Hispanic or Latino origin?”
- f) Race: Question 9-3 Principal Questionnaire. Responses to “What is your race?”
- g) Age: Question 9-4 Principal Questionnaire. Responses to “What is your year of birth?”

School Leadership Characteristics:

- h) Years as a classroom teacher: Question 1-1 Principal Questionnaire. Responses to “Before you became a principal, how many years of elementary, middle, or secondary teaching experience did you have?”
- i) Participation in Aspiring Leader program: Question 1-4 Principal Questionnaire. Responses to “Before you became a principal, did you participate in any district or school training or development program for aspiring school principals?”
- j) Department chair experience or leadership experience: Question 1-2 Principal Questionnaire. Responses to “Before you became a principal, did you hold the position of an assistant principal or program director?”
- k) Years as a School Leader: Question 1-5 Principal Questionnaire. Responses to “Prior to this school year, how many years did you serve as the principal of this or any other school?”
- l) Highest degree earned: Question 1-7 Principal Questionnaire. Responses to “What is the highest degree you have earned?”



School Characteristics:

m) Student enrollment numbers: Question 1-2 School Questionnaire. Responses to “Excluding prekindergarten, postsecondary, and adult education students, around the first of October 2017, how many students were enrolled in this school?”

n) School receives Title 1 funding: Question 5-7 School Questionnaire.

Responses to “Around the first of October 2017, did any students enrolled in this school receive Title I services at this school or at any other location?”

Measures of geographic location, individual characteristics, school leadership characteristics, and school characteristics used in this study were extracted and organized by region and division. Initial analysis included comparing the frequency and percent of school administrative leader by gender, school level (elementary, middle, and high school) were calculated by region and division. A total of 3,601 male school administrators and 3,564 females school administrators survey responses were used to analyze to compare the frequency and percent of school administrative leader by gender, school level (elementary, middle, and high school). A total of 3,435 school administrative leader responses were not used in this study due to incomplete data regarding gender.

This study analyzed *NTPS* responses of female secondary school leaders by region and division including community type, individual characteristics, school leadership characteristics, and school characteristics. Secondary school leaders are defined as female principals who lead middle school which includes 7<sup>th</sup>-8<sup>th</sup> and 6<sup>th</sup>-8<sup>th</sup>

grades and high school schools who lead schools which include 9<sup>th</sup> -12<sup>th</sup> grades in the public school setting. The *NTPS* responses in this study included 1,068 female secondary school leaders.

*NTPS* responses analyzed in this study were organized in Excel and SPSS by each data category. Categories included gender, community type, region, division, age, race and ethnicity, school level (elementary, middle, and high), years of classroom teaching, years as administrative leader, participation in administrators program, department chair experience, highest degree earned, school size, and accessed Title 1 funding. Categorical data was coded to represent non-numerical variables into numeric representation to complete frequency, percent, and to conduct chi-square analysis. Codes and numeric representations were developed by the NCES and included in the CD-ROM received for the purposes of this research. Categorical data calculated in this study included gender, community type, region, division, race and ethnicity, school level (elementary, middle, and high), participation in administrators program, department chair experience, highest degree earned, school size, and access to Title 1 funding. School size was binned into student population groups and race and ethnicity was also binned into smaller categories of race and ethnicity. Variables including age, years of classroom teaching, years as administrative leader were not transformed and were analyzed as interval data.

## **Chapter 4: Results**

### **Introduction**

The following chapter discusses the results of this ex post facto comparative non-experimental study that sought to describe demographic data and determine if there are statistically significant differences among the characteristics of female secondary school administrative leaders by regions and divisions in the United States. The regions and divisions were determined by the U.S. Census Bureau organization of the four geographic regions that include the Northeast, Midwest, South, and West and nine divisions New England (Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, and Vermont), Middle Atlantic (New Jersey, New York, and Pennsylvania), East North Central (Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Ohio, and Wisconsin), West North Central (Iowa, Kansas, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, and South Dakota), South Atlantic (Delaware, District of Columbia, Florida, Georgia, Maryland, North Carolina, South Carolina, Virginia, and West Virginia), East South Central (Alabama, Kentucky, Mississippi, and Tennessee), West South Central (Arkansas, Louisiana, Oklahoma, and Texas), Mountain (Arizona, Colorado, Idaho, New Mexico, Montana, Utah, Nevada, and Wyoming), and Pacific (Alaska, California, Hawaii, Oregon, and Washington) within those regions (U.S. Census Bureau, 2018). Figure 1 represents the four geographic regions and nine divisions.

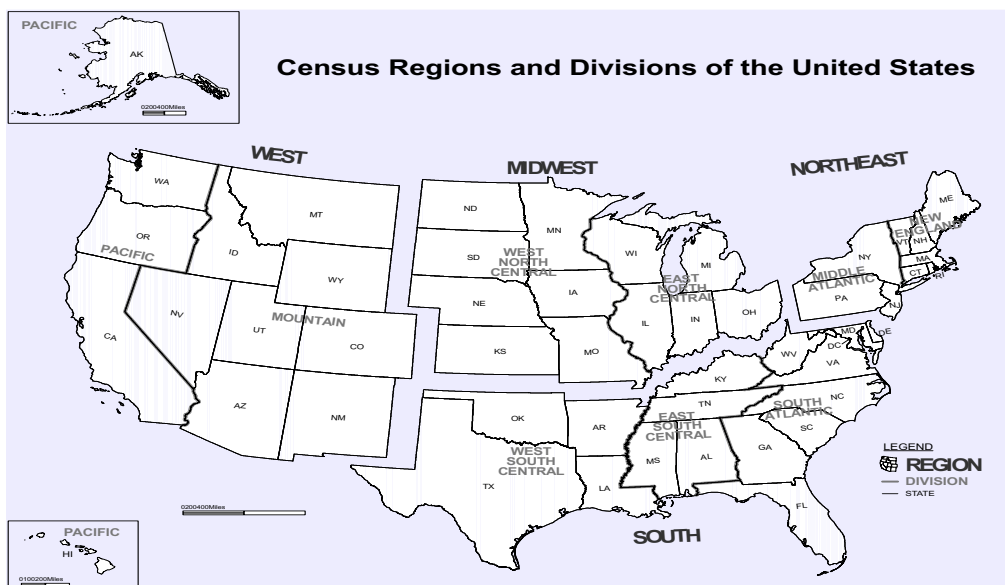


Figure 1 *U.S. Census Regions and Divisions*

The purpose of this study was to understand if individual, community, and school demographics and characteristics of female secondary school administrative leaders, or school principals, vary by region and division in the United States (U.S.). The study employed the use of a secondary data set collected by the National Center for Educational Statistics (NCES) with principal responses and school characteristics compiled through the *2017-2018 National Teacher and Principal Survey (NTPS)*. Quantitative data were analyzed to determine descriptive statistics, compare if expected frequencies were significantly different, and to compare means to determine if there was statistical significance between the divisions and regions. The dependent variables were the frequency of women serving as school administrative leaders by community type (city, suburban, town, and urban locations, individual characteristics (age, race and ethnicity), school leadership characteristic (years as a school leader, participation in mentorship, department chair experience, and highest

degree earned), and school characteristics (size of student population and accessed Title1 funding).

### **Organization**

This chapter is organized to answer research questions one and two using responses from the participants of the *NTPS* for the 2017-2018 school year. RQ1 analyzed the demographic characteristics of women who are secondary school leaders in the K-12 public school setting. Demographic data included a comparison of male and female school administrative leaders by school levels, and then compared exclusively female secondary individual and school characteristics of the schools they served. RQ1 is restated, and the results of demographic data analysis from *NTPS* can be seen in Tables 1 to 16.

RQ2 analyzed if individual characteristics of women who are secondary school administrative leaders, or principals, in the K-12 public school setting significantly varied by regions and divisions. These analyses included a comparison of nominal and interval data to test for statically significant differences in the individual characteristics of the women in this study. Tables 17 to 32 report findings on RQ2.

### **Results**

#### **Sample**

The data used in this study were taken from the responses submitted by administrative leaders in response to requests by the NCES to complete the *NTPS* for the 2017-2018 school year. The *NTPS* collected a total of 10,600 public school administrative leaders and 60,000 teacher surveys This study analyzed data submitted

by administrative leaders who identified as male or female, which were the only gender choices on the survey. A total of 3,601 male and 3,564 female school administrators completed the *NTPS*. The *NTPS* offers binary options for identification of gender. Corresponding student data were merged with school administrative leaders' data for this study. Data from female secondary school administrative leader survey data were analyzed by regions and divisions. A total of 1,068 female secondary school administrative leaders' responses were include for this study.

### **Results of Research Question 1**

For the purposes of this study, demographic data were explored to answer the following research question:

What are the individual characteristics of women who are secondary school leaders in the K-12 public school setting by community type (city, suburban, town, and urban locations), individual characteristics (age, race and ethnicity), school leadership characteristic (years as a school leader, participation in mentorship, department chair experience, and highest degree earned), and school characteristics (size of student population and accessed Title 1 funding) by four geographic regions that include the Northeast, Midwest, South, West, and nine division (New England, Middle Atlantic, East North Central, West North Central, South Atlantic, East South Central, West South Central, Mountain, and Pacific) within each geographic region?

Research findings reporting the demographic data answering research question one were reported in Tables 1 to Table 16. Tables 1 and Table 2 describe representation of administrative leaders by gender, school type (elementary, middle,

and high school) and demographics of female secondary school administrative leaders by region and division. Table 5 to Table 16 describe individual characteristics of secondary school administrative leaders by region and division in the same order as stated in RQ1. That order is community type, age, race and ethnicity, years as a school leader, participation in mentorship, department chair experience, highest degree earned, size of student population, and accessed Title 1 funding.

In the 50 states and District of Columbia, a total of 3,067 male school administrators and 3,131 female school administrators completed the *NTPS*. Table 1 reports the frequency and percentage of individuals serving as administrative leaders by school level, gender, and regions. School levels include elementary, middle, high school and region.

Table 1

*Frequency and Percentage of Leader by School Level, Gender, and Region*

School Type	<i>n</i>	Male	Percent	Female	Percent
Northeast					
Elementary	579	236	40.8	343	59.2
Middle	214	134	62.6	80	37.4
High	313	216	69.0	97	31.0
Midwest					
Elementary	689	286	41.5	403	58.5
Middle	256	179	69.9	77	30.1
High	403	289	71.7	114	28.3
South					
Elementary	1080	273	25.3	807	74.7
Middle	454	250	55.1	204	44.9
High	631	428	67.8	203	32.2
West					
Elementary	869	322	37.1	547	62.9
Middle	257	148	57.6	109	42.4
High	453	306	67.5	147	32.5

*Note.* *N* = 6,198

Table 2 reports the frequency and percentage of individuals serving as administrative leaders by school level, gender, and regions. School levels include elementary, middle, high school (kindergarten-12th grade) and division.

Table 2

*Frequency and Percentage of Principal by School Type, Gender, and Division*

School Type	<i>n</i>	Male	Percent	Female	Percent
New England					
Elementary	275	105	38.2	170	61.8
Middle	95	56	58.9	39	41.1
High	133	88	66.2	45	33.8
Middle Atlantic					
Elementary	396	165	41.7	231	58.3
Middle	152	98	65	54	35.5
High	233	153	65.7	80	34.3
East North Central					
Elementary	297	112	37.7	185	62.3
Middle	119	84	70.6	35	29.4
High	190	135	71.1	55	28.9
West North Central					
Elementary	300	140	46.7	160	53.3
Middle	104	75	72.1	29	27.9
High	160	129	80.6	31	19.4
South Atlantic					
Elementary	571	148	25.9	423	74.1
Middle	229	125	54.6	104	45.4
High	292	197	67.5	95	32.5
East South Central					
Elementary	147	48	32.7	99	67.3
Middle	69	42	60.9	27	39.1
High	114	84	73.7	30	26.3
West South Central					
Elementary	362	77	21.3	285	78.7
Middle	156	83	53.2	73	46.8
High	225	147	65.3	78	34.7
Mountain					
Elementary	448	170	37.9	278	62.1
Middle	111	63	56.8	48	43.2
High	214	148	69.2	66	30.8
Pacific					
Elementary	421	152	36.1	269	63.9
Middle	146	85	58.2	61	41.8
High	239	158	66.1	81	33.9

Note. *N* = 6,198



The percentages of female secondary school administrative leaders analyzed in this study, included 635 (60%) of female middle school principal and 433 (40%), females high school principal, survey responses. Results of the frequency and percentage of female administrative leaders by school level, gender, and region are seen in Table 3.

Table 3.

*Frequency and Percentage of Female Secondary School Principal by School Level, and Region*

School Type	<i>n</i>	Percent
Northeast		
Middle	110	64.3
High	61	35.7
Midwest		
Middle	126	52.5
High	114	47.5
South		
Middle	224	60.7
High	145	39.2
West		
Middle	175	60.7
High	113	39.3

*Note.* *N* = 1068

Table 4 reports the frequency and percentage of female secondary school administrative leaders' responses used in this study. A total of 635, or 60% of female middle school administrators and 433, or 40%, female high school administrative leaders completed the *NTPS* and identified their gender as female.

Table 4

*Frequency and Percentage of Principal by School Level, and Divisions*

School Type	<i>n</i>	Percent
New England		
Middle	51	70.8
High	21	29.2
Middle Atlantic		
Middle	59	61.6
High	40	38.4
East North Central		
Middle	92	67.1
High	45	32.8
West North Central		
Middle	34	33.1
High	69	66.9
South Atlantic		
Middle	100	60.6
High	65	39.4
East South Central		
Middle	33	73.3
High	12	26.7
West South Central		
Middle	91	57.2
High	68	42.8
Mountain		
Middle	77	58.8
High	54	41.2
Pacific		
Middle	98	62.4
High	59	37.6

*Note.* *N* = 1068

Table 5 reports the frequency and percentage of female secondary school administrative leaders' responses used in this study who work in schools based on

community types locations. Female secondary school administrative leaders served in cities, suburbs, towns, and rural locations by region.

Table 5

*Frequency and Percentage of Principal by Community Type and Region*

Community Type	<i>n</i>	Percent
Northeast		
City	66	38.6
Suburban	62	36.2
Town	14	8.2
Rural	29	17.0
Midwest		
City	64	26.7
Suburban	48	20.0
Town	38	15.8
Rural	90	37.5
South		
City	119	32.3
Suburban	92	24.9
Town	45	12.2
Rural	113	30.6
West		
City	112	38.9
Suburban	70	24.3
Town	37	12.8
Rural	69	24.0

*Note.* *N* = 1068

Table 6 reports the frequency and percentage of female secondary school administrative leaders' responses used in this study who work in schools based on community types used in this study who work in schools based on community types locations. Female secondary school administrative leaders served as leaders in cities, suburbs, towns, and rural locations is reported by division.

Table 6

*Frequency and Percentage of Principal by Community Type and Division*

Community Type	<i>n</i>	Percent
New England		
City	20	27.8
Suburban	26	36.1
Town	9	12.5
Rural	17	23.6
Middle Atlantic		
City	46	46.5
Suburban	36	36.4
Town	5	5.0
Rural	12	12.1
East North Central		
City	44	32.2
Suburban	33	24.0
Town	20	14.6
Rural	40	29.2
West North Central		
City	20	19.4
Suburban	15	14.5
Town	18	17.5
Rural	50	48.6
South Atlantic		
City	56	33.9
Suburban	49	29.7
Town	14	8.5
Rural	46	27.9
East South Central		
City	53	40.4
Suburban	29	22.1
Town	15	11.5
Rural	34	26.9
West South Central		
City	50	31.4
Suburban	37	23.3
Town	23	14.5
Rural	49	30.8
Mountain		
City	53	40.5
Suburban	29	22.1
Town	15	11.5
Rural	34	25.9
Pacific		
City	59	37.6
Suburban	41	26.1
Town	22	14.0
Rural	35	22.3

Note. N = 1068

Table 7 displays the average age of female school principal was calculated by regions and divisions.

Table 7

*Average Age of Principal by Region and Division*

	<i>M</i>		<i>M</i>
Northeast	49.13	South	49.7
New England	48.87	South Atlantic	50.15
Middle Atlantic	49.32	East South Central	48.71
		West South Central	49.67
Midwest	47.84	West	49.64
East North Central	47.74	Mountain	49.08
West North Central	47.96	Pacific	50.10

*Note.*  $N=1068$

Table 8 to Table 11 displays the race and ethnicity of female school principal's by regions and divisions. Table 8 displays the frequency and percent of women secondary school leaders by race and ethnicity in the Northeast (Region 1), New England (Division 2), and Middle Atlantic (Division 3). The *NTPS* survey included survey questions identifying leaders by race and ethnicity (Hispanic or Non-Hispanic).

Table 8

*Race and Ethnicity of Secondary School Principal by Region 1, Divisions 1 and 2*

Northeast			Hispanic		
Non-Hispanic	<i>n</i>	Percent		<i>n</i>	Percent
White	135	79.4	White	7	4.1
Black/A. Amer	23	13.5	Black/A. Amer	1	0.6
Asian	3	1.8	Asian		
Native Hawaiian /P. Isla			Native Hawaiian /P. Isla		
Amer Indian/Alaska Native	1	0.6	Amer Indian /Alaska Native	8	4.5
No Response	1	0.6			
New England			Hispanic		
Non-Hispanic	<i>n</i>	Percent		<i>n</i>	Percent
White	67	93.1	White		
Black/A. Amer	5	6.9	Black/A. Amer		
Middle Atlantic			Hispanic		
Non-Hispanic	<i>n</i>	Percent		<i>n</i>	Percent
White	68	68.7	White	7	7.1
Black/A. Amer	18	18.2	Black/A. Amer	1	0.9
Asian	3	3.0	Asian		
Amer Indian/ Alaska Native	1	1.0	Amer Indian/ Alaska Native	1	0.9
White, Asian, Amer Indian	1	1.0	White, Asian, Amer Indian		
White, Amer Indian			White, Amer Indian	1	0.9
No Response	1	1.0			

Table 9 displays race and ethnicity of female school principals in the Midwest (Region 2), East North Central (Division 3), and West North Central (Division 4).

Table 9

*Race and Ethnicity of Principal by Region 2, Division 3 and 4*

Midwest			Hispanic		
Non-Hispanic	<i>n</i>	%		<i>n</i>	%
White	210	87.5	White	7	4.1
Black/A. Amer	15	6.3	Black/A. Amer	1	0.4
Asian	3	1.3	Asian		
Native Hawaiian /P.	1	0.4	Native Hawaiian /P.		
Isla			Isla		
Amer Indian/Alaskan	1	0.4	Amer Indian/Alaskan		
Black, White, Amer	1	0.4	Black, White, Amer		
Indian			Indian		
White, Amer Indian	2	0.8	White, Amer Indian	1	0.4
Black, White	1	0.4	Black, White		
No Response	1	0.4			
East North Central					
Non-Hispanic	<i>n</i>	%	Hispanic	<i>n</i>	%
White	118	86.1	White	3	2.2
Black/A. Amer	5	7.3	Black/A. Amer		
Asian	2	1.5	Asian		
Black, White, Amer	1	0.7	Black, White, Amer		
Indian			Indian		
White, Amer Indian			White, Amer Indian	1	0.7
Black, White	1	0.7	Black, White		
No Response	1	0.7			
West North Central					
Non-Hispanic	<i>n</i>	%	Hispanic	<i>n</i>	%
White	92	89.3	White	1	1.0
Black/A. Amer	5	4.9	Black/A. Amer		
Asian	1	1.0	Asian		
Native Hawaiian /P.	1	1.0	Native Hawaiian /P.		
Isla			Isla		
Amer Indian/ Alaskan Native	1	1.0	Amer Indian/ Alaskan Native		
Black, White, Amer	1	1.0	Black, White, Amer		
Indian			Indian		
White Amer Indian	2	1.9	White, Amer Indian		
Black, White			Black, White		

Table 10 displays race and ethnicity of female school principals administrative leaders in Region 3, Division 5, Division 6, and Division 7.

Table 10

*Race and Ethnicity of Principal by Region 3, Division 5, 6, and 7*

South			Hispanic		
Non-Hispanic	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	
White	257	69.6	White	27	7.3
Black/A. Amer	70	19.0	Black/A. Amer		
Asian	3	0.8	Asian		
Native Hawaiian, White	1	0.3	Native Hawaiian, White		
Native Hawaiian /P. Isla			Native Hawaiian /P. Isla		
Amer Indian/ Alaskan	6	1.6	Amer Indian/ Alaskan	2	0.6
Native			Native		
Black, White, Amer			Black, White, Amer	1	0.3
Indian			Indian		
White Amer Indian	1	0.3	White, Amer Indian	1	0.3
Black, White	1	0.3	Black, White		
White, Asian			White, Asian	1	0.3
South Atlantic					
Non-Hispanic	<i>n</i>	%	Hispanic	<i>n</i>	%
White	118	71.5	White	8	4.8
Black/A. Amer	3	20.6	Black/A. Amer		
Asian	3	1.8	Asian		
Black, White, Amer			Black, White, Amer	1	0.7
Indian			Indian		
White Amer Indian			White Amer Indian		
Black and White	1	0.6	Black and White		
White and Asian			White and Asian	1	0.7
East South Central					
Non-Hispanic	<i>n</i>	%	Hispanic	<i>n</i>	%
White	32	71.1	White		
Black/A. Amer	13	28.9	Black/A. Amer		
West South Central					
Non-Hispanic	<i>n</i>	%	Hispanic	<i>n</i>	%
White	107	67.3	White	19	11.9
Black/A. Amer	23	14.5	Black/A. Amer		
Native Hawaiian, White	1	0.6	Native Hawaiian, White		
Amer Indian/ Alaskan	6	3.8	Amer Indian/ Alaskan	2	1.3
Native			Native		
White, Amer Indian	1	0.6	White, Amer Indian		



Table 11 displays race and ethnicity of Female Secondary School Administrative leaders by Region 4, Division 8, and Division 9.

Table 11

*Race and Ethnicity of Secondary School Principal by Region 4, Division 8, and 9*

West			Hispanic		
Non-Hispanic	<i>n</i>	%		<i>n</i>	%
White	209	72.6	White	35	12.2
Black/A. Amer	12	4.2	Black/A. Amer	1	0.3
Asian	8	2.8	Asian		
Native Hawaiian /P. Isla	4	1.4	Native Hawaiian /P. Isla		
Native Hawaiian/Asian			Native Hawaiian/Asian	1	0.3
Amer Indian/ Alaskan	6	2.1	Amer Indian/Alaskan Native	2	0.7
Native					
White, Amer Indian	4	1.4	White, Amer Indian		
Native Hawaiian/Amer	1	0.3	Native Hawaiian/Amer		
Indian			Indian		
Black, White	2	0.7	Black, White		
White, Asian	3	1.0	White, Asian		
Mountain			Hispanic		
Non-Hispanic	<i>n</i>	%		<i>n</i>	%
White	100	76.3	White	18	13.7
Black/A. Amer	4	3.1	Black/A. Amer	1	0.8
Asian	1	0.8	Asian		
Native Hawaiian /Asian			Native Hawaiian /Asian	1	0.8
Amer Indian/ Alaskan	1	0.8	Amer Indian/ Alaskan	1	0.8
Native			Native		
White/Amer Indian	1	0.8	White, Amer Indian		
Native Hawaiian/Amer	2	1.5	Native Hawaiian/Amer		
Indian			Indian		
Black, White	2	1.5	Black, White		
White, Asian			White, Asian		
Pacific			Hispanic		
Non-Hispanic	<i>n</i>	%		<i>n</i>	%
White	109	69.4	White	17	10.8
Black/A. Amer	8	5.1	Black/A. Amer		
Asian	7	4.5	Asian		
Native Hawaiian /P. Isla	2	2.5	Native Hawaiian /P. Isla		
Amer Indian/ Alaskan	2	2.5	Amer Indian/ Alaskan	1	0.6
Native			Native		
Native Hawaiian/Amer	1	0.6	Native Hawaiian/Amer		
Indian			Indian		
White, Asian	3	1.9	White, Asian		

Table 12 displays the average and standard deviation of years of experience in which female school administrative leaders served as school administrative leaders; years as classroom teachers were calculated by region and division.

Table 12

*Principal Average Years of Experience as School Administrative Leader and Classroom Teacher by Region and Division*

	Years as School Administration		Years as a Classroom Teacher	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Northeast	6.31	5.35	10.49	6.49
New England	6.46	5.47	10.19	6.43
Middle Atlantic	6.20	5.29	10.71	6.39
Midwest	5.99	6.14	12.17	6.44
East North Central	6.02	6.20	11.91	6.62
West North Central	5.59	6.09	12.51	6.20
South	6.57	6.09	11.82	6.57
South Atlantic	6.90	6.49	11.67	6.86
East South Central	4.64	4.12	13.36	6.18
West South Central	6.76	6.05	11.53	6.34
West	5.75	5.29	11.64	6.52
Mountain	5.33	4.78	11.60	6.38
Pacific	6.10	5.67	11.67	6.65

*Note.*  $N=1068$

Table 13 displays the frequency and percent of years participation of female school administrative leaders in aspiring leadership programs or their experience as a department chair, calculated by region and division.

Table 13

*Participation in Program for Aspiring Leader or Experience as Department Chair by Region and Division*

	Leader Program			
	Yes		No	
	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%
Northeast	111	63.1	65	19.3
New England	44	61.1	28	38.9
Middle Atlantic	67	67.7	32	32.3
Midwest	130	54.2	110	45.8
East North Central	75	54.7	62	45.3
West North Central	55	53.4	48	46.6
South	232	62.9	137	37.1
South Atlantic	118	71.5	47	28.5
East South Central	31	68.9	14	31.1
West South Central	83	52.2	76	47.8
West	164	56.9	124	43.1
Mountain	72	55.0	59	45.0
Pacific	92	58.6	65	41.4
	Department Chair			
	Yes		No	
	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%
Northeast	189	68.0	89	28.2
New England	111	64.9	68	35.1
Middle Atlantic	78	78.8	21	21.2
Midwest	135	56.3	105	43.8
East North Central	89	65.0	48	35.0
West North Central	46	44.7	57	55.3
South	312	84.6	57	15.4
South Atlantic	147	89.1	18	10.9
East South Central	38	84.4	7	15.6
West South Central	127	79.9	32	20.1
West	220	76.4	68	23.6
Mountain	96	73.3	35	26.7
Pacific	124	79.0	33	21.0

Note. *N* = 1068

Table 14 displays the frequency and percent of the highest degree earned by female school administrative leaders calculated by region and division.

Table 14

*Highest Degree Earned by Region and Division*

	AA/ None		BA		MA	
	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%
Northeast			1	0.6	80	46.8
New England			1	1.4	40	55.6
Middle Atlantic					40	40.4
Midwest			7	2.9	131	54.6
East North Central			5	3.6	85	62.0
West North Central			2	1.9	46	44.7
South			11	3.0	218	59.1
South Atlantic			4	2.4	87	52.7
East South Central					17	37.8
West South Central			7	4.4	114	71.7
West	1	0.3	14	4.9	187	64.9
Mountain			5	3.8	89	67.9
Pacific	1	0.6	9	5.7	98	62.4
			Eds		PhD/ EdD	
	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%		
Northeast	63	36.8	27	15.8		
New England	23	31.9	8	11.1		
Middle Atlantic	40	40.4	19	19.2		
Midwest	77	32.1	25	10.4		
East North Central	36	26.3	11	8.0		
West North Central	41	39.8	14	13.6		
South	90	24.4	50	13.6		
South Atlantic	48	29.1	26	15.8		
East South Central	20	44.4	8	17.8		
West South Central	22	13.8	16	10.1		
West	41	14.2	45	15.6		
Mountain	20	15.3	17	13.0		
Pacific	21	13.4	28	17.8		

Note. *N* = 1068

Table 15 displays the frequency and percent of students attending schools led by female secondary school administrative leaders calculated by region and division.

Table 15

*Total Student Numbers by Region and Division*

	500		500-999		1,000-1,499	
	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%
Northeast	77	45.0	58	33.9	24	14.0
New England	31	41.7	27	37.5	10	13.8
Middle Atlantic	47	47.5	31	31.3	14	14.1
Midwest	117	64.6	24	13.3	19	10.5
East North Central	67	48.9	37	27.0	19	13.9
West North Central	75	72.8	13	12.6	6	5.8
South	176	47.7	87	23.6	50	13.6
South Atlantic	75	45.5	36	21.8	23	14.0
East South Central	27	60.0	9	20.0	7	15.6
West South Central	74	46.5	42	26.4	20	12.6
West	140	48.6	59	20.4	30	10.4
Mountain	69	52.7	26	19.8	13	9.9
Pacific	71	45.2	33	21.0	17	10.9
	77	45.0	58	33.9	24	14.0
			2,000+			
	1,500-2,000					
	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%		
Northeast	4	2.3	8	4.7		
New England	3	4.2	2	2.8		
Middle Atlantic	1	1.0	6	6.1		
Midwest	16	8.8	5	2.7		
East North Central	10	7.3	4	2.9		
West North Central	7	6.8	2	1.9		
South	22	6.0	34	9.2		
South Atlantic	14	8.5	17	10.3		
East South Central	3	6.7	2	4.4		
West South Central	6	3.8	17	10.7		
West	21	7.3	38	13.2		
Mountain	6	4.6	17	13.0		
Pacific	15	9.6	21	13.4		

Table 16 displays the frequency and percent of schools receiving Title 1 funding by female secondary school administrative leaders calculated by region and division.

Table 16

*Frequency of Female Led Schools who Receive Title I funds by Region and Division*

	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%
Northeast						
Yes	134	82.7				
No	28	17.2				
N. England			M. Atlantic			
Yes	59	85.5	75	80.6		
No	10	29.0	18	19.4		
Midwest						
Yes	145	65.3				
No	77	34.7				
E. North Central			W. North Central			
Yes	82	64.1	63	67.0		
No	46	35.9	31	33.0		
South						
Yes	247	66.9				
No	98	26.6				
S. Atlantic			E. South Central		W. South Central	
Yes	115	75.7	27	64.3	105	69.5
No	37	24.3	15	35.7	46	30.5
West						
Yes	207	75.8				
No	66	24.2				
Mountain			Pacific			
Yes	92	73.0	115	78.2		
No	34	27.0	32	21.8		

## **Results of Research Question 2**

For the purposes of this study, female secondary school principal demographic data were explored to answer the following research question:

To what extent do individual characteristics of women who are secondary school leaders in the K-12 public school setting significantly vary by community type (city, suburban, town, and urban locations), individual characteristics (age, race and ethnicity), school leadership characteristic (years as a school leader, participation in mentorship, department chair experience, and highest degree earned), and school characteristics (size of student population and accessed Title 1 funding) by four geographic regions that include the Northeast, Midwest, South, West, and nine division (New England, Middle Atlantic, East North Central, West North Central, South Atlantic, East South Central, West South Central, Mountain, and Pacific) within each geographic region?

Research findings reporting the demographic data answering RQ2 are reported in Tables 17 to 33. Determining if individual characteristics of secondary school administrative leaders vary by region and division, tables are organized in the same order as stated in research question two. That order is community type, age, race and ethnicity, years as a school leader, participation in mentorship, department chair experience, highest degree earned, size of student population, and access to Title 1 funding.



In the 50 states and District of Columbia, a total of 1,068 female school administrative leaders completed the *NTPS* and responded to survey questions explored in this study.

Table 17 displays the results of a chi-square test of independence comparing frequency of female secondary school administrative leaders by community type and region. There was a statistically significant difference between the location of where female secondary school leaders served by region. Female secondary school principals in the city, suburb, town, and rural community type differed by region  $\chi^2(9, N = 1068) = 40.43, p < .001$ . Table 17 displays the count of female secondary school leaders by actual count by region and community type.

Table 17

*Chi-Square Frequency Count of Principal by Community Type and Region*

	<u>Northeast</u>	<u>Midwest</u>	<u>South</u>	<u>West</u>
City	66	64	119	112
Suburb	62	48	92	70
Town	14	38	45	37
Rural	29	90	113	69

$\chi^2(9) = 40.43, p < .001$

Table 18 displays the results of a chi-square test of independence comparing frequency of female secondary school administrative leaders by community type and division. There was a significant difference between the location of where female secondary school leaders served by division. The percentage of secondary school

principals in the city, suburb, town, and rural community type differed by division  $\chi^2$

(24,  $N = 1068$ ) = 72.72,  $p = .001$

Table 18

*Chi-Square Frequency Count of Principal by Community Type and Division*

	N. England	M. Atlantic	E. North Central	W. North Central	S. Atlantic
City	20	46	44	20	56
Suburb	26	36	33	15	49
Town	9	5	20	18	14
Rural	17	12	40	50	46
	E. South Central	W. South Central	Mountain	Pacific	
City	13	50	53	59	
Suburb	6	37	29	41	
Town	8	23	15	22	
Rural	18	49	34	35	

$\chi^2(24) = 72.72, p = .001$

A one-way ANOVA compared the means of secondary school administrative principals by age and region. There was not a statistically significant difference in means by region on age ( $p > .05$ ). Table 19 displays the means and standard deviations for the ages of school leaders by region and division.

Table 19

*ANOVA of Principal by Age and Region and Division*

	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Northeast	171	49.13	8.9
New England	72	48.87	8.9
Middle Atlantic	99	49.32	8.9
Midwest	240	47.84	8.8
East North Central	137	47.74	8.8
West North Central	103	47.96	8.8
South	369	49.77	8.8
South Atlantic	154	50.15	9.3
East South Central	45	48.71	7.0
West South Central	159	49.67	8.7
West	288	49.64	9.5
Mountain	131	49.08	9.3
Pacific	157	50.10	9.7

Table 20 displays the results of a chi-square test of independence comparing representation of race and ethnicity of female secondary school principals by region. Representation of administrative leaders by race and ethnicity was statistically different by Region  $\chi^2(12, N = 1068) = 82.53, p = .001$ .

Table 20

*Chi Square Count of Race and Ethnicity by Region*

	Northeast	Midwest	South	West
White	135	210	257	209
Black	23	16	71	14
Asian	3	3	3	8
N. American/ Alaskan	2	5	8	18
Hispanic	8	6	30	39

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$$\chi^2(12) = 82.53, p = .001$$

Table 21 displays the results of a chi-square test of independence comparing representation of race and ethnicity of female secondary school administrative leaders by division. The percentage of secondary school leaders by race and ethnicity was statistically significantly by division  $\chi^2(32, N = 1068) = 95.97, p = .001$ .

Table 21

*Chi-Square Count of Race and Ethnicity by Division*

	<u>N. England</u>	<u>M. Atlantic</u>	<u>E. North Central</u>	<u>W. North Central</u>	<u>S. Atlantic</u>
White	67	68	118	92	118
Black/Afr Amer	5	22	7	5	35
Asian	0	3	2	1	3
N. Amer/Alaskan	0	2	1	4	0
Hispanic	0	11	2	1	9
	<u>E. South Central</u>	<u>W. South Central</u>	<u>Mountain</u>	<u>Pacific</u>	
White	32	107	100	109	
Black/Afr Amer	13	23	6	8	
Asian	0	0	1	7	
N. Amer/Alaskan	0	8	3	15	
Hispanic	0	21	21	18	

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$$\chi^2(32) = 95.97, p = .001$$

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to compare means of secondary school administrative leaders' years of experience as an administrative leader by region. There was not a statistically significant effect by region and division on years of experience as a school administrative leader by regions ( $p > .05$ ). Table 22 displays the means and standard deviations of years of experience as a school administrative leader by region and division.

Table 22

*ANOVA of Secondary School Principal Years of Experience as a School  
Administrative Leader by Region and Division*

	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Northeast	171	6.31	5.3
New England	72	6.46	5.5
Middle Atlantic	99	6.20	5.5
Midwest	240	5.99	6.1
East North Central	137	6.02	6.2
West North Central	103	5.95	6.1
South	369	6.57	6.0
South Atlantic	165	6.90	6.5
East South Central	45	4.64	4.1
West South Central	159	6.76	6.0
West	288	5.75	5.3
Mountain	131	5.33	4.8
Pacific	157	6.10	5.7

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to compare means of secondary school administrative leaders and years as a classroom teacher by region and division. There was not a statistically significant effect by region on years as a classroom teacher ( $p > .05$ ). When comparing division and years as a classroom teacher, there was not a

statistically significant effect by division ( $p > .05$ ). Table 23 displays the means and standard deviations for the years as a classroom teacher prior to becoming a school administrative leader by region and division.

Table 23

*ANOVA Secondary School Principal Years of Experience as a Classroom Teacher by Region and Division*

	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Northeast	171	10.49	6.4
New England	72	10.19	6.4
Middle Atlantic	99	10.71	6.4
Midwest	240	12.17	6.4
East North Central	103	11.91	6.6
West North Central	103	12.51	6.2
South	369	11.82	6.6
South Atlantic	165	11.67	6.9
East South Central	45	13.36	6.2
West South Central	159	11.53	6.3
West	288	11.64	6.5
Mountain	131	11.60	6.4
Pacific	157	11.67	6.7

Table 24 displays the results of a chi-square test of independence comparing frequency of female secondary school administrative leaders who participated in an Aspiring Administrator Program prior to becoming a school administrative leader by region. The frequency of female secondary school leaders who participated in an aspiring administrator program significantly differed by Region  $\chi^2(3, N = 1068) = 7.43, p = .006$ .

Table 24

*Chi-Square Participated in Aspiring Administrator Program prior to Administrative Leadership by Region*

	Northeast	Midwest	South	West
Yes	111	130	232	164
No	60	110	137	124

$\chi^2(3) = 7.43, p = .006$

Table 25 displays the results of a chi-square test of independence comparing frequency of female secondary school administrative leaders who participated in an aspiring administrator program prior to becoming a school administrative leader by division. The percentage of secondary school who participated in an aspiring administrator program significantly differed by division  $\chi^2(8, N = 1068) = 21.94, p = .005$ .



Table 25

*Chi-Square Secondary School Principal by participation in Aspiring Administrator Program by Division*

	N. England	M. Atlantic	E. North Central	W. North Central	S. Atlantic
Yes	44	67	75	55	118
No	28	32	62	48	47
	E. South Central	W. South Central	Mountain	Pacific	
Yes	31	83	72	92	
No	14	76	59	65	

$\chi^2(8) = 21.94, p = .005.$

Table 26 displays the results of a chi-square test of independence comparing frequency of female secondary school administrative leaders who was a department chair prior to becoming a school administrative leader by region. The frequency of secondary school leaders who served as a department chair significantly differed by region  $\chi^2(3, N = 1068) = 66.81, p < .001.$

Table 26

*Chi-Square Female Secondary School Administrative Leader as Department Chair prior to Administrative leadership by Region*

	Northeast	Midwest	South	West
Yes	138	135	312	220
No	33	105	57	68

$\chi^2(3) = 66.81, p < .001$

Table 27 displays the results of a chi-square test of independence comparing frequency of female secondary school administrative leaders who was a department chair prior to becoming a school administrative leader by division. The percentage of secondary school who served as a department chair significantly differed by division  $\chi^2(8, N = 1068) = 85.29, p < .001$ .

Table 27

*Chi-Square Count of Female Secondary School Administrators as Department Chair*

	N. England	M. Atlantic	E. North Central	W. North Central	S. Atlantic
Yes	60	78	89	46	147
No	12	21	48	57	18
	E. South Central	W. South Central	Mountain	Pacific	
Yes	38	127	96	124	
No	7	32	35	33	

$\chi^2(8) = 85.29, p < .001$

Table 28 displays the results of a chi-square test of independence comparing frequency of the highest degree earned by female secondary school administrative leaders by region. The percentage of secondary school leaders comparing highest degrees earned was statistically significantly by region  $\chi^2(12, N = 1068) = 46.35, p = .001$ .

Table 28

*Chi-Square Count of Highest Degree Earned by Region*

	Northeast	Midwest	South	West
Associates	0	0	0	0
Bachelors	1	7	11	14
Masters	80	131	218	187
Specialist	63	77	90	41
Doctorate	27	25	50	45
No Degree	0	0	0	1

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$$\chi^2(12) = 46.35, p = .001$$

Table 29 displays the results of a chi-square test of independence comparing frequency of the highest degree earned by female secondary school administrative leaders by division. The percentage of secondary school leaders comparing highest degrees earned was statistically significantly by division  $\chi^2(32, N = 1068) = 95.97, p = .001$ .

Table 29

*Chi-Square Count of Highest Degree Earned by Division*

	N. England	M. Atlantic	E. North Central	W. North Central	S. Atlantic
Associates	0	0	0	0	0
Bachelors	1	0	5	2	4
Masters	40	40	85	46	87
Specialist	23	40	36	41	48
Doctorate	8	19	11	14	26
No	0	0	0	0	0
Degree					
	E. South Central	W. South Central	Mountain	Pacific	
Associates	0	0	0	0	
Bachelors	0	7	5	9	
Masters	17	114	89	98	
Specialist	20	22	20	21	
Doctorate	8	16	17	28	
No	0	0	0	1	
Degree					

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$$\chi^2(32) = 95.97, p = .001$$

Table 30 displays the results of a chi-square test of independence comparing frequency of school size led by female secondary school principals by region. The size of secondary schools secondary school principals led differed by region  $\chi^2(12, N = 1068) = 44.14, p = .001$ .

Table 30

*Chi-Square Count of School Size by Region*

	Northeast	Midwest	South	West
Up to 499	77	142	176	140
500 to 999	58	50	87	59
1,000 to 1,499	24	25	50	30
1,500 to 1,999	4	17	22	21
2,000 +	8	6	34	38

$\chi^2(12) = 44.14, p = .001.$

Table 31 displays the results of a chi-square test of independence comparing frequency of school size led by female secondary school principals by division. The school size led by female of secondary school principals was statistically significantly by division  $\chi^2(32, N = 1068) = 95.97, p = .001.$

Table 31

*Chi-Square Count of School Size by Division*

	N. England	M. Atlantic	E. North Central	W. North Central	S. Atlantic
Up to 499	30	47	67	75	75
500 to 999	27	31	37	13	36
1,000 to 1,499	10	14	19	6	23
1,500 to 1,999	3	1	10	7	14
2,000 or more	2	6	4	2	17
	E. South Central	W. South Central	Mountain	Pacific	
Up to 499	27	74	69	71	
500 to 999	9	42	26	33	
1,000 to 1,499	7	20	13	17	
1,500 to 1,999	2	6	6	15	
2,000 or more	0	17	17	21	

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$$\chi^2(32) = 95.97, p = .001$$

Table 32 displays the results of a chi-square test of independence comparing frequency of schools led by female secondary school administrative leaders that receive Title 1 funds by region. The frequency of secondary school principals who lead schools that accessed Title 1 funds by region significantly differed by region  $\chi^2(3, N = 1002) = 15.90, p = .001$ .

Table 32

*Chi-Square Count of Schools who Accessed Title 1 funds by Region*

	Northeast	Midwest	South	West
Yes	132	145	247	207
No	28	77	98	66

$$\chi^2(3) = 15.90, p = .001$$

Table 33 displays the results of a chi-square test of independence comparing frequency of schools led by female secondary school principals that accessed Title 1 funds by division. The frequency of secondary school principals who lead schools that accessed Title 1 funds significantly differed by division  $\chi^2(3, N = 1002) = 20.31, p = .009$ .

Table 33

*Chi-Square Count of Schools who Accessed Title 1 funds by Division*

	N. England	M. Atlantic	E. North Central	W. North Central	S. Atlantic
Yes	59	75	82	63	115
No	10	18	46	31	37
	E. South Central	W. South Central	Mountain	Pacific	
Yes	27	105	92	115	
No	15	46	34	32	

$$\chi^2(3) = 20.31, p = .009$$

### Summary

This chapter reported the results of this ex post facto comparative non-experimental study that sought to describe demographic data and determine if there were statistically significant differences among the characteristics of female secondary school leaders by regions and divisions in the U.S. The purpose of this study was to understand if individual, community, and school demographics and characteristics of female secondary school administrative leaders, or school administrative leaders, varied by region and division in the U.S. The study employed the use of a secondary data set collected by the NCES with principal responses and school characteristics compiled through the *NTPS*.

RQ1 described the frequency and percentage of women serving as school administrative leaders by community type (city, suburban, town, and rural locations), individual characteristics (age, race and ethnicity), school leadership characteristic (years as a school leader, participation in mentorship, department chair experience, and highest degree earned), and school characteristics (size of student population and accessed Title 1 funding). RQ2 determined if the frequency of women serving as school administrative leaders, or administrative leaders, varied by community type (city, suburban, town, and rural locations), individual characteristics (age, race and ethnicity), school leadership characteristic (years as a school leader, participation in mentorship, department chair experience, and highest degree earned), and school characteristics (size of student population, and accessed Title 1 funding) by U.S. region and division. There were statistically significant differences for among



community type; race and ethnicity; participation in mentorship program; department chair experience; highest degree earned; and serving in schools who accessed Title 1 funds among region, and division. Statistically significant differences in school size by was also found to when comparing leaders by division. There was no statistical significance for age, years as a school leader and years as a classroom teacher among region and division.

## **Chapter 5—Findings, Conclusions, and Implications for Further Study**

### **Introduction**

The following chapter discusses the results of this ex post facto comparative, non-experimental study that sought to describe demographic data and determine if there were statistically significant differences between the characteristics of female secondary school leaders by regions and divisions in the United States (U.S.). This chapter begins with a summary of the purpose of the study, summary of the procedures for analysis, the findings, limitations, and implications for future research.

### **Summary of Purpose**

This ex post facto comparative, non-experimental study investigated the national trends in the demographics and characteristics of the schools served by women who were secondary school administrative leaders during the 2017-2018 school year in the U.S. This study sought to determine if trends in the demographics and characteristics of the schools vary by geographical region. This study analyzed the characteristics of female secondary school administrative leaders by region, division, individual characteristics, characteristics as a school leader, and school characteristics. The literature has identified a multitude of studies that explored the characteristics and the lived experiences of women who are school administrative leaders (Domenech, 2012; Elfers et al., 2017; Ely et al., 2014; Green, 2015; Nichols & Nichols, 2014). By highlighting geographic locations, characteristics of female school leaders, and schools that are led by women, this study provided a novel approach to exploring the

characteristics of a historically underrepresented group of leaders by regions in the U.S.

### **Summary of Procedures**

This study analyzed the 2017-2018 school year survey data from *National Teacher and Principal Survey (NTPS)* published by the National Center for Educational Statistics (NCES) to understand the characteristics of female secondary school leaders by region and division. The regions and divisions were determined by the U.S. Census Bureau's organization of the four geographic regions that include the Northeast, Midwest, South, and West. Within those regions, there are nine divisions: New England, Middle Atlantic, East North Central, West North Central, South Atlantic, East South Central, West South Central, Mountain, and Pacific (U.S. Census Bureau, 2018). Quantitative analysis was conducted to determine demographic data, cross-tabs analysis for expected frequencies, and analysis of variance to determine if community type (city, suburban, town, and rural locations), individual characteristics (age, race and ethnicity), school leadership characteristic (years as a school leader, participation in mentorship, department chair experience, and highest degree earned), and school characteristics (size of student population, and accessed Title 1 funding) of female secondary school leaders differed among U.S. regions and divisions.

### **Findings**

The data used in this study were taken from the responses submitted by principals, school buildings, and school districts in response to requests by the National Center for Educational Statistics (NCES) to complete the *NTPS* for the 2017-

2018 school year. The *NTPS* collected a total of 10,600 public school principals, 60,000 teachers, and those principals and teachers' corresponding schools. This study employed purposeful sampling that included selection of data identified by administrative school leaders, or principals, who identified as male or female. The *NTPS* questionnaire limited gender identification to binary responses between male or female responses. A total of 3,601 male school administrators and 3,564 female school administrators identified their gender and completed the *NTPS*. Corresponding student data were merged with the school principal data for this study. Further purposeful sampling was used to analyze principal and school data by region for principals who identified as female and secondary school administrative school leaders. The data from a total of 1,068 female secondary school administrative leaders were selected for this study.

### **Demographic Data by Gender and School Type**

The initial analysis of this study described the frequency and percentage of principals by school level, gender, and region and divisions within each region in order to explore the topic of women and leadership in K-12 public school settings and understand current trends in leadership for women across multiple career paths. Previous studies identified that women's rights have undergone significant changes in recent history such as voting, access to higher levels of employment, and higher education; and yet, women continued to be underrepresented in leadership across multiple career types. Previous studies on gender and leadership in the U.S. indicate that women who work in public education are also underrepresented in many

leadership roles in school districts. These trends are especially pertinent in secondary school administrative leadership; women have made strides in elementary school administrative leadership but continue to fall behind men in positions that have the greatest amount of influence and power on organizations (Kellerman & Rhode, 2007; U.S. Department of Education, 2005).

### **Conclusion 1: Trends of School Type by Region and Division and Gender of Administrative Leaders**

A report published by the U.S. Department of Education in 2018 identified that 68% of elementary school principal positions were held by women; however, at the secondary level of school leadership, women continued to lag behind men. Specifically, 40% of women held a public school principal job at the middle school level while only 33% held the position at the high school level.

In my study, Table 1 reported that in Region 1, or the Northeast, 59.2% of elementary school principal positions were held by women, while 37.4% were middle school principals, and 31.0% were high school principals. Results of data among divisions within the Northeast, the divisions of New England, or the states of Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, and Vermont (elementary 61.8%, middle 41.1%, and high school 33.8%) and Middle Atlantic, or the states of New Jersey, New York, and Pennsylvania (elementary 58.3%, middle 35.5%, high school 34.3%) follow national trends in representation of women administrative leaders and can be seen in Table 2.

When examining Region 2, or the Midwest, in my study, Table 1 reports that 59.5% of elementary school principal positions were held by women, while 30.1% of the women were middle school principals, and 28.3% were high school principals. Results of data among divisions within the Midwest divisions of East North Central, or the states of Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Ohio, and Wisconsin (elementary 62.3%, middle 29.4%, and high school 28.9%) and West North Central, or the states of Iowa, Kansas, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, and South Dakota (elementary 53.3%, middle 27.9%, and high school 19.4%), follow along national trends that indicated women were less likely to be secondary school administrative leaders than their male peers and the results of my study can be seen in Table 2.

My study reported that these trends continued for Region 3, or the South where women represented 74.7% elementary, 44.9% middle, and 32.2% at high schools and can also be seen in Table 1. Results of data among divisions in the Southern Region, or the South Atlantic, or states of Delaware, District of Columbia, Florida, Georgia, Maryland, North Carolina, South Carolina, Virginia, and West Virginia (elementary 74.1%, middle 45.4%, and high school 32.5%), East South Central, or the states of Alabama, Kentucky, Mississippi, and Tennessee (elementary 67.3%, middle 39.1%, and high school 26.3%), and West South Central, or the states of Arkansas, Louisiana, Oklahoma, and Texas (elementary 78.7%, middle 46.8%, and high school 34.7%) can be seen in Table 2, aligning with the trends in leadership by gender as seen at the national level.

Likewise, for Region 4, or the West, in my study, women represented 62.9% elementary, 42.4% middle, and 32.5% at high school administrative leadership positions that follow the representation trends of women who serve as school administrative leaders and can be seen in Table 1. Results of data among divisions in the Western Region, or the division of the Mountain, or states of Arizona, Colorado, Idaho, New Mexico, Montana, Utah, Nevada, and Wyoming (elementary 62.1%, middle 43.2%, and high school 30.8%), and Pacific divisions, or the states of Alaska, California, Hawaii, Oregon, and Washington (elementary 63.9%, middle 41.8%, and high school 33.9%) hold steady with national trends and can be seen in Table 2.

The results of my study indicate that barriers to women who seek secondary school administrative leadership experience are similar regardless of geographic locations throughout the U.S. The findings of my study align with the published results by the U.S. Department of Education in 2018 reporting on the percent of women who hold administrative leadership roles by school type. The results of my study follow current national trends in public school administrative leadership that indicate women are more likely to serve as elementary school principals, fewer as middle school principals, and least of all, high school principals. However, my study found that when comparing where women serve as school administrative leaders by region and division, there were noteworthy trends found at the divisions. Women in the South appear to be heavily represented at the elementary school level as school administrative leaders. In the South Atlantic division (Delaware, District of Columbia, Florida, Georgia, Maryland, North Carolina, South Carolina, Virginia, and West

Virginia) and the West South Central division (Arkansas, Louisiana, Oklahoma, and Texas) tremendous strides have been made for women leading elementary schools. These findings are particularly interesting because the most recent result of the Characteristics of Public and Private Elementary and Secondary School Teachers in the United States from the 2017-2018 school year published by the National Center for Educational Statistics (NCES) reports that 88.6% of women represent elementary school teaching staff, 72.1% of women represent the middle school teaching staff, and 60.0% of women represent the high school staff throughout the country (Taie & Goldring, 2020). The South Atlantic and the West South Central division leaders at elementary schools more closely mirror the gender representation of the teaching staff.

The results of my study, however, suggest a considerable discrepancy in gender equity in secondary school administrative leadership. These results also indicate that the pathways to leadership opportunities as secondary school administrative leaders are not equal across region and division, and are impacted by the gender of the school leader.

### **Middle School.**

When examining trends at the middle school level, my study revealed that the South represents the highest percentage of women as middle school principals at 44.9%, while the Western region comes in a close second at 42.4%. Within the southern regions, the divisions of South Atlantic (Delaware, District of Columbia, Florida, Georgia, Maryland, North Carolina, South Carolina, Virginia, and West Virginia) and West South Central divisions (Arkansas, Louisiana, Oklahoma, and



Texas) and the western regions of Mountain (Arizona, Colorado, Idaho, New Mexico, Montana, Utah, Nevada, and Wyoming), and Pacific (Alaska, California, Hawaii, Oregon, and Washington), all fall within the range of 40%. Table 1 and 2 display my study indicates that women who aspire to lead at the middle school levels face more barriers in the Northeast and Midwest regions and their divisions.

### **High School.**

When examining trends at the high school level, my study revealed that the Northeast, South, and West regions all fall within the 30% range of representation of women who serve as high school principals, which are similar to the national average of 33% reported by the NES. Upon further investigation, my study revealed the divisions within the West South Central region (the states of Arkansas, Louisiana, Oklahoma, and Texas) slightly outperformed the previously mentioned divisions with 34.7% of the high school principals identifying as female in this study. Within this group of regions and divisions, only 26.3% of women serve as high school principals in the southern division of East South Central (the states of Alabama, Kentucky, Mississippi, and Tennessee). My study also revealed a concerning trend in the Midwest indicating that women serving as high school principals fall lower than within the 30% range at 28.3%. When examining divisions within the region in my study, Division 4 or West North Central, (the states of Iowa, Kansas, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, and South Dakota) was noted to be at a mere 19.4%. The results of this study suggest, for women who aspire to become high school

principals in Minnesota, Iowa, Missouri, Kansas, Nebraska, North Dakota, and South Dakota, may experience more gender based barriers than in other divisions.

### **Demographic Data of Female Secondary School Leader by Region and Division**

This study narrowed the sample size to include 1,068 female secondary school administrative leaders, or school principals. The principals in the analysis included women who identified themselves as middle school or high school leaders. These leaders responses including identification of serving at the middle or high school levels, community type (city, suburban, town, and rural locations), individual characteristics (age, race and ethnicity), school leadership characteristic (years as a school leader, years as a teacher, participation in mentorship, department chair experience, and highest degree earned), and school characteristics (size of student population, and accessed Title 1 funding) by each region and division.

### **Conclusion 2: Frequency of Female Secondary School Administrators by Region and Division**

This study found that women in the Northeast, South, and West are more likely to be middle school administrative leaders within the 60% range, than high school leaders within the 30% range. Women in the Midwest region represented a more balanced representation at middle schools (52.5%), within the low 50%, and high schools (47.5%) within the high 40% range and can be seen in Table 3. My study suggests that, with exception of the Midwest region, obtaining a high school leadership position may have significantly more barriers than a middle school one. Results of data among divisions in my study revealed however that New England

(Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, and Vermont) demonstrated a larger discrepancy between middle school and high school leadership, falling at 70.8% of women leaders serving at middle school and at 29.2% of women serving at the high school level. A similar trend was found in East South Central (Alabama, Kentucky, Mississippi, and Tennessee) with female middle school leaders representing 73.3% of the secondary school leaders in the division and 26.7% at the high school level. A division in the Midwest revealed a surprising trend; the percent of women serving high schools were higher than the percent of women serving middle schools in the West North Central region (Iowa, Kansas, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, and South Dakota). All results of divisions can be seen in Table 2. When comparing the frequency of male to female leadership at the secondary level from Table 2, the West North Central region results suggest that women may have more barriers to achieving secondary school leadership in those states than men. However, when comparing women only, it appears that high school leadership may be a more promising path to secondary school leadership than middle school.

### **Conclusion 3: Secondary School Leadership Community Type by Region and Division**

This study also described and analyzed differences in the community types female secondary school administrative leaders served. The *NTPS* from the 2017-2018 school year reported that in the public school setting, principals serving schools during the 2017–18 school year reported that women leading schools were more likely to serve at schools in cities (60.7%), followed by suburban locations (54.4%), towns

(50.4%), and least of all in rural locations (46.9) when compared to their male peers. Additional studies have also identified the community types female educators most and least likely to serve as school administrative leaders. These studies indicate that women are more likely to serve in cities and suburban locations than rural locations (Marczynski & Gates, 2012; Mouton, 2011).

My study also analyzed the community types women secondary school leader serve to included cities, suburbs, towns, and rural locations by the Northeast, Midwest, Southern, and Western regions and divisions within those regions. In my study a chi-square test of independence was conducted to determine if individual characteristics of women who are secondary school administrative leaders by division in the K-12 public school setting significantly vary by community type. The results of this analysis revealed that there was a significant difference between the locations where female secondary school leaders served by divisions, therefore, opportunities to serve significantly vary by geographic location. Chi-square results can be seen in Table 17 and frequencies and percentages of regions and results of divisions can be seen in Table 5 and 6.

My study also revealed in the Northeast region, the most common community type that secondary school administrative leaders serve is in cities (38.6%) and suburbs (36.2%). Rural (17.0%) communities were less likely communities, and towns (8.2%) were the least likely communities served by women secondary school administrative leaders. When looking at the divisions within the Northeast, in New England female secondary school administrative leaders were more likely to serve in

the suburbs (36.1%), followed by cities (27.8%), then rural communities (23.6%) and least of all likely in towns (12.5%). The Middle Atlantic division revealed that female secondary school administrative leaders served mostly in cities (46.5%), followed by cities (36.4%) and rural communities (12.1%), and they are least likely to serve in towns (5.0%). My findings align with previous studies that indicate that women are more likely to serve schools that are located in more populated areas such as cities and suburban communities.

In the Western region, similarity to the Northeast region, my study revealed that the most common community type served by secondary school administrative leaders occurred in cities (38.9%). The next highest frequencies were found to be equal between the suburbs (24.3%) and rural communities (24.0%). Towns (12.8%) were the least likely communities served by women administrative leaders. When looking at the divisions within the West, in the Mountain division female secondary school administrative leaders were more likely to serve in cities (40.5%), followed by rural communities (26.1%), then suburbs (22.1%), and least of all likely in towns (11.5%). In the Pacific division data revealed that female secondary school administrative leaders served in cities (37.6%), followed by suburbs (26.1%) and rural communities (22.3%), and least likely to serve in towns (14.0%). My study found that secondary school administrative leaders led rural schools more frequently than previous studies would have predicted.

Similarly, to the Northeastern and the Western, in the Southern region, my study revealed that the most common community type that secondary school

administrative leaders serve is in cities (32.3%). Rural communities (30.6%) were also shown to be more likely to be served by female secondary school administrative leaders than suburb (24.9%) communities. Similar to Northeast and Western regions, towns (12.2%) were the least likely communities served by women administrative leaders in the Southern region. When looking at the three divisions within the Southern region, in the South Atlantic female secondary school administrative leaders were more likely to serve in cities (33.9%), followed by suburbs (29.7%), then rural communities (27.9%) and least of all likely in towns (8.5%). East South Central division revealed that female secondary school administrative leaders serve in cities (40.4%), followed by rural (26.9%) and suburb communities (22.1%), and least likely to serve in towns (11.5%). Finally, the West South Central division revealed frequencies were found to be equal between the city (31.4%) and rural communities (30.8%). In this division, women were less likely to serve suburbs (23.3%) and least of all in towns (14.5%). These findings in my study analyzing the South indicate that women may be serving as secondary school administrative leaders in rural schools at a higher rate than previous studies would suggest.

In my study, analysis in the Midwest region revealed a different picture about the community types served by female secondary school leaders emerged. The most common community type that secondary school administrative leaders serve is in rural communities (37.5%), followed by cities (26.7%) and suburbs (20.0%). Towns were found to be the least likely communities (15.8%) served by women administrative leaders. When looking at the divisions within the Midwest, in East North Central

female secondary school administrative leaders were more likely to serve in cities (32.2%), followed by rural locations (29.2%), then suburb (24.0%) communities and least of all likely, in towns (20%). West North Central division revealed that female secondary school administrative leaders serve in rural locations (48%), followed by cities (19%) and towns (18%), and least likely served in suburbs (14.6%).

This demographic data analyzing U.S. regions in my study suggests that not all community types provide equal leadership opportunities to women who aspire to be secondary school administrative leaders. Specifically, all four regions presented with more opportunities in cities, suburbs, and rural communities but fewer opportunities in towns. The Midwest appears to provide more opportunities in rural communities than the Northeast, West, and South, while both the Northeast and West provide greater opportunities for women who seek secondary leadership in cities. Additionally, a chi-square test of independence was conducted to determine if individual characteristics of women who are secondary school administrative leaders in the K-12 public school setting significantly vary by community type. The results of this analysis revealed that there was a significant difference between the locations where female secondary school leaders served by regions, therefore, opportunities to serve significantly vary by geographic location.

Demographic data exploring U.S. divisions in my study also suggests that not all community types provide equal leadership opportunities to women who aspire to be secondary school administrative leaders. Demographic analysis in my study suggests the best opportunities for female secondary school administrative leaders are

in the suburbs in New England (Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, and Vermont) and the Middle Atlantic division (New Jersey, New York, and Pennsylvania). Data in this study suggests that the Middle Atlantic division and the states within that division, provide opportunities for female secondary school leaders who live in cities. The frequency of female secondary school administrative leaders suggests that in the rural locations of the West North Central division (Iowa, Kansas, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, and South Dakota) women may be provided greater opportunities to gain leadership positions. Towns across divisions appear to provide limited opportunities for female seeking leadership roles in secondary school level administration. These limited opportunities are especially marked in the South Atlantic division (Delaware, District of Columbia, Florida, Georgia, Maryland, North Carolina, South Carolina, Virginia, and West Virginia). Additionally, the West North Central division (Iowa, Kansas, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, and South Dakota) demonstrated fewer opportunities to lead in cities and suburbs, and the Middle Atlantic division (New Jersey, New York, and Pennsylvania) revealed limited opportunities in rural communities.

#### **Conclusion 4: Female School Principals' Age Remains Consistent Regardless of Region and Division**

My study described and analyzed differences in the age of female secondary school administrative leaders by region and division. Previous research findings indicated that women in educational leadership roles experience a slower rate of ascension from classroom teachers to educational leaders in the K-12 public school



setting. Time spent in the classroom varies by men and women before achieving a leadership position (Glass, et al., 2000; McGee, 2010; Wyland, 2006). Once out of the classroom and in leadership roles, women educational leaders are, on average, older than male peers when attaining secondary administrative positions, central office jobs, and superintendent positions (Glass et. al, 2000; Wyland, 2006). Findings from my study found that the average regional age of secondary school administrative leaders was as follows: Northeast was 49.13 years Midwest was 47.84 years, South was 49.7 years, and West was 49.64 years and can be seen in Table 7. A one-way ANOVA, or analysis of variance, was conducted to examine the effect of secondary school principals by age and region. There was not a statistically significant effect by region on age ( $p > .05$ ), which can be seen in Table 19. When analyzing differences in the age of female secondary school administrative leaders by division, a one-way ANOVA also had no statistically significant effect by region on age ( $p > .05$ ), which also can be seen in Table 19. This finding indicates that the results of my study, similarly to previous studies, indicate factors such as gender roles in a family setting, impacts of child-rearing, domestic responsibilities, working conditions that are inflexible, long hours, and public policies may impact women who aspire to be secondary school leaders equally, regardless of geographic location (Bureau of Labor and Statics, 2019; Ely et al., 2014; Hewlett & Luce, 2005; Kellerman & Rhode, 2007; Stone & Lovejoy, 2004).

**Conclusion 5: Race and Ethnicity by Region**

My study examined demographic data regarding race and ethnicity of female secondary school leaders by region and division. The *NTPS* from the 2017-2018 school year reported that in the public school setting, principals serving schools during the 2017–18 school year were dominated by leaders 78 percent were non-Hispanic White leaders (78%), followed by non-Hispanic Black or African American leaders (11%), Hispanic leaders (9%), and lowest of all race and ethnic groups were leaders reported to identify as another race/ethnicity (3%). These results indicate that there is an overrepresentation of White school administrative leaders across the United States suggesting barriers to non-White individuals, both male and female, who aspire to be school administrative leaders in the public school setting. Additionally, studies suggest that women who aspire to and lead schools, may experience additional barriers associated with gender and race (Becenti, 2016; Brittingham-Stevens, 2016; Hobson-Horton, 2000; Shannon, 2015; Smith, 2017).

My study also revealed that race and ethnicity are factors in the representation of leaders examined in this study. The female secondary school administrative leaders were reported to be overwhelmingly White in all regions and divisions. These results can be seen in Table 8, 9, 10, and 11. These findings are consistent with the results the most recent report of the *Characteristics of Public and Private Elementary and Secondary School Teachers in the United States* from the 2017-2018 school year published by the National Center for Educational Statistics (NCES).

My study also examined if differences in race and ethnicity of female secondary school leaders varied by region and division. A chi-square test of independence comparing representation of race and ethnicity of female secondary school administrative leaders were statistically different by region. The results can be seen in Table 20 and 21.

Findings from my study reveal that in the Northeast, after White administrative leaders (79.4%), Black or African American administrative leaders (13.5%) were the most second most frequent race of the leaders identified in this study. Leaders reporting to be Asian, Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander, American Indian of Alaska Native, or Hispanic collectively represented less than 10% of the responses in this study. Similar to the Northeast region, my study revealed that in the Midwest White administrative leaders (87.5%) were much more likely to be represented, while Black or African American administrative leaders (6.3%) were the second most frequent race of leaders represented in this study. Leaders reporting to be Asian, Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander, American Indian of Alaska Native, or Hispanic collectively represented less than 10% of the responses in Midwest. My study also revealed that the West also demonstrated a high frequency of White administrative leaders (72.6%), while Hispanic administrative leaders (13.5%) were identified as the second most frequent race of leaders identified in this study. Leaders reporting to be Asian, Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander, American Indian of Alaska Native, or Hispanic collectively represented less than 10% of the responses in the West. And finally, the South demonstrated a slightly lower percent of White administrative leaders (69.6%)

and higher Black or African American administrative leaders (19%) when compared to the Northeast, Midwest, and West. The South also reported low numbers of Asian, Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander, American Indian or Alaska Native, or Hispanic collectively in this study.

A chi-square test of independence was calculated in this study compared representation of race and ethnicity of female secondary school administrative leaders was also statistically significant by division. The results of chi-square analysis can be seen on Table 21. Although all divisions were reported to be overwhelmingly White, there was variability by race or ethnicity within divisions. New England (Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, and Vermont) represented the highest percent of White secondary school administrative leaders (93.1% ), while the West South Central (Arkansas, Louisiana, Oklahoma, and Texas) represented the lowest percent of White secondary school administrative leaders (67.3 %). The Middle Atlantic (68.7%) (New Jersey, New York, and Pennsylvania) and Pacific (69.4%) (Alaska, California, Hawaii, Oregon, and Washington) represented White secondary school leaders in the 60% range. In all other divisions, the percent of White secondary school administrative leaders were represented in this study within the 80% to 70% range.

When examining the Black or African American secondary school administrative leaders in my study, the East South Central division (Alabama, Kentucky, Mississippi, and Tennessee) represented the highest percent of Black or African American secondary school administrative leaders in this study (28.9%), with

the South Atlantic division (Delaware, District of Columbia, Florida, Georgia, Maryland, North Carolina, South Carolina, Virginia, and West Virginia) also represented a higher percent (20.6%) of Black or African American secondary school leaders compared to the other divisions. Conversely, the Mountain division (Arizona, Colorado, Idaho, New Mexico, Montana, Utah, Nevada, and Wyoming) represented the lowest percent of Black or African American secondary school administrative leaders (3.1%) in those states. All other divisions, Black or African American secondary school leaders were represented below the 20%-4% range.

When examining leaders who identified as Hispanic, my study revealed the Mountain division (Arizona, Colorado, Idaho, New Mexico, Montana, Utah, Nevada, and Wyoming) represented the highest percent of secondary school administrative leaders (16.1%), while the West South Central (Arkansas, Louisiana, Oklahoma, and Texas), followed closely behind (13.2%). The East South Central division (Alabama, Kentucky, Mississippi, and Tennessee) had no representation from leaders identifying themselves as part of this ethnicity (0%). In all other divisions, Hispanic secondary school leaders were represented within the 11%-1% range.

Leaders who identified as Asian, Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander, American Indian of Alaska Native, or Hispanic collectively were underrepresented in this study across all regions. This indicates that non-White women who aspire to lead secondary schools may face a particular set of challenges, specifically experiencing barriers due to gender and race or ethnicity.

### **Conclusion 6: Years of Experience as School Administrative Leader and Classroom Teacher**

Previous research suggests that women who aspire to become secondary school administrative leaders may experience barriers entering into leadership roles when compared to their male peers. Results of the most recent report of the *Characteristics of Public and Private Elementary and Secondary School Teachers in the United States* from the 2017-2018 school year published by the National Center for Educational Statistics (NCES) reported an average of 6.8 years of experience as public as school administrative leaders. These findings are based on calculations combining male and female administrative school leaders. Demographic data reported in my study indicates that secondary school administrative leaders reported years as a principal to fall with the range of 5.33 to 6.90 years. Previous research indicates that women in educational leadership roles experience more time spent in the classroom when compared to their male peers achieving a leadership position (Glass, et al., 2000; Wyland, 2006). Although this time in the classroom prepares women to become instructional leaders in a school district, this experience does not increase the likelihood that they will attain superintendent positions (Glass et. al, 2000; Wyland, 2006). My study examined if years as an administrative leader and time in the classroom as classroom teachers varied by region and division. A one-way ANOVA was conducted to examine the effect of secondary school administrative leaders' years of experience as an administrative leader by region. The results of the one-way ANOVA can be seen in Table 22 and revealed there was not a statistically significant

effect by region and division on years of experience as a school administrative leader by regions ( $p > .05$ ). Additionally, a one-way ANOVA was conducted, and can be seen in Table 23, examined the effect of secondary school administrative leaders and years as a classroom teacher by region and division. There was not a statistically significant effect by region on years as a classroom teacher ( $p > .05$ ). This finding indicates that women who both aspire to lead secondary schools and spend time as teachers prior to becoming leaders are not influenced by geographic location.

### **Conclusion 7: Aspiring Administrator Program or Department Chair Experiences**

My study examined if female secondary school administrative leaders participated in a program for aspiring administrators or as department chair prior to administrative leadership and if those experiences varied by region and division. Previous research has identified that good mentorships can provide an aspiring leader with access to networks, contacts, and professional development opportunities (Foschi, 2000; Ridgeway, 1997). These studies identified that women who aspired to be secondary school principals benefit from connections with a superior in a leadership position and these professional networks increase employment opportunities and a strong professional support. Additionally, previous studies have identified that female educators are less likely than their male peers to have the same level of access to professional networking opportunities (Foschi, 2000; Gutch, 2001; Kruse & Krumm, 2016; Madsen, 2000; Ridgeway, 1997). Access to the “good old boys” club has been cited as a benefit to male educators who aspire to leadership

positions and has been identified as a factor that can guide career paths and provide professional networking opportunities, while women educators who aspire to leadership positions may experience fewer opportunities to network through a mentorship experience or have access to leadership development opportunities such as department chair experiences or the “good old boys” club (Eckman, 2004; Gutch, 2001; Madsen, 2000).

My study examined if female secondary school administrative leaders participated in programs for aspiring administrators. To analyze if the frequency of female secondary school leaders differed by region, a chi-square test of independence was conducted and revealed statistically significant results by region. These results can be seen in Table 24. The results of my study revealed that leaders in the Northeast region (64.9%) reported the highest percent and the Southern region (62.9%) reported the second highest percent of participation in an aspiring administrator program. Conversely, the Midwest region (54.2%) reported the lowest, and the West (56.9%) reported the third lowest percent of participation in an aspiring administrator program. Upon examination of the percent of participation in a program for aspiring administrator among divisions, female secondary school administrative leader in the South Atlantic (71.5%) (Delaware, District of Columbia, Florida, Georgia, Maryland, North Carolina, South Carolina, Virginia, and West Virginia) represented the highest percent of participation, followed by the East South Central division (68.9%) (Alabama, Kentucky, Mississippi, and Tennessee). All other divisions fell within the



50% range. The frequency and percent of participation in a program for aspiring administrator among regions and divisions can be seen in Table 13.

My study examined if the frequency of female secondary school administrative leaders who served as a department chair prior to becoming a school administrative leader. A chi-square test of independence was found that experiences as a department chair significantly differ by region. These findings can be seen in Table 25. My findings revealed that the Southern region reported (84.6%) the highest percent of leaders who served as department chair, followed by the Northeast (80.7%), and the West (76.4%). The Midwest (56.3%) reported the lowest percent of female secondary school administrative leaders who served as a department chair. Upon examination by division, my study revealed that among divisions, the South Atlantic (89.1%) (Delaware, District of Columbia, Florida, Georgia, Maryland, North Carolina, South Carolina, Virginia, and West Virginia); East South Central (84.4%)(Alabama, Kentucky, Mississippi, and Tennessee); and New England (83.3%) (Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, and Vermont) all fell within the 80% range reporting experiences as a department chair. The West North Central division (44.7%) (Iowa, Kansas, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, and South Dakota) represented the lowest percent of experience as a department chair.

The results of my study suggest that women who aspire to be secondary school administrative leadership in South Atlantic (Delaware, District of Columbia, Florida, Georgia, Maryland, North Carolina, South Carolina, Virginia, and West Virginia) may experience a higher level of access to mentorship experiences, or access to aspiring

administrative programs. The findings in my study also reveal that the South Atlantic divisions yielded higher rates of experiences as a department chair when compared to other divisions.

### **Conclusion 8: Highest Degree Earned by Region and Division**

In the public school setting, earning graduate level degrees are an important step to become a school or district leader. Previous research has indicated that women currently earn undergraduate and graduate degrees similar to their male peers, and despite high levels of academic achievement, women have not achieved leadership positions that yield high levels of power similarly to men (Belkin, 2003; Elfers et al., 2017; Nicholson, 1990). To address how educational achievement may impact leadership opportunities for secondary school leaders, my study examined if the degrees earned by female secondary school administrative leaders varied by region and division. A chi-square test of independence comparing frequency of the highest degree earned by female secondary school administrative leaders was calculated and found to be statistically significant by region and division. The results of chi-square calculations can be seen in Table 28 and Table 14 displays calculations of frequency and percent of earned degrees by region and division.

My study revealed that the Northeast (15.8%) and West (15.6%) regions had the highest percent of PhD or EdD, or doctoral level degrees. When comparing leaders' achievement toward a M.A. or M.S., or master's level degree, the West (64.9%) reported the highest percent of female secondary school administrative leaders earning this graduate level degree. Leaders in the South (59.1%) reported the

second most earned master's level degrees in this study. An additional measure of educational achievement, or an EdS, or educational specialist distinction was also calculated in this study. The analysis of this data indicated that female secondary school administrative leaders in the Northeast (36.8%) reported the highest percent of this educational distinction. Interestingly, leaders in the Midwest reported the lowest percent of educational achievement. These findings align with previous analysis examining the Midwest that revealed a concerning trend of women serving as high school principals at lower than 30% range, falling at 28%. The results of this finding suggest that educational attainment might be a significant barrier to women in the Midwest gaining access to secondary school leadership.

When taking a closer look at educational achievement by division, my study revealed that the Middle Atlantic division (19.2%) (New Jersey, New York, and Pennsylvania) reported the highest percent of PhD or EdD, or doctoral level degrees followed by East South Central (17.8%) (Alabama, Kentucky, Mississippi, and Tennessee), and the Pacific division (17.8%) (Alaska, California, Hawaii, Oregon, and Washington). When comparing leaders achievement toward a M.A. or M.S., or master's level degrees, my study revealed that the Mountain (67.9%) division, (Arizona, Colorado, Idaho, New Mexico, Montana, Utah, Nevada, and Wyoming), reported the highest earned master's degrees with the Pacific (62.4%) division (Alaska, California, Hawaii, Oregon, and Washington), as well as East North Central (62.0%) division (Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Ohio, and Wisconsin) following closely behind the Mountain division.

My study also revealed that the East South Central (37.8%) division (Alabama, Kentucky, Mississippi, and Tennessee) reported the lowest percent of master's level degrees earned by female secondary school administrative leaders of all the divisions. A measure of educational achievement, or an EdS, or educational specialist distinction was also calculated in this study. These findings indicate that female secondary school administrative leaders in the East South Central (44.4%) reported the highest percent of this educational distinction. This finding suggests that although the same division reported the lowest percent of earned master's degrees, the educational specialist distinction may be an important educational step for female secondary school leaders in the states of Alabama, Kentucky, Mississippi, and Tennessee. Interestingly, these findings align with this study's findings of the frequency and percentage of principal by school level, gender, region, and division. In the Midwest region, female secondary school leaders represented to the lowest frequency and percentage of secondary school principals when comparing the frequency and percentage of secondary school principals in the Northeast, South and Western regions. Additionally, my study also found that the East South Central division represented the lowest frequency and percentage of secondary school principals when comparing the frequency and percentage of secondary school principals in all regions analyzed in this study.

#### **Conclusion 9: Student Numbers by Region and Division**

My study analyzed school characteristics of the schools in which female secondary school administrative leaders worked by calculating the size of school population by region and division. The most recent report of the *Characteristics of*

*Public and Private Elementary and Secondary School Teachers in the United States*

from the 2017-2018 school year published by the National Center for Educational Statistics (NCES) reported that in the public schools smaller than 1,000 students had more female than male principals. These findings are consistent with research that has found that female administrative leaders are more likely to lead smaller schools (Skeete, 2017; Wells, 1993). To examine trends in the school size of female secondary school leaders, my study calculated the size of school population by region and division. Student population numbers were calculated after binning student data by sets of 500 students (i.e. under 500, 500 to 999, 1000 to 1499, 1500 to 1999, and 2000 and above). A chi-square test of independence comparing frequency of school size led by female secondary school administrative leaders was statistically significantly by region and division. Chi-square calculations can be seen in Table 30.

This study examined regional differences in the school size by calculating frequency and percent of student numbers and divisions. Those calculations can be seen in Table 15. My study found that among regions, the West (13.2%) reported the highest percent of leaders serving schools of 2000 or more students, Northeast (14.0%) reported the highest percent of leaders serving the schools of ranging in student population from 1,500 to 1,999, 1,000 to 1,499, and 500 to 999, and finally the Midwest (64.6%) led schools serving 500 or fewer secondary students.

Analysis of divisions by school size in this study revealed that within the Western region, the highest percent of leaders serving the largest schools of 2000 and above, where in the Mountain (13%) division (Arizona, Colorado, Idaho, New

Mexico, Montana, Utah, Nevada, and Wyoming); and the Pacific (13.4%) division (Alaska, California, Hawaii, Oregon, and Washington); the Pacific (9.6%) division also reported the highest percent of leadership serving the largest schools of ranging in student population from 1,500 to 1,999. The East South Central (15.6%) division (Alabama, Kentucky, Mississippi, and Tennessee) reported serving school with students in the 1,000 to 1,499 range; the New England (37.5%) division (Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, and Vermont) reported serving schools in the 500 to 999 range, and finally the West North Central (72.8%) division (Iowa, Kansas, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, and South Dakota) led schools in the below 500 range.

Although the results of this study reveal that secondary school administrative leaders may have fewer barriers to leadership in larger schools, this study revealed a trend in the school sizes led by female secondary school leaders. Specifically, as school size decreased, the percent of women serving as leaders in those locations increased. The majority of respondents in this study reported serving at schools with a student population below 500 students. Although a leader aspiring to achieve secondary school leadership experience could benefit from serving a range of school types, schools under 500 students are more similar in population sizes to that of many elementary schools in city and suburban areas.

#### **Conclusion 10: Schools who Receive Title 1 funds by Region and Division**

My study analyzed the frequency and percent of female secondary school leaders working at schools that received Title 1 funding by region and division.

Studies have identified that female school administrative leaders are more likely to serve schools with high percentages of free and reduced-cost lunch rates than their male peers (Hyndman, 2008; Skeete, 2017). Schools that receive Title 1 funds educate students who experience poverty at a higher rate than schools that serve students who do not have higher percentages of free and reduced-cost lunch and receive Title 1 funds. The most recent report of the *Characteristics of Public and Private Elementary and Secondary School Teachers in the United States* from the 2017-2018 school year published by the National Center for Educational Statistics (NCES) reported that in the public school settings, female principals represented a larger percent, when compared to their male peers, of those working at schools serving schools with 75% or higher percent of students receiving free or reduced-price lunches.

To determine if secondary school administrative leaders varied in the rate of service at schools with higher rates of poverty, my study employed a chi-square test of independence to compare frequency of school led by female secondary school administrative leaders who received Title 1 funds. The findings of my study revealed that the rates significantly differed by region and division. Chi-square results can be seen in Table 32. When examining regional data by frequency of schools receiving Title 1 funds, the Northeast region (82.7%) represented the highest percent of female secondary school leaders who serve schools that educate students from low-income families. South (71.6%) and the West (75.8%) regions reported serving secondary schools receiving Title 1 funding within the 70% range. The Midwest (65.3%) was reported to serve schools receiving Title 1 funds in the 60% range. These results can

be seen in Table 16 and suggest that female secondary school leaders in the Northeast may serve students experiencing poverty at greater rates than the Midwest, South, and Western regions. The results of my study suggest that female secondary school leaders may encounter particular challenges as leaders. Female leaders in the South and West are also likely to serve schools that educate students with high numbers or high percentages of children from low-income families from mid to high income families as well. The findings of my study suggest that women working at the secondary level in the Northeast, South, and West may experience a greater opportunity to lead schools with factors such as managing Title 1 staff and budgets, engaging in governmental systems that support students from low-income background, but also might manage staff with higher rates of burnout and with fewer years as teachers.

This study also examined female secondary school leaders serving schools that received Title 1 funding within each division. These findings revealed that in New England (85.5%) (Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, and Vermont) and the Middle Atlantic (80.6%) (New Jersey, New York, and Pennsylvania) reported the highest percent of service at schools receiving Title 1 funding. In this study, the East North Central (64.1%) division (Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Ohio, and Wisconsin), as well as East South Central (64.3%) (Alabama, Kentucky, Mississippi, and Tennessee) reported the lowest percent of service at schools receiving Title 1 funding. The findings in my study suggest that female secondary school leaders, especially in states in the Northeast, may be facing leadership challenges and opportunities associated with high numbers or high



percentages of children from low-income families from mid to high income families as well.

### **Implications for Practice and Research**

My study analyzed demographic trends of female secondary school administrative leaders by geographic regions and divisions in the U.S. to explore if they are experiencing barriers accessing all leadership opportunities solely based on location of service. This analysis revealed that community type, race and ethnicity, participation in a program for aspiring leaders, experience as department chair, highest degree earned, school size, and accessed Title 1 funds varied by geographic location. This study's findings indicate that women who aspire to become secondary leaders must consider their location of service because some locations provide fewer barriers than others. This study suggests that future researchers should examine the areas that demonstrated statistically significant differences and consider if policies are needed to reduce barriers by region, divisions, and states. This study suggests that future research is needed to explore how gender based biases may impact women in different geographic locations around the country. For example, this study completed a literature review that highlights gender based barriers to educational leadership such as gender bias in leadership opportunity that included, but was not limited to: mentorship experiences, access to leadership experiences, evaluations, gender roles in the home environment, impacts of child rearing, and domestic responsibilities. Future studies could focus on these same indicators of barriers on a smaller location solely at the regional, divisional, and state levels.

This study primarily focused on the trends and differences between female secondary school leaders; however, future researches might consider comparing female leaders to their male counterparts. This study did not find statistically significant differences between female secondary school leaders and age, years of experience as administrators, and years as a classroom teacher in spite of the literature clearly identifying that the ascension rate of women into leadership roles in public education is later and slower when compared to their males peers. Additionally, this study found that the location of service as a female secondary school leader varies on a number of variables by geographic locations regarding community type, race and ethnicity, participation in a program for aspiring leaders, experience as department chair, highest degree earned, school size, and accessed Title 1 funds. These differences indicate that some women experience barriers to a greater, or lesser degree, depending on their geographic locations. Exploring if those barriers are more pronounced by gender may lend itself to change in regional, divisional, and state policies intended in creating more opportunities for women to lead secondary schools. Additionally, future research that seeks to reduce barriers and improve opportunities for women in their geographic locations may help guide areas of the country that seek to create more equitable opportunities outcomes for women who aspire to access all leadership roles.

### **Implications for Practice and Research by Region and Divisions**

The results of this analysis revealed that location of service as a female secondary school leader varies on a number of variables by geographic locations.

Implications for practice and research will be addressed in this section by regions and the divisions within those regions.

**Northeastern Region.**

The findings in this study indicate that women who serve as secondary school administrative leaders in the Northeastern region have access to more opportunities in cities and suburbs. In fact, the best opportunities for female secondary school administrative leaders were found to be in the suburbs in the New England division (Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, and Vermont); and the Middle Atlantic division (New Jersey, New York, and Pennsylvania). Future research might seek to explore what policies, mentorship and leadership opportunities may be in place that seemingly increase these leaders' successful ascension into secondary school leadership.

The Northeast region also reported the highest percent of PhD or EdD, or doctoral level degrees. New Jersey, New York, and Pennsylvania reported the highest percent of PhD or EdD, or doctoral level degrees when comparing divisions. For women who aspire to become superintendents, educational attainment is essential. Therefore, female secondary school leaders in the Northeast may be accessing the needed education to provide them opportunities for these more powerful positions within their school district. Future research might seek to explore if educational attainment leads to representation in the superintendency in the states of New Jersey, New York, and Pennsylvania. Additionally, future research might seek to explore how

colleges and universities are addressing gender based representation and training women who aspire to be secondary school leaders and superintendents.

When examining data regarding Title 1 funding, female secondary school leaders within the New England division (Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, and Vermont) and the Middle Atlantic division (New Jersey, New York, and Pennsylvania) reported the highest percent of service at schools with higher rates of poverty. These results suggest that women who serve in the Northeast may have access to the development of important skills needed for leadership at the district level. However, these results also suggest that women in the Northeast may also lead schools with particular challenges that can contribute to burnout and leading a less experienced teaching staff. Further research might seek to explore the impacts of serving at Title 1 schools in the Northeast for female secondary school leaders.

### **Midwestern Region.**

The findings of this study indicate that women who serve as secondary school administrative leaders in the Midwestern region may have access to more opportunities in rural areas than cities and suburbs. These findings were particularly noted in the West North Central division (Iowa, Kansas, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, and South Dakota). These findings are particularly interesting considering that male school administrative leaders are much more likely to lead in less populated areas in the United States than their female peers. The results indicate that researchers may consider conducting studies to better understand the

factors that increase opportunities for women who aspire to become secondary school leaders in rural areas.

In spite of the promising findings that female secondary administrative leaders were highly represented in rural areas, interestingly, leaders in the Midwest, or more specifically the states of Iowa, Kansas, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, and South Dakota, reported the lowest percent of women serving as high school principals at 19%. This represents the lowest educational achievement in graduate level degrees. The results of this analysis suggest these states have more gender based barriers than in other states for women who aspire to become high school principals. Through these findings a concerning trend of barriers to women who aspire to be secondary school leaders or plan to ascend to greater leadership opportunities, such as the superintendency, were found in the Midwest region and the states of Iowa, Kansas, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, and South Dakota; a trend of barriers high than those in the Northeast, South, and Western regions and states. It is this researcher's view that the Midwest region, and states of Iowa, Kansas, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, and South Dakota could become an important focus for researchers who study barriers to female educational leadership. Future research might focus on how the Midwest can improve access to leadership opportunities to women who aspire to lead schools. This research might focus on, but not be limited to, culturally based gender discrimination toward female leaders, gender roles and responsibilities, access to mentorship opportunities, and leadership experiences that might improve the representation of women in secondary schools.

**Southern Region.**

The results of this study suggest that women who aspire to be secondary school administrators in the South Atlantic division (Delaware, District of Columbia, Florida, Georgia, Maryland, North Carolina, South Carolina, Virginia, and West Virginia) experience a higher level of access to mentorship experiences, or access to aspiring administrative programs. Likewise, experiences as being department chair were also revealed to be a higher percent in the South Atlantic. It cannot be overstated how important mentorship opportunities and leadership experience prior to becoming a school administrative leader matter to someone aspiring to become secondary school leaders. Women are often overlooked due to gender bias in evaluation and the habits of promoting individuals who already hold an in-group advantage. Future researchers might focus on policies and practices used in these states to support aspiring leaders, particularly which policies and practices account for bias and barriers to women.

Results of this study revealed that the Southern region stood out regarding representation of Black or African American secondary school administrative leaders. When examining this data by region the states of Alabama, Kentucky, Mississippi, and Tennessee represented the highest percent of Black or African American secondary school administrative leaders in this study, followed by the states of Delaware, District of Columbia, Florida, Georgia, Maryland, North Carolina, South Carolina, Virginia, and West Virginia. The states of Arkansas, Louisiana, Oklahoma, and Texas also revealed a higher percentage of Black or African American secondary school administrative leaders when compared to other regions in the U.S. Although many of

the southern states demonstrated a higher representation of Black or African American leaders in this study, the states of Alabama, Kentucky, Mississippi, and Tennessee reported the lowest of all divisions regarding representation from leaders identifying themselves as neither White or Black, or African American leaders. This suggests that future research might explore how these states have made strides in developing and promoting Black or African American female secondary school leaders, yet maybe falling short of creating equitable opportunities for other non-White aspiring administrators.

Although this study mostly focused on the characteristics of female secondary school leaders, findings regarding the percent of leaders at the elementary school level revealed promising trends in the southern region. Specifically, division 5 and 6, or the states of Delaware, District of Columbia, Florida, Georgia, Maryland, North Carolina, South Carolina, Virginia, West Virginia, Arkansas, Louisiana, Oklahoma, and Texas are making tremendous strides in the representation of female leadership at the elementary instructional level. This indicates that these states may be reducing barriers, providing mentorship opportunities, and leadership experiences for women who aspire to become elementary school administrative leaders. These findings are important because, although secondary school leadership provides an important pathway to all leadership opportunities within a school district, elementary school leadership can also provide aspiring leaders with important skills to offer any school district and may open the door to district office leadership experiences. Future

research may consider exploring how these states have open doors for women who are elementary school administrative leaders.

### **Western Region.**

The results of this study revealed that the Western region reported the highest percent of females serving in leadership positions in schools of 2,000 and more students. This trend was specifically noted to be present in the states of Arizona, Colorado, Idaho, New Mexico, Montana, Utah, Nevada, and Wyoming. Additionally, the states of Alaska, California, Hawaii, Oregon, and Washington reported the highest percent of female secondary school leadership serving the second largest schools, ranging in student population from 1,500 to 1,999. These findings are promising because the same skills required to manage large schools are required to manage school districts. This is not to suggest that leaders who lead smaller schools cannot acquire the skills needed to become superintendents, or lead school districts, but rather experiences managing larger schools may be seen as an asset to hiring boards and the community at large.

The results of this study also revealed that the Western regions reported high percent of women who reported to have earned a PhD or EdD, or doctoral level degrees, and M.A. or M.S., or master's level degrees. Achieving graduate level degrees in the public school setting are an important component to accessing leadership positions. These findings might be key to understanding why the Western region's female secondary school leaders represented a high percent of women holding graduate level degrees. These findings suggest that female secondary school



leaders may be gathering important experiences and the education needed to also have access to the superintendency. Future research might examine if the representation of female superintendents in the Western region and divisions vary when compared to the Northeastern, Midwest, and Southern regions and divisions.

Similarly, to all the other regions and divisions, White female secondary school administrative leaders represented the highest percent of leaders in this study. However, when examining the race and ethnicity of these leaders, the highest percent of Hispanic female secondary school leaders were represented in the states of Arizona, Colorado, Idaho, New Mexico, Montana, Utah, Nevada, and Wyoming. These findings present other opportunities for future researchers. Specifically, future research may consider exploring how these states have opened doors for women who identify themselves as Hispanic.

### **Limitations**

This study presented with a number of limitations. Although this study provides a novel approach to examining the characteristics and differences of female school administrative leaders in the U.S., access to this data set proved challenging. In order to gain access to this data set through the NCES the researcher applied and was approved for a Restricted-use Data License. This process required a high level of participation in the application process, which prevents a graduate level researcher from gaining approval individually. In this study, the Dissertation Chair, Associate Dean of the School of Education, Dean of the School of Education, and other university staff were required members in the application process before achieving

accessing this data set. Additionally, to maintain confidentiality of the identities of the respondents in this study, the NCES required the researcher to use a desktop computer in a secure location not accessed by the internet prior to receiving access to the data set. Without a high degree of support from a university system, researchers may find analyzing this data for future studies daunting.

An additional limitation of this study is the fact that the NCES selected the respondents for this study. Although the data set for this study contained a plethora of usable data to analyze, researchers who wish to pursue a similar line of study using the data set available through NCES do not have control of who is selected to complete the *NTPS*. Therefore, there is little known about school administrative leaders who did not respond or were not selected for this survey. All findings of this study are dependent on the responses of school administrative leaders who may have had the time or desire to complete a national survey. It is possible that the results of this study would have yielded different results with data from non-responders or leaders who were not selected for this survey.

Finally, this study primarily analyzed data from female secondary school leaders. Without comparing the characteristics by gender, specifically comparing responses of male to female school administrative leaders, this research does not allow for findings to demonstrate if the characteristics of male leaders are significant across a multitude of characteristics of secondary school leadership. There may be a wealth of unlocked findings for future researchers who seek to analyze differences in

demographic data and the characteristics of school administrative leaders by region, divisions, and gender.

### **Concluding Remarks**

This study provides a novel approach to exploring the characteristics of a historically underrepresented group of leaders, or female secondary school administrative leaders, by regions and divisions in the U.S. to describe where progress is happening and where more work needs to be done to ensure equitable opportunities for women who seek to serve public schools. The results of this study found that women secondary school administrative leaders experience fewer or great barriers and opportunities to leadership based on the geographic locations in which they serve. Although women have made significant strides in increasing their presence as school leaders, until women represent at least 50% of public school leadership positions, including elementary, middle, high, district office, and the superintendency, then educational researchers, school district leaders, school boards, state and federal leaders should continue to reduce barriers to women who aspire to lead schools and school districts to ensure that the institution of public education is working toward gender equity.

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**Appendix A**

Conducted by:  
U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION  
NATIONAL CENTER FOR EDUCATION STATISTICS

OMB No. 1850-0598 Approval Expires 06/30/2020

Collected by:  
U.S. DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE  
Economics and Statistics Administration  
U.S. CENSUS BUREAU

# PRINCIPAL QUESTIONNAIRE

## NATIONAL TEACHER AND PRINCIPAL SURVEY

### 2017-18 SCHOOL YEAR



*(Please correct any errors in name, address, and ZIP Code.)*

#### **THIS SURVEY HAS BEEN ENDORSED BY:**

American Association of School Administrators  
 American Association of School Librarians  
 American Federation of Teachers  
 American Montessori Society  
 American School Counselors Association  
 Association for Middle Level Education (formerly National Middle School Association)  
 Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development  
 Association of American Educators  
 Council of Chief State School Officers  
 Council of the Great City Schools  
 National Association of Elementary School Principals  
 National Association of Secondary School Principals  
 National Parent Teacher Association

**Please return your completed questionnaire in the pre-addressed, postage-paid envelope or mail it to:**

**U.S. CENSUS BUREAU  
 ATTN: DCB/PCSPU, BUILDING 60A  
 1201 E. 10TH STREET  
 JEFFERSONVILLE, IN 47132-0001**

**NOTICE:**

**The National Center for Education Statistics (NCES), within the U.S. Department of Education, is authorized to conduct this survey by the Education Sciences Reform Act of 2002 (ESRA 2002, 20 U.S.C. §9543).**



- **What is the average student-teacher ratio in the United States?**
- **What is the average salary of a beginning principal?**
- **Have teachers' views of their autonomy in the classroom changed over time?**
- **Have the characteristics of the principal and teacher workforces in the United States changed over time?**

The answers to these questions help school districts and policy makers at the state, federal, and local levels set education policy and improve teacher and principal working conditions.

Since 1988, the National Teacher and Principal Survey and its precursor, the Schools and Staffing Survey, have provided the answers to these and other important education questions from the perspective of Principals and Teachers.

By selecting a statistically representative sample of schools, and teachers in those schools, we are able to provide representative data for the United States without going to every school.

Your school has been selected to participate in the 2017-18 National Teacher and Principal Survey. You will represent thousands of other principals, so it is important that you respond to this survey.

All of the information you provide may be used only for statistical purposes and may not be disclosed, or used, in identifiable form for any other purpose except as required by law (20 U.S.C. §9573 and 6 U.S.C. §151).

More information can be found on our website: <http://nces.ed.gov/surveys/ntps>




#### Paperwork Burden Statement

According to the Paperwork Reduction Act of 1995, no persons are required to respond to a collection of information unless it displays a valid OMB control number. The valid OMB control number for this voluntary information collection is 1850-0598. The time required to complete this information collection is estimated to average 25 minutes per response, including the time to review instructions, search existing data resources, gather the data needed, and complete and review the information collection. If you have any comments concerning the accuracy of the time estimate, suggestions for improving this collection, or comments or concerns about the contents or the status of your individual submission of this questionnaire, please e-mail: [ntps@census.gov](mailto:ntps@census.gov), or write directly to: National Teacher and Principal Survey (NTPS), National Center for Education Statistics, Potomac Center Plaza, 550 12th Street, SW, Room 4014, Washington, DC 20202.



## INSTRUCTIONS

The data you enter on this form will be captured through the use of imaging technology. Please print all information clearly in ordinary characters, using a **blue or black ballpoint pen**.

<b>CORRECT</b> marking example – <i>(Use care to keep characters in their designated spaces.)</i>	<b>INCORRECT</b> marking example –
	
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> No
	OR 
	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No

- a. It is important that this questionnaire be completed by the school PRINCIPAL, not by anyone else.
- b. Please do not write any comments by the answer boxes.
- c. If you are unsure about how to answer a question, please give the best answer you can rather than leaving it blank.
- d. If you have any questions, call the U.S. Census Bureau at 1-888-595-1338. Someone will be available to take your call Monday through Friday, between 8:00 a.m. and 8:00 p.m. (Eastern Time). The U.S. Census Bureau is also available to answer your questions via e-mail at: [ntps@census.gov](mailto:ntps@census.gov).



## 1. PRINCIPAL EXPERIENCE AND TRAINING

**1-1. BEFORE you became a principal, how many years of elementary, middle, or secondary teaching experience did you have?**

🍏 *Count part of a year as 1 year.*

🍏 *If none, please mark (X) the box.*

0100 0  None or  Year(s) of teaching before becoming a principal

**1-2. BEFORE you became a principal, did you hold the position of an assistant principal or program director?**

🍏 *Include temporary positions.*

0101 1  Yes

2  No

**1-3. BEFORE you became a principal, did you have any management experience outside of the field of education?**

0102 1  Yes

2  No

**1-4. BEFORE you became a principal, did you participate in any district or school training or development program for ASPIRING school principals?**

0103 1  Yes

2  No

**1-5. PRIOR to this school year, how many years did you serve as the principal of THIS OR ANY OTHER school?**

🍏 *Do NOT include any years you served as ASSISTANT principal.*

🍏 *Count part of a year as 1 year.*

🍏 *If none, please mark (X) the box.*

0104 0  None or  Year(s) as principal of this or any other school

**1-6. PRIOR to this school year, how many years did you serve as the principal of THIS school?**

🍏 *Do NOT include any years you served as ASSISTANT principal.*

🍏 *Count part of a year as 1 year.*

🍏 *If none, please mark (X) the box.*

0105 0  None or  Year(s) as principal of this school





**1-7. What is the highest degree you have earned?**

🍏 *Mark (X) only one box.*

- 0106
- 1  Associate's degree
- 2  Bachelor's degree (B.A., B.S., etc.)
- 3  Master's degree (M.A., M.A.T., M.B.A., M.Ed., M.S., etc.)
- 4  Educational specialist or professional diploma (at least one year beyond master's level)
- 5  Doctorate or first professional degree (Ph.D., Ed.D., M.D., L.L.B., J.D., D.D.S.)
- 6  Do not have a degree → [GO TO item 1-9 below.](#)

**1-8. Which of the following best describes the highest degree you have earned?**

🍏 *Mark (X) only one box.*

- 0107
- 1  It was awarded by your school's college of Education, school of Education, or department of Education
- 2  It was awarded by another college, school, or department, not in Education

**1-9. Do you currently hold a license or certification in "school administration"?**

- 0108
- 1  Yes
- 2  No

**1-10. WHILE serving as a principal, have you also regularly taught one or more classes at the elementary, middle, or secondary level?**

🍏 *Do not include time spent as a short-term substitute teacher.*

- 0109
- 1  Yes
- 2  No → [GO TO Section 2 on page 6.](#)

**1-11. While serving as a principal, how many YEARS did you regularly teach at the elementary, middle, or secondary level?**

🍏 *Count part of a year as 1 year.*

🍏 *Include the 2017-18 school year in this count, if applicable.*

🍏 *If none, please mark (X) the box.*

- 0110
- 0  None → [GO TO Section 2 on page 6.](#)

YEAR(S) of teaching since becoming a principal

**1-12. In addition to serving as principal, are you CURRENTLY teaching in THIS school?**

🍏 *Do not include time spent as a short-term substitute teacher.*

- 0111
- 1  Yes
- 2  No



## 2. GOALS AND DECISION MAKING

**2-1. We are interested in the importance you place on various educational goals. From the following ten goals, which do you consider the most important, the second most important, and the third most important?**

- 1 - Building basic literacy skills (reading, math, writing, speaking)
- 2 - Encouraging academic excellence
- 3 - Preparing students for postsecondary education
- 4 - Promoting occupational or vocational skills
- 5 - Promoting good work habits and self-discipline
- 6 - Promoting personal growth (self-esteem, self-knowledge, etc.)
- 7 - Promoting human relations skills
- 8 - Promoting specific moral values
- 9 - Promoting multicultural awareness or understanding
- 10 - Fostering religious or spiritual development

0200   Most important

0201   Second most important

0202   Third most important

**2-2. How much ACTUAL influence do you think you have as a principal on decisions concerning the following activities?**

		<i>Mark (X) one box on each line.</i>				
		No influence	Minor influence	Moderate influence	Major influence	Not applicable
a.	<b>Setting performance standards for students of this school</b>	0203 1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
b.	<b>Establishing curriculum at this school</b>	0204 1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
c.	<b>Determining the content of in-service professional development programs for teachers of this school</b>	0205 1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
d.	<b>Evaluating teachers of this school</b>	0206 1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
e.	<b>Hiring new full-time teachers of this school</b>	0207 1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
f.	<b>Setting discipline policy at this school</b>	0208 1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
g.	<b>Deciding how your school budget will be spent</b>	0209 1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>



### 3. SCHOOL CLIMATE AND SAFETY

3-1. To the best of your knowledge, how often do the following types of problems occur at this school?

		🍏 Mark (X) one box on each line.				
		Happens daily	Happens at least once a week	Happens at least once a month	Happens on occasion	Never happens
a. Physical conflicts among students	0300	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
b. Robbery or theft	0301	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
c. Vandalism	0302	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
d. Student use of alcohol	0303	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
e. Student use of illegal drugs	0304	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
f. Student possession of weapons	0305	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
g. Physical abuse of teachers	0306	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
h. Student racial tensions	0307	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
i. Student bullying	0308	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
j. Student verbal abuse of teachers	0309	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
k. Widespread disorder in classrooms	0310	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
l. Student acts of disrespect toward teachers	0311	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
m. Gang activities	0312	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>



**3-2. LAST school year (2016-17), what percentage of students had at least one parent or guardian participating in the following events?**

	Mark (X) one box on each line.				
	0-25%	26-50%	51-75%	76-100%	Not applicable
a. Open house or back-to-school night <sup>0313</sup>	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
b. All regularly scheduled schoolwide <sup>0314</sup> parent-teacher conferences	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
c. Special subject-area events (e.g., <sup>0315</sup> science fair, concerts)	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
d. Parent education workshops or <sup>0316</sup> courses	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
e. Signing of a school-parent compact <i>(A school-parent compact is an agreement between school community members [e.g., parents, principals, teachers, <sup>0317</sup> and students] that acknowledges the shared responsibility for student learning and/or the school's policies.)</i>	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
f. Volunteer in the school as needed <sup>0318</sup> or on a regular basis	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
g. Involvement in school instructional <sup>0319</sup> issues (e.g., planning classroom learning activities, providing feedback on curriculum)	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
h. Involvement in governance (e.g., PTA <sup>0320</sup> or PTO meetings, school board, parent booster clubs)	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
i. Involvement in budget decisions <sup>0321</sup>	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>

**3-3. Are teachers at this school REQUIRED to do the following?**

- a. Help students with academic needs OUTSIDE of regular school hours
- <sup>0322</sup> 1  Yes
- 2  No
- 
- b. Help students with social and emotional needs OUTSIDE of regular school hours
- <sup>0323</sup> 1  Yes
- 2  No

**3-4. Are BEGINNING teachers at this school enrolled in a formal schoolwide or districtwide program aimed to enhance teachers' effectiveness by providing systematic support (sometimes called a teacher induction program)?**

- (A beginning teacher refers to a teacher who is in the first or second year of teaching.)*
- <sup>0324</sup> 1  Yes
- 2  No



## 4. TEACHER EVALUATION

4-1. During the LAST school year (2016-17), which of the following sources of information on teacher performance did THIS school use in teacher evaluations?

a. Classroom observations using a teacher professional practice rubric, conducted by the principal or other school administrator

2400 1  Yes

2  No

b. Assessments by the principal or other school administrator that are NOT based on a teacher professional practice rubric

2401 1  Yes

2  No

c. Videotaped classroom observation

2402 1  Yes

2  No

d. Assessments by a peer or mentor teacher that are NOT based on a teacher professional practice rubric

2403 1  Yes

2  No

e. Teacher self-assessment

2404 1  Yes

2  No

f. Amount or content of professional development completed by the teacher

2405 1  Yes

2  No

g. Artifacts of teacher professional practice or portfolios

2406 1  Yes

2  No

h. Student surveys or other student feedback

2407 1  Yes

2  No



**4-1.** *Continued* – During the LAST school year (2016-17), which of the following sources of information on teacher performance did THIS school use in teacher evaluations?

**i. Parent surveys or other parent feedback**

2408 1  Yes

2  No

**j. Teacher professional credentials including experience, education, and certification**

2409 1  Yes

2  No

**4-2. a.** For a **TENURED** or **EXPERIENCED** teacher, on average, how many **FORMAL** observations were conducted during the **LAST** school year (2016-17) to evaluate performance?

*(A formal observation is one that is required by the school, district, or state in order to collect information for a performance evaluation.)*

🍏 *If none, please mark (X) the box.*

2410 0  None or  Number of observations

↳ [GO TO item 4-2c below.](#)

**b.** For a **TENURED** or **EXPERIENCED** teacher, on average, how long is the typical **FORMAL** observation?

2411  Average number of minutes

**c.** For a **TENURED** or **EXPERIENCED** teacher, on average, how many **INFORMAL** observations were conducted during the **LAST** school year (2016-17)?

🍏 *If none, please mark (X) the box.*

2412 0  None or  Number of observations

↳ [GO TO item 4-2e on page 11.](#)

**d.** For a **TENURED** or **EXPERIENCED** teacher, on average, how long is the typical **INFORMAL** observation?

2413  Average number of minutes



4-2. *Continued* –

- e. On average, how often do **TENURED** or **EXPERIENCED** teachers receive a summative evaluation?

(A *summative evaluation* is a *SUMMATIVE* judgment about performance that is used for some administrative purposes and becomes a part of the record of a teacher's performance.)

🍏 Mark (X) only one box.

- 2414
- 1  Two or more times a year
- 2  Once a year
- 3  Once every 2 years
- 4  Once every 3 or more years
- 5  No evaluations are conducted

- 4-3. a. For a **NON-TENURED** or **INEXPERIENCED** teacher, on average, how many **FORMAL** observations were conducted during the **LAST** school year (2016-17) to evaluate performance?

(A *formal observation* is one that is required by the school, district, or state in order to collect information for a performance evaluation.)

🍏 If none, please mark (X) the box.

- 2415
- 0  None or  Number of observations

GO TO item 4-3c below.

- b. For a **NON-TENURED** or **INEXPERIENCED** teacher, on average, how long is the typical **FORMAL** observation?

- 2416
- Average number of minutes

- c. For a **NON-TENURED** or **INEXPERIENCED** teacher, on average, how many **INFORMAL** observations were conducted during the **LAST** school year (2016-17)?

🍏 If none, please mark (X) the box.

- 2417
- 0  None or  Number of observations

GO TO item 4-3e on page 12.

- d. For a **NON-TENURED** or **INEXPERIENCED** teacher, on average, how long is the typical **INFORMAL** observation?

- 2418
- Average number of minutes



**4-3. Continued –****e. On average, how often do NON-TENURED or INEXPERIENCED teachers receive a summative evaluation?**

*(A summative evaluation is a SUMMATIVE judgment about performance that is used for some administrative purposes and becomes a part of the record of a teacher's performance.)*

🍏 *Mark (X) only one box.*

- 2419
- 1  Two or more times a year
- 2  Once a year
- 3  Once every 2 years
- 4  Once every 3 or more years
- 5  No evaluations are conducted

**4-4. During THIS school year (2017-18), is student achievement growth on standardized assessments or student learning objectives used in the performance evaluation of teachers in this school, whether it be within a classroom, gradewide, teamwide, schoolwide, or districtwide?**

*(Student achievement growth is the change in individual student achievement between two or more points in time.)*

*(Standardized assessments are assessments consistently administered and scored districtwide or statewide for all students in the same grades and subjects.)*

*(Student learning objectives (SLOs) are measurable learning goals or objectives established for students, which can be used to measure student growth over a set period of time.)*

🍏 *Mark (X) only one box.*

**Student achievement growth on standardized assessments or student learning objectives is used in the evaluation of:**

- 2420
- 1  ALL teachers in this school, including all grades, all subjects, special education, and special populations
- 2  MOST teachers in this school
- 3  SOME teachers in this school
- 4  NO teachers in this school → [GO TO item 4-6 on page 13.](#)

**4-5. The teachers in this school are evaluated on the achievement growth of:**

🍏 *Mark (X) all that apply.*

- 2421 1  Students they teach DIRECTLY
- 2422 1  Students GRADEWIDE
- 2423 1  Students TEAMWIDE
- 2424 1  Students SCHOOLWIDE
- 2425 1  Students DISTRICTWIDE





**4-6. During THIS school year (2017-18), to what extent will teachers' performance evaluation results be used to inform the following decisions about teacher professional development?**

 Mark (X) one box on each line.

Not at all      Somewhat      A lot

	1	2	3
a. Plan professional development for individual teachers 2426	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
b. Identify low-performing teachers for coaching, mentoring, or peer assistance 2427	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
c. Develop performance improvement plans for low-performing teachers 2428	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
d. Set goals with teachers for student achievement growth for the next school year 2429	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

**4-7. During THIS school year (2017-18), will teacher performance evaluation results be used to inform any of the following decisions about teachers in THIS school?**

**a. Formally recognizing high-performing teachers**

2430      1  Yes  
              2  No

**b. Determining annual salary increases**

2431      1  Yes  
              2  No

**c. Determining bonuses or performance-based compensation other than salary increases**

2432      1  Yes  
              2  No

**d. Determining teaching assignments**

2433      1  Yes  
              2  No

**e. Offering career advancement opportunities, such as teacher leadership roles**

2434      1  Yes  
              2  No

**f. Granting job protection or tenure**

2435      1  Yes  
              2  No



**4-8. During THIS school year (2017-18), will teacher performance evaluation results be used to inform any of the following decisions about LOW-PERFORMING teachers in THIS school?**

**a. Losing job protection or tenure**

2436 1  Yes

2  No

---

**b. Prioritizing teachers for layoffs**

2437 1  Yes

2  No

---

**c. Determining teacher reassignment**

2438 1  Yes

2  No

---

**d. Counseling a teacher out of the school, district, or profession due to poor performance**

2439 1  Yes

2  No

---

**e. Not renewing teacher contract or terminating employment for cause**

2440 1  Yes

2  No



## 5. TEACHER PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

5-1. To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements about professional development for TEACHERS in this school?

🍏 Mark (X) one box on each line.					
		Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree
a.	An appropriate amount of time is provided for professional development <span style="float: right;">2500</span>	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>
b.	Sufficient resources are available for professional development in this school <span style="float: right;">2501</span>	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>
c.	Professional development offerings are based on best practices <span style="float: right;">2502</span>	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>
d.	Professional development opportunities are aligned with the school's improvement plan <span style="float: right;">2503</span>	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>
e.	Professional development is directly applicable to the content or curriculum being taught <span style="float: right;">2504</span>	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>
f.	Professional development provides ongoing opportunities for teachers to refine instructional strategies <span style="float: right;">2505</span>	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>
g.	Professional development enhances teachers' abilities to improve student learning <span style="float: right;">2506</span>	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>

5-2. In the past 12 months, professional development was available to TEACHERS at THIS school:

🍏 Mark (X) all that apply.

- 2507    1  Before or after school days
- 2508    1  During in-service days (teacher planning or work days) when students are NOT in school
- 2509    1  During regular school days when students are in school
- 2510    1  During summer and other extended school breaks



**5-3. a. How often is teachers' input taken into consideration when planning professional development at THIS school?**

🍏 *Mark (X) only one box.*

2511

1  Never2  Sometimes3  Always**b. How often is professional development for teachers at THIS school led by teachers in this SCHOOL or DISTRICT?**

🍏 *Mark (X) only one box.*

2512

1  Never2  Sometimes3  Always**c. How often is professional development for teachers at THIS school evaluated for evidence of improvement in SCHOOLWIDE or DISTRICTWIDE achievement?**

🍏 *Mark (X) only one box.*

2513

1  Never2  Sometimes3  Always

## 6. PRINCIPAL EVALUATIONS

**6-1a.** During the LAST school year (2016-17), were you evaluated as a principal at THIS school?

2600 1  Yes

2  No →

**b.** During the LAST school year (2016-17), why were you not evaluated at THIS school?

🍏 *Mark (X) only one box.*

2601 1  I was not a principal at this school last year.

2  This district does not conduct principal evaluations.

3  This district does not conduct principal evaluations on a yearly basis.

4  I was not evaluated because I am a tenured or experienced principal.

5  I was not evaluated for another reason.

GO TO item 6-4 on page 18.

**6-2.** To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements about THIS school's evaluation process LAST school year (2016-17)?

🍏 *Mark (X) one box on each line.*

	Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree
a. The evaluator(s) accurately evaluated my strengths and weaknesses as a principal. 2602	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>
b. My evaluator(s) was fair and unbiased. 2603	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>
c. Overall, the evaluation process was fair. 2604	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>
d. I had a strong understanding of how I would be evaluated at this school. 2605	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>
e. I had a clearer idea of what was expected of me because of the evaluation process. 2606	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>
f. The evaluation rubric accurately represents the scope of my responsibilities as a principal. 2607	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>



**6-3. a. Thinking about your evaluation LAST school year (2016-17), did you receive any feedback on your work as a principal?**

2608

- 1  Yes
- 2  No → GO TO item 6-4 below.

**b. Thinking about your evaluation LAST school year (2016-17), have you used the feedback you received to try to improve YOUR performance?**

2609

- 1  Yes
- 2  No

**c. Thinking about your evaluation LAST school year (2016-17), did you receive feedback on the processes or procedures you used to achieve THIS SCHOOL'S performance goals?**

2610

- 1  Yes
- 2  No

**6-4. During THIS school year (2017-18), is student achievement growth on standardized assessments used in your performance evaluation?**

*(Student achievement growth is the change in individual student achievement between two or more points in time.)*

*(Standardized assessments are assessments consistently administered and scored districtwide or statewide for all students in the same grades and subjects.)*

2611

- 1  Yes
- 2  No



## 7. PRINCIPAL PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

**7-1. During the LAST school year (2016-17), did you participate in any professional development activities as a principal at THIS school?**

2700

1  Yes

2  No → GO TO Section 8 on page 22.

**7-2. During the LAST school year (2016-17), how often were the professional development activities in which you participated:**

🍏 Mark (X) one box on each line.

Never      Sometimes      Always

		1	2	3
a. Designed to support state or district standards and/or assessments?	2701	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
b. Designed as part of a school improvement plan to meet state, district, or school goals?	2702	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

**7-3. During the LAST school year (2016-17), was participation in professional development considered as part of your evaluation?**

2703

1  Yes

2  No

**7-4. During the LAST school year (2016-17), have you participated in the following kinds of professional development?**

**a. University course(s) related to your role as principal**

2704

1  Yes

2  No

**b. Visits to other schools designed to improve your own work as principal**

2705

1  Yes

2  No

**c. Mentoring and/or peer observation and coaching of principals**

2706

1  Yes

2  No

**d. Participating in a principal network (e.g., a group of principals organized within school systems, by an outside agency, or through the Internet)**

2707

1  Yes

2  No



**7-4.** *Continued* – During the LAST school year (2016-17), have you participated in the following kinds of professional development?

**e. Workshops, conferences, or training in which you were a presenter**

2708 1  Yes

2  No

**f. Other workshops or conferences in which you were not a presenter**

2709 1  Yes

2  No

**7-5.** During the LAST school year (2016-17), did you participate in professional development on any of the following topics?

**a. Analyzing and interpreting student achievement data**

2710 1  Yes

2  No

**b. Human resource management**

2711 1  Yes

2  No

**c. Student motivation and engagement**

2712 1  Yes

2  No

**d. Use of technology to support instruction**

2713 1  Yes

2  No

**e. School management and policy**

2714 1  Yes

2  No

**f. School improvement planning**

2715 1  Yes

2  No





**7-5.** *Continued* – During the LAST school year (2016-17), did you participate in professional development on any of the following topics?

**g. Social services for students**

2716 1  Yes

2  No

---

**h. Safety or school climate**

2717 1  Yes

2  No

---

**i. Supporting effective instruction**

2718 1  Yes

2  No



## 8. PRINCIPAL ENGAGEMENT

8-1. To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements?

		🍏 Mark (X) one box on each line.			
		Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree
2800	a. The stress and disappointments involved with being a principal at this school aren't really worth it.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>
2801	b. I am generally satisfied with being principal at this school.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>
2802	c. If I could get a higher paying job I'd leave this job as soon as possible.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>
2803	d. I think about transferring to another school.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>
2804	e. I don't seem to have as much enthusiasm now as I did when I began this job.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>
2805	f. I think about staying home from school because I'm just too tired to go.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>



## 9. PRINCIPAL DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

### 9-1. Are you male or female?

- 0900 1  Male  
2  Female

### 9-2. Are you of Hispanic or Latino origin?

- 0901 1  Yes  
2  No

### 9-3. What is your race?

Mark (X) one or more races to indicate what you consider yourself to be.

- 0902 1  White  
0903 1  Black or African-American  
0904 1  Asian  
0905 1  Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander  
0906 1  American Indian or Alaska Native

### 9-4. What is your year of birth?

0907

### 9-5. What is your current ANNUAL salary for your position in this school before taxes and deductions?

- If your position includes multiple duties (e.g., you teach a class and serve as principal at this school), please include your entire salary before taxes and deductions.  
 Please report in whole dollars.

0908 \$  ,   .00 per year



## 10. SCHOOL LEADERSHIP AND RESOURCES

Your responses to this section of questions will help researchers and policymakers make international comparisons to principals in other countries.

**10-1.** Please indicate how frequently you engaged in the following activities in this school during the last 12 months.

		<i>Mark (X) one box on each line.</i>			
		Never or Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very Often
2000	a. I collaborated with teachers to solve classroom discipline problems.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>
2001	b. I observed instruction in the classroom.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>
2002	c. I provided feedback to teachers based on my observations.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>
2003	d. I took actions to support cooperation among teachers to develop new teaching practices.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>
2004	e. I took actions to ensure that teachers take responsibility for improving their teaching skills.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>
2005	f. I took action to ensure that teachers feel responsible for their students' learning outcomes.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>
2006	g. I provided parents or guardians with information on the school and student performance.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>
2007	h. I reviewed school administrative procedures and reports.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>
2008	i. I resolved problems with the lesson timetable in this school.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>
2009	j. I collaborated with principals from other schools on challenging work tasks.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>
2010	k. I worked on a professional development plan for this school.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>
2011	l. I used student results to develop the school's education goals.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>



**10-2. To what extent do the following limit your effectiveness as a principal in this school?**

		Mark (X) one box on each line.			
		Never or Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very Often
2012	<b>a. Inadequate school budget and resources</b>	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>
2013	<b>b. Government regulation and policy</b>	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>
2014	<b>c. Teachers' absences</b>	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>
2015	<b>d. Lack of parent or guardian involvement and support</b>	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>
2016	<b>e. Teachers' career-based wage system</b> <i>(A career-based wage system is used when an employee's salary is determined mainly by his or her educational level and age or seniority rather than by his or her performance on the job.)</i>	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>
2017	<b>f. Lack of opportunities and support for my own professional development</b>	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>
2018	<b>g. Lack of opportunities and support for teachers' professional development</b>	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>
2019	<b>h. High workload and level of responsibilities in my job</b>	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>
2020	<b>i. Lack of shared leadership with other school staff members</b>	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>
2021	<b>j. Difficulty to recruit qualified teachers in some subject areas</b>	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>
2022	<b>k. Other, please specify</b>	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>
	<input type="text" value="5022"/>				



**10-3. To what extent is this school's capacity to provide quality instruction currently hindered by any of the following issues?**

		<i>Mark (X) one box on each line.</i>			
		Not at all	Very little	To some extent	A lot
2023	<b>a. Shortage of qualified teachers</b>	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>
2024	<b>b. Shortage of teachers with competence in teaching students with special needs</b>	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>
2025	<b>c. Shortage of vocational teachers</b>	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>
2026	<b>d. Shortage or inadequacy of instructional materials (e.g., textbooks)</b>	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>
2027	<b>e. Shortage or inadequacy of digital technology for instruction (e.g., computers, tablets, iPads)</b>	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>
2028	<b>f. Insufficient Internet access</b>	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>
2029	<b>g. Shortage or inadequacy of digital software for instruction</b>	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>
2030	<b>h. Shortage or inadequacy of library materials</b>	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>
2031	<b>i. Shortage of support personnel</b>	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>
2032	<b>j. Shortage or inadequacy of instructional space (e.g., classrooms)</b>	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>
2033	<b>k. Shortage or inadequacy of classroom furniture for students (e.g., desks, chairs, materials storage)</b>	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>
2034	<b>l. Shortage or inadequacy of physical infrastructure (e.g., school buildings, heating/cooling, and lighting)</b>	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>

**10-4. For how many years do you want to continue to be a principal?**

- 🍎 *Count part of a year as 1 year.*
- 🍎 *If none, please mark (X) the box.*

2035  None or   Years



## 11. CONTACT INFORMATION

**11-1. Please PRINT your name, your home address, your work, cell, and home telephone numbers, and your work and home e-mail addresses. This information would only be used in the event that we need to contact you for follow-up. All of the information you provide may be used only for statistical purposes and may not be disclosed, or used, in identifiable form for any other purpose except as required by law (20 U.S.C. §9573 and 6 U.S.C. §151).**

a. First name

9000

Middle name

9001

Last name

Suffix

9002

9003

b. Street address

9004

c. City

9005

d. State

9006

e. ZIP Code

9007

f. Work phone number

Area code                      Number

9008

g. Cell phone number

Area code                      Number

9009

h. Home phone number

Area code                      Number

9010

i. Work e-mail address

9011

j. Home e-mail address

9012



**11-2. Please enter the date you completed this questionnaire.**

🍏 Report month as a number, that is, 01 for January, 02 for February, etc.

	Month	Day	Year
0013	<input type="text"/>	0014 <input type="text"/>	0015 <input type="text" value="2"/> <input type="text" value="0"/> <input type="text" value="1"/>

**11-3. Please indicate how much time it took you to complete this form, not counting interruptions.**

🍏 Please record the time in minutes, e.g., 50 minutes, 65 minutes, etc.

0016	<input type="text"/>	Minutes
------	----------------------	---------

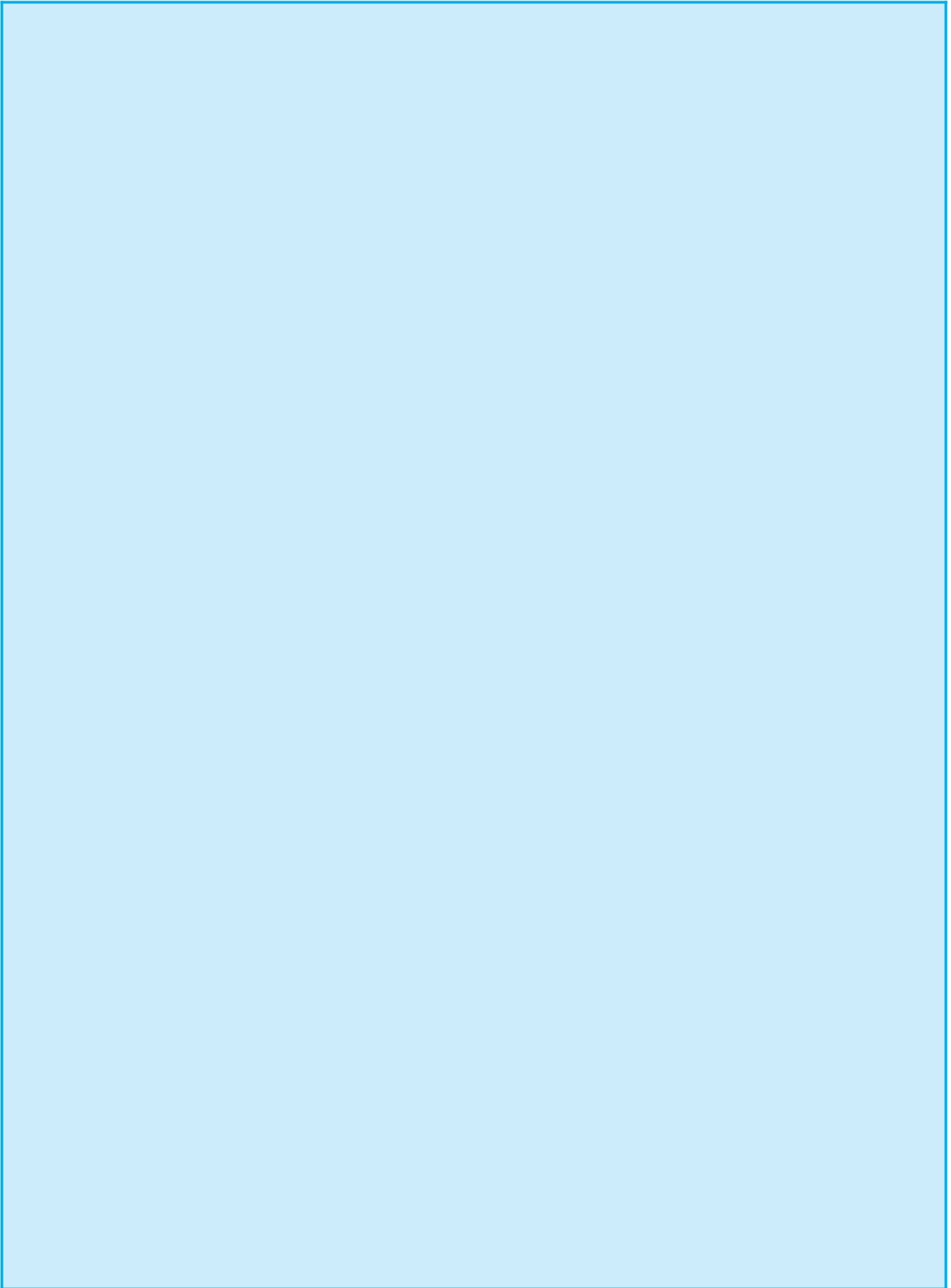
Thank you very much for your participation  
in this survey. If you have any questions,  
please contact us, toll-free, at: 1-888-595-1338  
or by e-mail at: [ntps@census.gov](mailto:ntps@census.gov).

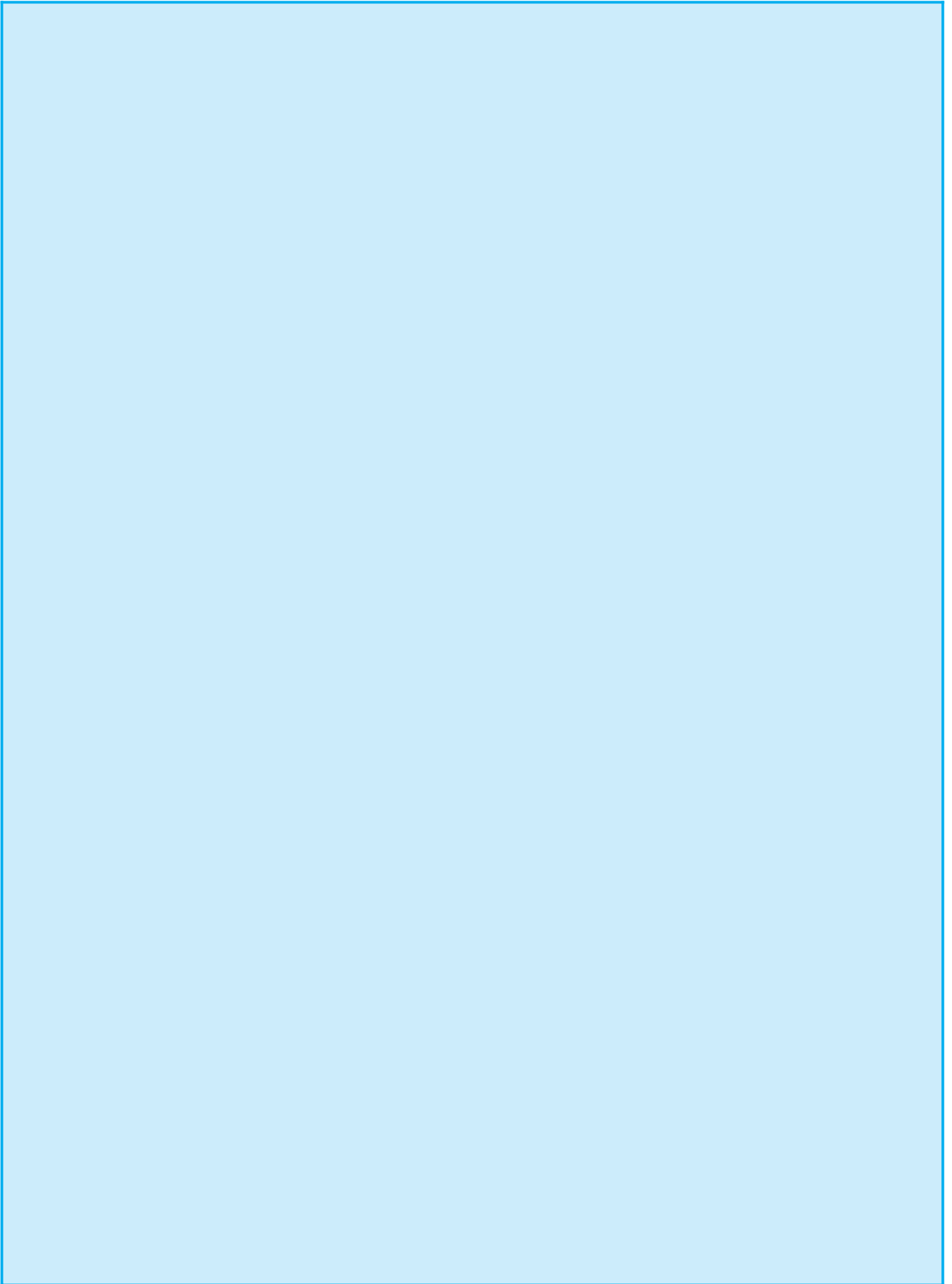
Please return your completed questionnaire  
in the enclosed pre-addressed, postage-paid  
envelope or mail it to:

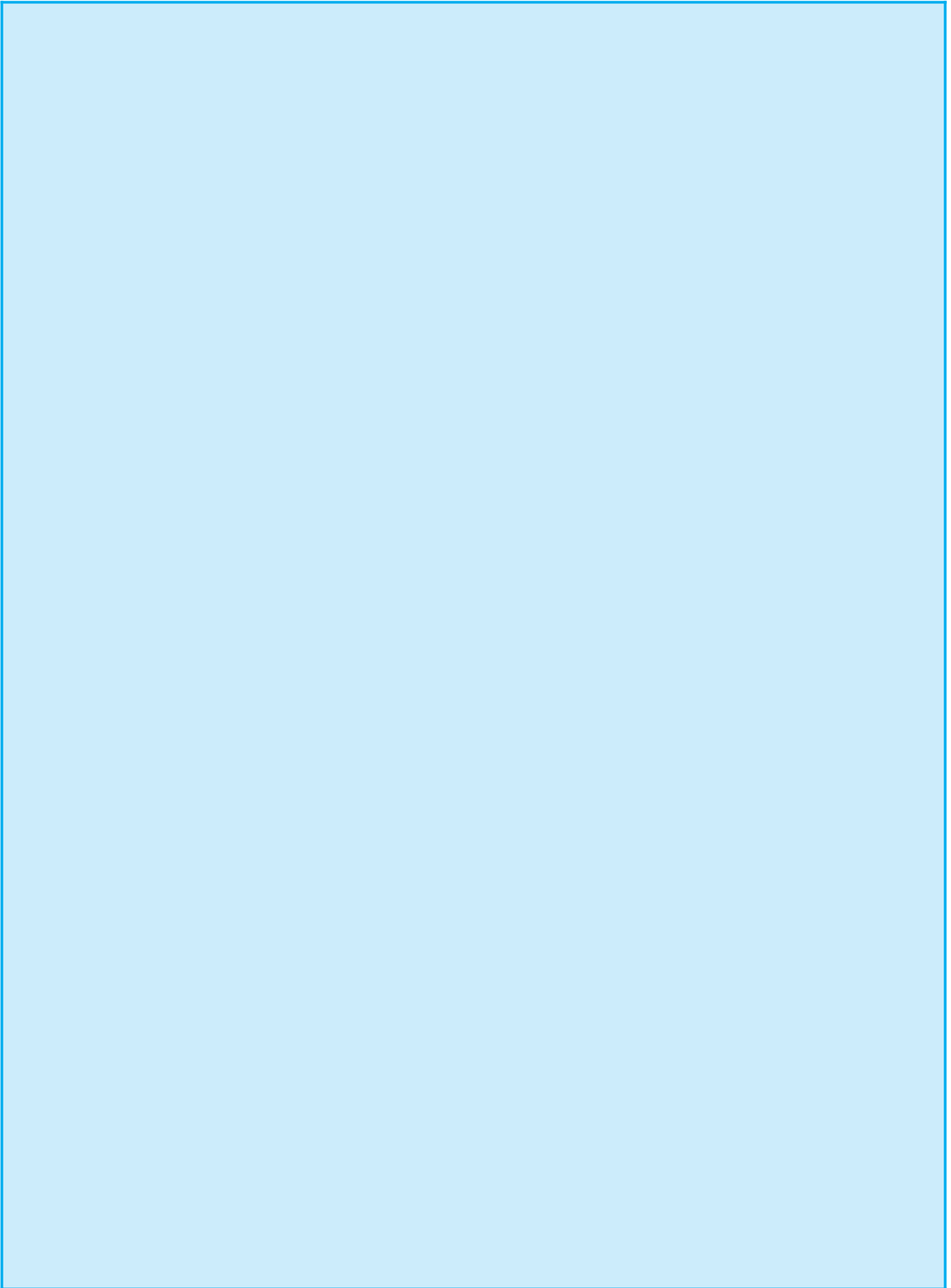
U.S. CENSUS BUREAU  
ATTN: DCB/PCSPU, BUILDING 60A  
1201 E. 10TH STREET  
JEFFERSONVILLE, IN 47132-0001











To learn more about this survey and to access reports from earlier collections, see the National Teacher and Principal Survey (NTPS) website at: <http://nces.ed.gov/surveys/ntps>

Additional data collected by the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) on a variety of topics in elementary, secondary, postsecondary, and international education are available from NCES' website at: <http://nces.ed.gov>

For additional data collected by various Federal agencies, including the Department of Education, visit the Federal Statistics clearinghouse at: <http://fedstats.sites.usa.gov>

