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Leadership Orientations of Female School
Superintendents: A Multidimensional Framework
Perspective

Patricia Susan Tillman

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LEADERSHIP ORIENTATIONS OF FEMALE SCHOOL SUPERINTENDENTS:
A MULTIDIMENSIONAL FRAMEWORK PERSPECTIVE

by

PATRICIA HARMON TILLMAN

(Under the Direction of Brenda Marina)

ABSTRACT

As school districts struggle to find qualified superintendents to lead their systems to meet recent high-stakes accountability measures, it has been noted throughout history that few females attain this position, both nationally and in the state of Georgia. The organizational leadership behaviors of these administrators have been abundantly scrutinized in research; however, much of this research has been limited to the white male population. The primary purpose of this study was to describe to what extent female superintendents in Georgia exhibit leadership behaviors within Bolman and Deal's (2008) four organizational frames. A secondary purpose of this study was to create a demographic profile of female superintendents from the state of Georgia.

This research was a mixed-methods study utilizing the *Leadership Orientations Instrument-Self* (Bolman & Deal, 1990) survey data with demographic and open-ended questions ($n=41$) from female superintendents in the state. Descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyze data from the survey and major themes from the open-ended questions were organized and described in narrative form.

The findings suggested: (a) The female superintendents in this study described themselves as utilizing a multi-dimensional leadership orientation, with the highest scores on the human resource frame and the lowest scores on the political frame. (b) Significant relationships were found between age and average scores on the political

frame, as well as age and average score on the symbolic frame. (c) Female superintendents in Georgia exhibited similar leadership behaviors in symbolic and structural frames. (d) The qualitative findings were similar to the quantitative results in that female superintendents in the state of Georgia reported strengths in the human resource frame, but weaknesses in political skills. (e) Female superintendents in the state of Georgia have similar demographic characteristics compared to the most recent national profile. (f) No significant correlation was found between the female superintendents' level of education and the four frames of leadership. These findings have implications for the preparation of female administrators seeking the superintendency and for boards of education seeking qualified candidates for superintendent positions.

INDEX WORDS: Bolman and Deal, Georgia female superintendent, Leadership behaviors, Leadership traits, Leadership orientation instrument, Organizational Behavior, Organizational Leadership

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by

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A Dissertation Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of Georgia Southern University in
Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

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2012

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to Dr. Ray O. and Mrs. Ann Hammons, my grandparents, for their exemplary role models and support in my pursuit of higher education.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Purpose of the Study

The rewards reaped through the hard work of prying open the doors of the superintendency, offering much-needed information to aspiring women, learning from the past and past research, and creating a dialogue between researchers and practitioners are all for naught unless we keep daily in our minds and hearts our commitment to an educational institution that offers equality for all who learn and work within it. (Chase, 1999, p. 222)

School reform efforts have been continuous since the landmark document, *A Nation at Risk*, in 1983 (National Commission on Excellence in Education). Implementation of federal laws, such as the No Child Left Behind Act [NCLB] (2002), made schools and school leaders accountable for each student's achievement or lack thereof. Because leadership was noted to be a key component in school reform and student achievement (McGhee & Nelson, 2005; Mulford, 2005; Pingle, 2007), the school district's leadership abilities were paramount in a school achieving Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP), a mandate of NCLB. Leithwood, Seashore, Anderson, and Wahlstrom's (2004) research analysis confirms, "Leadership is second only to classroom instruction among all school-related factors that contribute to what students learn at school" (p. 3).

As school districts struggled to find qualified superintendents to lead their systems to meet these high-stakes accountability measures, it was noted throughout history that few females attained this position, both nationally (Blount, 1998; Brunner &

Grogan, 2007; Cooper, Fusarelli, & Carella, 2000; Glass, Bjork, & Brunner, 2000; Glass & Franceschini, 2007) and in the state of Georgia (Alligood, 2005; Pipkin, 2002; Swain, 2006; Whiting Snell, 2009). Since the superintendent was the top position within a school district, the demographics and leadership behaviors of these administrators were abundantly scrutinized in research; however, few studies focused only on the leadership behaviors of female superintendents. Bolman and Deal (1984, 1991, 1997, 2003, & 2008) created a multidimensional leadership model and assessment tool which was used extensively to describe leadership behaviors in terms of four frames: structural, human resource, political, and symbolic. The purpose of this study was to determine the utilization of leadership behaviors within the Bolman and Deal (1984, 1991, 1997, 2003, & 2008) framework by female superintendents in Georgia in 2011.

Background of the Study

Leadership theories, which, over time, evolved from a male perspective, influenced normative standards of leadership practice and leadership philosophy (Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001; Grogan & Brunner, 2005). As a result, the leaders and members within organizations held expectations of leaders based upon the male-defined leadership role (Eagly, Wood, & Diekmann, 2000). These gender role expectations could assign more status and associate greater competence to male leaders than to females (Ridgeway, 2001). While some believed that these gender role stereotypes influenced actual leadership behaviors (Ridgeway, 1997; Witmer, 1995), others argued that the formal leadership role within an organizational structure diminished gender influences (Eagly et al., 2000; Wagner & Berger, 1997). Thus, the normative role conceptualization of leadership as masculine might or might not be

representative of the female experience (Brunner, 1998; Shakeshaft, 1989), and “narrow definitions of leadership based on male models or theories need(ed) to be expanded to include women’s values, beliefs, and experiences” (Campbell, 1996, p. 9).

Feminist and leadership researchers studied the leadership behaviors of male and female leaders to determine gender-specific characteristics which might account for the disparity in the ratio of male to female leaders (Bjork, 2000; Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001; Glazer-Raymo, 1999). Some researchers believed that any differences between male and female leadership behaviors were due to gender stereotypes, leadership role conceptualization, and socialization within the organizational structure (Gilligan, 1993; Grogan & Brunner, 2005b; Shakeshaft, 1989). Ridgeway (2001) asserted that “status beliefs embedded in gender stereotypes create(d) a formidable maze of obstacles that hold women back from positions of high authority and leadership” (p. 650).

Role Conceptualization within Educational Administration

The traditional patriarchal family concept in which the male was seen as the authority figure and the female as a subordinate in a nurturing role was often noted within organizations (Morgan, 1986). Educational institutions also followed this pattern of male-dominated leadership, and some believed that there is a “glass ceiling effect” for women and that discrimination prevent(ed) them from obtaining higher administrative positions (Baker, Graham, & Williams, 2003; Mainiero, 1994). For example, while the nation’s teaching force was comprised of approximately 75% females (National Education Association, 2010), the school superintendency was approximately 78.3% male (Glass & Franceschini, 2007). Additionally, many female superintendents reported

discrimination or gender bias both while attaining and keeping their positions (Anderson, 2000; Grogan, 2000; Lee, 2000; Newton, 2006; Skrla, 2000; Tallerico, 2000).

Related to the previous findings about leadership role conceptualization, Skrla (2000) reported that the social construction of the school superintendent's role was masculine and was in contrast to the female leader's social construction. Leadership roles and leadership characteristics of superintendents, such as assertiveness, vision, power, and decisiveness, were stereotypically associated with males (Rosener, 1997). Some of the research pertaining to female leadership behaviors indicated that women had strengths in the areas of human resources and structure; that is, women appeared to be more collaborative than males and seemed to have better problem-solving, organizational, communication, and decision-making skills (Brunner, 1998; Carter & Cunningham, 1997; Gartenswartz & Rowe, 1987; Katz, 2004; Pew, 2002; Shakeshaft, 1989; Vinnicombe & Colwill, 1995). These factors would appear to make women more qualified for the role of superintendent; however, Wolverton and MacDonald's (2001) study of 1,900 superintendents indicated that female superintendents' self-perceptions of subordination to males increased the time to job obtainment. This result supported the notion that females had internalized the stereotypical masculine view of the leadership role (Grogan & Brunner, 2005b; Wood, Christensen, Hebl, & Rothgerber, 1997). In summary, Flak (1998) stated that "the absence of women in the superintendency suggest(ed) that the traditional view of male as leader ha(d) been used to measure women against the qualities which ha(d) historically served men best" (p. 6).

Leadership Behaviors within an Organizational Structure

As indicated by Beck-Frazier, White, and McFadden (2007), “leadership is created when there is alignment between the organizational leadership behaviors needed by the institution and the leadership behaviors provided by the organizational leader” (p. 92). Organizational leadership theories commonly placed leadership behaviors within a single framework; for example, the trait, skills, transformational, contingency, path-goal, team, and psychodynamic leadership theories were all based upon one central leadership behavior (Northouse, 2004). Single frameworks ignored the possibility that effective leaders could utilize multiple leadership behaviors (Bolman & Deal, 2003).

Bolman and Deal’s (1984, 1991, 1997, 2003, & 2008) model of leadership within organizations has been a well-known typology which consolidated many organizational leadership theories. Because of its multidimensional nature, the Bolman and Deal (1984, 1991, 1997, 2003, & 2008) model described leadership behaviors in terms of four “frames.” Frames were described as lenses through which the leader saw and organized the world. Frames could be inaccurate because of filters that individuals placed on items in the world that they did not want to see. Frames also helped leaders make sense of the world while serving as guides for decision-making. Leaders had predominant frames which they used most when viewing leadership issues and problem-solving solutions; however, Bolman and Deal suggested that effectiveness could be increased if the leader recognized the frame in which problems arose and adapted the solution to the appropriate frame. Bolman and Deal categorized leadership behaviors and strategies in terms of four metaphorical frames: structural, human

resource, political, and symbolic. Similar to current leadership research, successful leaders possessed and integrated each of these four frames (Bolman & Deal, 2003).

The Bolman and Deal (1984, 1991, 1997, 2003, & 2008) framework consisted of four frames or orientations in which the leader could operate. The structural framework provided stability for the organization through rules, policies, and a hierarchy of leadership. The human resource frame placed value on individuals and the relationships between people within the organization. Leaders successfully executing the political frame must utilize strategic planning, negotiation, and power effectively and pragmatically in order to succeed. Within the symbolic frame, leaders built a shared vision and identity for the organization by motivating others and fostering an organizational culture (Bolman & Deal, 2003).

Bolman and Deal's Framework within Educational Organizations

In an attempt to determine effective leadership orientations within the field of educational leadership, Bolman and Deal's organizational leadership framework was previously researched to examine which frames or combination of frames were employed most and least often by school leaders. Many studies (Beck-Frazier, et al., 2007; Bista & Glasman, 1998; Bolman & Deal, 1991, 1992; Griffin, 2005; Maitra, 2007) indicated that leaders within the field employed either the human resource or structural frames most often. Educational leaders who utilized the political frame frequently tended to be more effective, but leaders demonstrated this frame less often than the other frames.

Researchers also used the Bolman and Deal framework (1984, 1991, 1997, 2003, & 2008) to attempt to determine gender-specific behaviors of educational leaders;

however, there were many inconsistencies in the findings. While some studies (Bolman & Deal 1991; Burks, 1992; McGlone, 2005) showed no differences between genders in their utilization of each of the four dimensions within the Bolman and Deal framework, further research (Beck-Frazier, et al, 2007; Griffin, 2005; Maitra, 2007) found that female educational leaders functioned more often than males within the human resource frame. In contrast, Bolman and Deal (1992) found that female educational administrators scored slightly higher than males on all four frames. In another recent study, Guidry (2007) confirmed that female leaders within school systems operated most often in the human resource frame; however, multiple frames of leadership were routinely practiced. Finally, Flak (1998) purported that female superintendents did not operate predominantly in any one frame; rather, female leaders in this top position displayed multiple leadership frames. The research appeared to be inconclusive as to the leadership orientations of female educational leaders within the context of Bolman and Deal's four-frame leadership orientation theory.

Statement of the Problem

Public schools of the 21st century require a type of leadership that promotes the changes required to prepare students adequately for the evolving world both today and in the future. Strong leadership within the educational organization is a foundation for high academic achievement; hence the role of superintendent is one of the most important roles in U.S. public schools. A gender-based disparity exists nationally in this top position, as approximately 78.3% of superintendents are male (Glass & Franceschini, 2007). Currently under debate is whether or not leadership behaviors are

gender-specific. Additional research in this area is needed to account for the gross under representation of women in positions of educational authority.

Since the development of the Bolman and Deal model, studies have been conducted to determine which of these frames or combination of frames were possessed most and least often by successful leaders within education. Many studies indicated that successful school leaders integrated each of these four frames; however, school administrators predominantly utilized the human resource and structural frames. The gender-based disparity within educational leadership and the research pertaining to the successful school leaders spawned a debate as to gender-based differences within the Bolman and Deal's four frames. While Bolman and Deal (1992) found that female leaders scored higher than males in all frames, this study was not specific to superintendents of schools. Additionally, a few studies found that female leaders in education utilized the human resource and structural frames most often (Beck-Frazier, White, & McFadden, 2007; Griffin, 2005; Guidry, 2007), which appeared to make them more qualified for top positions than males. Some debate also existed as to whether any of these findings can be applied to females and to the superintendency, as one small study indicated that female superintendents did not possess the same frames of leadership as leaders in other positions in the field of education (Flak, 1998). Arguably, female superintendents who functioned within this multidimensional framework might be better equipped to operate within the gendered culture of the educational leadership arena and might be able to face the challenges of today's schools with confidence.

Similar to national statistics, data indicated that the vast majority of superintendents in Georgia were male (Georgia School Superintendents Association,

2010; Lee, 2000; Swain, 2006). The limited research about female superintendents in Georgia has focused on obtaining information about demographics, career patterns, or access/barriers to the superintendency (Alligood, 2005; Miller, 2009, Pipkin, 2002; Swain, 2006; Whiting-Snell, 2009). Only one study yielded findings about the leadership qualities or skills of Georgia's female superintendents (Lee, 2000); however, no studies have employed Bolman and Deal's process to align leadership behaviors of female superintendents with organizational structure. At the time of this research study, no studies in the state of Georgia had determined methods of identifying gender-related leadership behaviors which might account for successful attainment and upholding of the superintendency by females. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to describe the utilization of leadership behaviors within the context of Bolman and Deal's (1984, 1991, 1997, 2003, & 2008) framework by female superintendents in the state of Georgia with varying personal and school system demographics.

Research Questions

The overarching question for this study was as follows: To what extent do female superintendents in Georgia exhibit leadership behaviors within Bolman and Deal's four organizational frames? The following sub-questions were used to answer the overarching question:

1. To what extent do female superintendents in Georgia vary in terms of their personal (educational level, years of experience, race) and school district (location and size) demographics?
2. To what extent do female superintendents in Georgia vary in terms of their leadership behaviors within Bolman and Deal's four organizational frames?

3. Is there a significant relationship between any of the demographic variables (personal and school district demographics) and the leadership styles and leadership behaviors of female superintendents in the state of Georgia?

Significance of the Study

Despite women's rights efforts over the past four decades, males continued to dominate the field of educational administration, most significantly at the level of the public school superintendency. Leadership behaviors of males had unofficially, but traditionally, been the criterion for selection for the position of superintendent (Grogan & Brunner, 2005b; Pew, 2002; Skrla, 2000). Since women were underrepresented in the superintendency, research findings related to superintendent leadership orientations could not be generalized to women in this position (Brunner & Grogan, 2007; Tallerico, 1999). This study narrowed the focus to the leadership behaviors of females in the position of superintendent.

Stringent adherence to the male leader stereotype and the socialization process might have led to the exclusion of qualified female administrators for the position of superintendent. The results of this study might lead to a greater understanding of sex-role stereotyping and the possibility of gender-related leadership behaviors, which could promote more equitable hiring and promotion policies and practices for females seeking the superintendency. Superintendent selection committees or contracted firms might benefit from this information when determining a candidate's potential, thus granting females fairer consideration for the position of superintendent.

This research was significant because it provided information regarding the leadership behaviors of female administrators who successfully defied the odds by

attaining positions of superintendents. The examination of women who broke the gender barrier might be useful to current female administrators seeking to acquire a superintendent position. Leadership behaviors employed by current female superintendents could serve as a blueprint for these and all other women who might desire to move up the ranks of educational administration. Possibly, female educational superintendents could detract from their own success by their failure to recognize or to operate within all four frames (Katz, 2004; Thompson, 2000). Additionally, the information gained pertaining to the frames of leadership employed by female superintendents could be utilized by college and university leadership programs to facilitate student acquisition of such behaviors.

Leadership theories, which were developed from a male perspective, might or might not be representative of the female experience (Shakeshaft, 1989). This research could add to the growing body of work pertaining to the leadership behaviors of female leaders within local school districts. This study utilized Bolman and Deal's (1984, 1991, 1997, 2003, & 2008) framework to determine which leadership behaviors were most and least prominent in female superintendents in Georgia. The notion that leadership behaviors are gender-specific (Bolman, & Deal, 1992; Eagly, & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001; Ridgeway, 2001; Shakeshaft, 1989; Thompson, 2000) has been in current controversy. While some researchers found that female leaders function most often in the human resource frame of Bolman and Deal's model, other researchers, including Bolman and Deal, reported that leadership behaviors were gender-neutral or that females exhibited higher levels of leadership ability in all four frames. Therefore, this study could also add to the existing body of research on the leadership behaviors of

female administrators in educational administration, specifically, females who attained the superintendency. Last, this study should extend the research related to the use of Bolman and Deal's (1984, 1991, 1997, 2003, & 2008) organizational framework within educational organizations.

Research Procedures and Design

Creswell (2003) asserted that a mixed-method of data collection and analysis was appropriate when the population to be studied was a small group. Triangulation of data strengthens a study and was achieved through the use of both quantitative and qualitative methods. This research was a descriptive study utilizing survey and open-ended question data to obtain information on Georgia female superintendent demographic information related to their self-perceived leadership behaviors within Bolman and Deal's (1984, 1991, 1997, 2003, & 2008) framework. According to Nardi (2006), descriptive research profiles a group of people to gather information about their demographics or characteristics. During the analysis phase of this research, the qualitative data was used to expand understanding of the quantitative findings.

According to Nardi (2006), quantitative research can assist the researcher in determining "the number of people involved in certain behaviors" (p. 16), measuring the behaviors, and making assumptions about the group as a whole from these measurements. Additionally, quantitative survey research has been effective for studying multiple behaviors in one survey and for comparing the results with other studies, as well as for using online methods of distribution (Creswell, 2003; Nardi, 2006). The survey questionnaire in this study was cross-sectional, in that it was given one-time to one sample of respondents (Nardi, 2006). For these reasons, an online

survey was appropriate for determining the number of female superintendents demonstrating each leadership behavior or multiple frames of leadership to assess the leadership behaviors of the administrators involved.

Campbell (1996) indicated that more qualitative research was needed to capture the women's perspective of leadership, as leadership was currently defined from the male perspective. Accordingly, this study sought to describe the female perspective of leadership within the superintendency. Therefore, basic interpretive qualitative information was useful to strengthen the quantitative findings and to broaden the research analysis (Litchman, 2006; Merriam, 2002). Qualitative data was also used to supplement the quantitative data, as the survey questionnaire was limited to the four orientations within the Bolman and Deal framework. Qualitative data was collected through open-ended questions added to the end of the quantitative survey. This data collection method was used to gain a more in-depth understanding of female superintendent's feelings, impressions and viewpoints about their own leadership behaviors. This qualitative data was analyzed to develop themes and patterns pertaining to Georgia female superintendent's leadership behaviors as aligned with Bolman and Deal's (1984, 1991, 1997, 2003, & 2008) framework.

Population

The population for this study was female superintendents from public schools in Georgia in 2011. A database of female school superintendents in Georgia and their email addresses was built using data available from the Georgia Public Education Directory (Georgia Department of Education, 2011), district websites, and the Georgia School Superintendents Association (GSSA) Directory (2011). The Georgia Public

Education Directory (Georgia Department of Education, 2011) contained the names, addresses, phone numbers, and email addresses for every superintendent in the state. The database of the current number and locations of female school superintendents in the state of Georgia was verified for accuracy using the GSSA (2011) online directory. This directory contained a photograph of each superintendent, contact information, district information, and basic demographics, such as gender and race.

Sample

Because the entire population of female superintendents in the state of Georgia was small and known, the researcher included the entire population as the sample in the study (Nardi, 2006) for the survey. The target population to which surveys were sent include all practicing female superintendents in Georgia ($N = 54$). Interim female superintendents in Georgia ($N=4$) were excluded from the study, as they might not still be employed by the system at the time of the study. In addition, this study focused on women who had already attained the superintendency, not on interim superintendents.

Instrumentation

This study utilized Bolman and Deal's (1990) Leadership Orientation Instrument-Self (LOI) to assess leadership behaviors within their theoretical approach. Specifically, the LOI-Self assessed leadership behaviors through self-reported responses to scenarios to determine which frames of leadership the respondent employed, or if a leader used single or multiple frames of leadership. The LOI had been widely utilized in previous research within education (Beck, et al., 2007; Bista & Glasman, 1998; Patterson, Dahle, Nix, Collins, & Abbot, 2002; Thompson, 2000) and recent dissertations within the educational environment (DeFrank-Cole, 2003; Edmunds, 2007;

Guidry, 2007; Harrell, 2006; Maitra, 2007; Shah, 2008; Welch, 2002). The LOI had been found to be a valid, quantifiable, and reliable instrument in previously conducted research. Bolman (2010) published internal consistency data for the LOI on his website.

Along with previously established use-frequency reliability, another benefit of using the LOI survey in the present research study was that it aligned with the review of the literature and research in this study. Permission was requested and granted for the use of the LOI in the present study and to modify the survey instrument if needed.

The LOI-Self was comprised of three sections, and the first section was used in the present study. Section one connected self-perceived leadership behaviors as compared to each of Bolman and Deal's four frames. Section one contained 32 items with a five-point Likert scale for the respondents to record their level of agreement or disagreement with each statement. A self-rating of "1" indicated that the respondent perceived that she never demonstrated the described behavior, and a self-rating of "5" meant that the respondent perceived that she exhibited the described behavior all of the time. The highest mean score indicated which of the four frames was perceived as the primary leadership behavior. Previous research with the LOI has considered all means above 4.0 as "frequent" use of a particular frame (Beck-Frazier, 2007; Guidry, 2007; Harrell, 2006).

In addition, to understand how female leadership behaviors varied, typical demographic data was requested after the LOI-Self survey. Personal demographic information including the educational level, years of experience, career path, age, marital status, number of children, and race of the superintendent was included. School district demographic information was also requested to determine if female school

superintendent leadership behaviors varied by school district size or location. These factors were selected so that demographic data from female superintendents in the state of Georgia could be later compared to the results of the most recent national survey of female superintendents (Brunner & Grogan, 2007). For the qualitative portion of this study, open-ended questions were constructed based upon the research questions and a thorough review of the literature. Content validity was established through correlation of the open-ended questions with the literature. The open-ended questions allowed the participants to express their views of their own leadership style, thus capturing unique information that might not be included in the LOI-Self.

Pilot Study

Although the LOI-Self previously established reliability and validity, pilot testing with a similar audience was conducted to assure that the survey instrument and open-ended questions were clear and understandable. The pilot study participants were chosen from current female administrators in the state of Georgia. These participants, while not yet superintendents, most closely resembled the target population and could be used in the pilot study because they did not form part of the final sample. The pilot participants could not be chosen from the current body of female superintendents in the state of Georgia because their participation a second time in the final study could yield biased results (Nardi, 2006). Additionally, the number of female superintendents in the state of Georgia was relatively small, and all were needed in the target population of the final study. The pilot study participants were sent an email to request participation in the pilot study. After agreement to participate was granted, surveys and informed consent forms were sent via email to each of the five pilot study participants. Feedback for both

the survey and the open-ended questions were requested by email. Results of the pilot study were used to refine the open-ended questions and the directions. Once the pilot study was completed, the final survey was converted to an internet-based format using Question Pro (2011).

Data Collection

This descriptive study utilized survey data and responses to open-ended questions to obtain information on Georgia female superintendent's perceptions about their own leadership orientations in terms of Bolman and Deal's four frames of leadership. The method of data collection was an online survey instrument in which content validity had previously been widely established through previous research. Basic demographic data was also collected through the survey instrument. Open-ended questions were placed at the end of the survey so that the participants could provide a description of their leadership orientations in their own words.

The research proposal and survey were sent to the Institutional Review Board of Georgia Southern University for approval before conducting the research study. The pilot study was conducted. A database of the most current female superintendents in the state of Georgia was built. An email was then sent to each subject and described the survey, providing a link to access the survey. A letter of informed consent was attached to the initial email. This message explained the guidelines for protecting the name and school system of each participant. Participants were also given information about how to request the results of the study by contacting the research by telephone or email. Question Pro (2011), an online survey management company, managed the distribution and retrieval of the surveys. The company used a computer generated

identification number for each respondent so that the researcher would not be able to see the participant's email address and their response data simultaneously. This management company also organized the results and then sent a confidential report only to the researcher, thus further protecting the data. The participants were given two weeks to complete the online survey questionnaire. To increase the response rate (Nardi, 2006), a reminder email was distributed at the end of the first week and two weeks after the start of the survey. Because the time of the survey distribution coincided with the transition into a new school year, new female superintendents had been hired and others had retired or had relocated to another state. The process was repeated for the new female superintendents. After all of the surveys were collected, the researcher analyzed the data using quantitative methods using statistics software. Any electronic data collected was saved on a single desktop computer that had appropriate security safeguards, such as unique identification of authorized users and password protection.

Data Analysis

Responses from this survey were analyzed quantitatively and descriptively summarized using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) Version 16.0 software (SPSS, Inc., 2008). First, the data received from the survey instrument was coded and entered into SPSS. Independent variables identified within this study included personal (number of years of experience, educational level, age, marital status, number of children, career path, and race) and school system (size and location) demographic data of Georgia female public school superintendents. The dependent variable within this study was the differential use of Bolman and Deal's leadership frames. The one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to examine the level of

independent variables on single and multiple leadership frames. For example, the ANOVA helped examine how the primary leadership frame or a combination of specific leadership frames might vary by age or educational level of the respondents.

The qualitative data from the open-ended questions was analyzed to develop themes and patterns pertaining to Georgia female superintendent's leadership behaviors as aligned with Bolman and Deal's (1984, 1991, 1997, 2003, & 2008) framework. Both qualitative and quantitative data were compared to Bolman and Deal's (1984, 1991, 1997, 2003, & 2008) framework and to the findings from the most recent national survey of female superintendents, the American Association of School Administrators' *National Survey of Women in the Superintendency and the Central Office* as reported in Brunner and Grogan (2007). In addition, comparisons to similar research pertaining to gender, leadership, and the Bolman and Deal (1984, 1991, 1997, 2003, & 2008) model were drawn.

Delimitations

1. The population selected for this study was limited to female superintendents in Georgia during 2011; thus, the ability to generalize the findings to other administrative positions or to the Southeast or the entire United States was limited.
2. This study only examined superintendents in public schools. The results of this study were not indicative of superintendents of private schools.

Limitations

1. The focus of this study was on female superintendents only, thus the results of this study could not be generalized to women with other educational leadership positions such as principals, assistant principals, or board office administrators.

2. The findings of this study could not be considered representative of women in other positions of leadership, such as in the business sector.
3. The small number of female superintendents in Georgia limited the scope of this study.
4. The utilization of self-reported data might also represent limitations to this study.

Definition of Terms

1. *Career Path*: The positions the superintendent held prior to becoming a superintendent.
2. *Frame*: One of four metaphorical and analytical “lenses” identified by Bolman and Deal (1984, 1991, 1997, 2003, & 2008) for understanding organizational dynamics: structural, human resource, political, or symbolic.
3. *Gender Barriers*: Obstacles faced based upon a person’s gender.
4. *Gender Issues*: Issues directly related to a person being a male or a female.
5. *Human Resource Frame*: The leadership frame that placed value on individuals and the relationships between people within the organization. Leaders functioning within the human resource frame exhibited care and concern for the organization’s workers, empowering them through validating feelings and meeting basic needs.
6. *Leader Effectiveness or Success*: Leaders with the capacity to perceive and communicate within the frame (political, human resources, symbolic, or structural) or combination of frames most appropriate to the organizational culture and circumstances.

7. *Political Frame*: The leadership frame that described how different factions within an organization used bargaining and negotiation for scarce resources. Leaders successfully executing the political frame must utilize strategic planning, negotiation, and power effectively and pragmatically in order to succeed.
8. *Reliability*: the degree to which an instrument measured the same way each time it was used under the same condition with the same subjects.
9. *Sex Role*: Behaviors or characteristics which members of society considered standard for each gender.
10. *Sex-Role Stereotyping*: Widely-held beliefs and expectations about behaviors and characteristics of each gender.
11. *Structural Frame*: The leadership frame that provided stability for the organization through rules, policies, and a hierarchy of leadership. Leaders operating within the structural frame were task-oriented; these leaders defined the goals of the organization and established roles for people within the organization.
12. *Symbolic Frame*: The leadership frame in which a shared vision and identity for the organization was built by the leader. Leaders functioning within the symbolic frame motivated others and increase enthusiasm within the organization through the development of rituals and symbols.
13. *Superintendent*: The top-level administrator or chief executive officer of a school system.
14. *Validity*: the strength of the conclusions, inferences or propositions.

Summary

Recent high-stakes accountability legislation prompted school districts to seek effective leadership in their top ranks; however, very few women in the U. S. attained the positions of superintendents. Currently under debate is the notion that this disparity exists because the leadership behaviors of women differed from those of men. Some studies used the Bolman and Deal (1984, 1991, 1997, 2003, & 2008) framework to describe the leadership behaviors of educational administrators; however, results were inconclusive as to the frames in which female leaders functioned most often.

Additionally, at the time of this research study, there were no other studies in the state of Georgia which aligned the leadership behaviors of female superintendents with the Bolman and Deal (1984, 1991, 1997, 2003, & 2008) framework. This descriptive research utilized the LOI-Self survey questionnaire of female superintendents in Georgia for the 2011-2012 school year to assess strengths and weaknesses in leadership behaviors as aligned with the four major dimensions of the organizational structure developed by Bolman and Deal (1984, 1991, 1997, 2003, & 2008). Open-ended questions and demographic data were also collected through the survey. Data were analyzed quantitatively and descriptively summarized using SPSS software to examine how the primary leadership frame or a combination of specific leadership frames might vary by personal and school system demographics of the respondents. The qualitative data were analyzed to develop themes and patterns pertaining to leadership orientations and demographics. Both qualitative and quantitative data were compared to the findings from the most recent national survey of female superintendents, the *American Association of School Administrators' National Survey of*

Women in the Superintendency and the Central Office (Brunner & Grogan, 2007). In addition, comparisons to similar research pertaining to gender, leadership, and the Bolman and Deal (1984, 1991, 1997, 2003, & 2008) model were drawn.

CHAPTER 2

**LEADERSHIP ORIENTATIONS OF FEMALE SCHOOL SUPERINTENDENTS:
A MULTIDIMENSIONAL FRAMEWORK PERSPECTIVE**

Introduction

Schools are gender-bound institutions. Women superintendents do not experience the same reality as men superintendents. Even if a female and a male behaved identically, those behaviors would not be received in the same way. Gender is the mediating force in superintendents' selection, effectiveness, and retention. Thus, we need to understand women's experience; what has been written about men superintendents does not necessarily apply to women.

(Schmuck, 1999, p. xi).

Although much has been written in the literature about the leadership traits of educational leaders, few studies have focused on these traits in female school superintendents. Even less attention has been given to examining these traits within a multi-dimensional framework, such as the model presented by Bolman and Deal (1984, 1991, 1997, 2003, & 2008). This review of research and related literature begins with a brief history of women in the superintendency. Current national surveys of women in school superintendency positions and research pertaining to female superintendents in Georgia are also summarized. Next, the Bolman and Deal (1984, 1991, 1997, 2003, & 2008) multi-dimensional framework and survey for organizational leadership are described. Last, research studies pertaining to the Bolman and Deal (1984, 1991, 1997, 2003, & 2008) model are reported with a focus on female leadership behaviors within educational organizations, specifically, the public school system setting.

The History of Women in the Superintendency

In her book *Destined to Rule the Schools: Women and the Superintendency, 1873-1995*, Jackie Blount (1998) focused on the history and phenomena of females in the position of superintendent in the United States. In the early 1800s, women began teaching in order to become economically independent while providing a public service. Around that time, a shift occurred during which more women than men entered the teaching profession. It was at this juncture that an administrative level was created, affording males an opportunity to maintain professional dominance over women. As men left their teaching positions to fight in the Civil War, females filled their vacancies. However, when the males returned home from the war, they were provided other positions in the community or administrative positions in education.

The concept of the state superintendent was developed in 1812 to oversee the use of public lands for education (p. 42). The county superintendent position was created next to oversee local school funding and to ensure that state laws were being met. The first county level superintendent did not occur until 1837 in New York (Carter & Cunningham, 1997; Glass & Franceschini, 2007), designed because state superintendents needed help at the local level for distribution of funds, gathering statistics, and handling disputes (Blount, 1998), p. 42). White males dominated this position throughout the nineteenth century.

Blount (1998) reported a significant increase in the number of females in the position of county superintendent around the turn of the twentieth century. In the 1930's, female activism and the women's movement, along with the fact that the superintendency was an elected position, increased the number of women in this

position at the county level to approximately 11% (Blount, 1998). Despite this increase, discriminatory practices favoring men in administrative positions existed, such as hiring males over females with the same qualifications. In addition, the GI Bill provided males with financial support to pursue degrees in educational administration faster than women who did not have the financial backing. Shakeshaft (1989) reported that, as men returned from World War II, the numbers of women in all administrative positions plummeted.

Several legislative acts were added in the 1970's to attempt to equalize opportunities for women. In 1972, Title IX was added to the Civil Rights Act, which helped to prevent discriminatory practices in hiring (Brunner & Grogan, 2007). In 1974, The Women's Education Equity Act sought to equalize opportunities for females in school systems. Despite this new legislation, females in the position of superintendent fell to a low of 1% in 1980 (Brunner & Grogan, 2007).

The position of superintendent today continues to be based upon the same patriarchal structure as it was when it was established, as the superintendency is currently 78.3% male (Glass & Franceschini, 2007). The increase in female attainment of the position has been so gradual that Derrington and Sharratt (2009) recently reported that, "at the current annual rate of increase, it won't be until the year 2035 that we will see a 50-50 gender ratio in superintendents" (p. 8).

National Studies of Female Superintendents

National studies of female leaders in educational organizations have increased over the past few decades; however, few studies have specifically pinpointed female superintendents of schools. Specific information about female superintendents was

gleaned from the disaggregated data in Glass and Franceschini's (2007) and Cooper, Fusarelli, and Carella's (2000) national studies of both male and female superintendents. In addition, Brunner and Grogan (2007) and Wesson (1994) each conducted studies pertaining only to female superintendents. These two studies also provided insight into self-perceived leadership characteristics of the participants.

In 2006, the American Association of School Administrators (AASA) conducted the most recent national research study on school superintendents. *The State of the American School Superintendency: A Mid-Decade Study* (Glass & Franceschini, 2007), examined personal and professional demographic factors of 1,338 American school superintendents, as well as their perspectives about the profession. The AASA typically conducted a study of the American superintendency every ten years; however, the researchers cited "the rapid rate of change and effects resulting from state accountability programs and No Child Left Behind legislation" (Glass & Franceschini, 2007, p. xi) as the reason for a midterm study. The researchers employed a survey questionnaire to examine many factors, such as personal and professional demographics, career path and preparation, and working conditions of the superintendents involved. Board relations and evaluations were also targeted. While the 2006 AASA study examined the superintendency as a whole group, specific information pertaining to female superintendents were also reported by the researchers.

Glass and Franceschini (2007) noted that this study of superintendents in 2006 showed changes from previous national studies with respect to the demographics and opinions of female superintendents as a group. The percentage of female superintendents responding to the survey increased over time, in that 21.7% of

respondents in the 2006 study were female, compared to 16.7% in 2000, and 6.7% in 1950. In 2006, 58% of female superintendents held doctoral degrees, compared to 56% in 2000. Female superintendents had more likely been assistant superintendents prior to the superintendency; 39.6% of females compared to 26.1% of males had been assistant superintendents. In addition, 23.5% of females compared to 52.5% of males had been school principals. Of superintendents who were hired in large districts, 64.9% had once been central office administrators. In the 1992 study, females began their superintendency in small districts; in the 2006 study, district size was more evenly distributed: 35% of women were employed in suburban districts; 55.4% in rural districts; and 9% in urban districts. The number of minority females was still low at 6.1%. Last, opinions were solicited to obtain reasons why there were fewer females than males in the superintendency. A fairly close number of male and female superintendents chose *working conditions not appealing to women and family concerns* as a reason for more males in the position of superintendent. Almost twice as many females to males chose *gender discrimination by boards and the presence of a glass ceiling* as the reason for the discrepancy.

Although the data from the 2006 AASA survey was important, Brunner and Grogan (2007) indicated that most of the research on school superintendents did not represent the female experience because “in a story in which white men dominate, white male voices are so strong that sounds from other groups are impossible to hear” (p. 5). In their book, *Women Leading School Systems* (Brunner & Grogan, 2007), the authors described the largest nationwide study of women in the superintendency, which was conducted in 2003. This research was based upon surveys of 723 female

superintendents and 472 central office personnel. The survey consisted of eight open-ended questions and 100 short-response questions. Almost 30% of female superintendents in the nation responded to the survey instrument (Brunner & Grogan, 2007, p. 155), and their data was disaggregated from the central office personnel data.

Brunner and Grogan (2007) indicated that female superintendents led 18% of all school districts in the United States in 2003. The majority of female superintendents in the United States at that time fit the following categories: white (93%), married (76%), with children (77%), 55 years of age or younger (70%), and most often serving school districts with less than 3,000 students (72%). Almost three-fourths of these women obtained jobs as superintendents within one year of searching for the position. Of these women, 58% had undergraduate degrees in education and held doctorate degrees, and 35% had been elementary school teachers. Half of the women superintendents followed the typical career path of their male counterparts; however, the other half followed an atypical pattern and moved up faster. The average annual salary for a female superintendent in 2003 was \$75,000 to \$125,000 with a range of \$25,000 to \$250,000 (Brunner & Grogan, 2007). Women superintendents identified many factors for their advancement or success in the superintendency: instructional leadership, curriculum knowledge, interpersonal skills, and organizational relationships. A large majority of female superintendents (88%) reported relocation as a major barrier to careers as superintendents.

Brunner and Grogan (2007) also indicated differences within female superintendents by race. Women of color were typically younger than their white counterparts, as 31% of women in the study aged 56 or older were white while 14%

were non-white. Women of color moved into administrative positions faster than white women, as 33% of non-white women became administrators within one to five years of classroom teaching, compared to 19% of white female superintendents. Despite a more rapid rise to administration, women of color were two times more likely than white women to wait at least four years to gain the superintendency. Similar to their white counterparts, women of color were typically married; however, women of color were more likely to have children. In addition, almost a third of the women of color and almost one-fourth of white women had three or more children. More women of color represented urban school systems, as 27% of women of color compared to only 7% of white women were employed in urban districts. African-American female superintendents were twice as likely to perceive themselves as community leaders and change agents as white female superintendents.

Cooper, Fusarelli, and Carella (2000) surveyed 2,979 superintendents from across the United States, of which 12.2% were female. The researchers found that career paths differed by gender. Female superintendents remained in the classroom an average of 8.99 years while males averaged 6.62 years before moving into leadership. Males averaged 8.02 years as building level administrators with females averaging 5.98 years. The average for males in the central office was 15.62 years while females averaged 12.99 years.

Longevity in the position of school superintendent was also examined. While males averaged 7.57 years in their current positions, females averaged 5.01 years. School district preference was also surveyed. Men were more significantly interested in working in rural districts than women. Women were slightly more attracted to

large/urban inner city districts, though neither gender was strongly attracted to this environment. Both groups preferred the suburban job setting. In the area of job expertise, males scored high in building construction and bond issue skills. Females scored highest in race relations, staff development, and curriculum design. Last, females reported higher satisfaction and achievement in the areas of “kids and curriculum” (p. 26), indicating that working with children and working on improving curriculum were most the fulfilling aspects of the job.

In an older study of female superintendents from across the United States, Wesson (1994) used mixed-methodology to examine the perceived job satisfaction, benefits, self-fulfillment, and personal strengths in the job of superintendent, as well as to assess their leadership practices. Wesson (1994) surveyed 174 subjects using Leadership Practices Inventory-Self (Kouzes & Posner, 1988) and interviewed 30 rural and 21 urban participants. Of note were the consistently high leadership rankings of these female superintendents in the following categories: 90th percentile for Inspiring a Shared Vision; 80th percentile for Enabling Others to Act; 83rd for Challenging the Process and Modeling the Way; and 82nd for Encouraging the Heart. Appendix A includes a summary of national studies related to female school superintendents.

Women in the Superintendency in Georgia

Although the school district superintendency was created in 1837 (Carter & Cunningham, 1997; Glass & Franceschini, 2007), Georgia’s first female superintendent was not elected until 1948, over a century later (Grow, 1996). That year Elva White Grow Clark became the first woman school superintendent in the state of Georgia. Clark described her accomplishment as follows:

What did I accomplish as county school superintendent? Nothing much that anyone would think was special. Except that for a woman to get elected in the first place might be something some people would consider special. Back in those days, men ran everything in public life. Every elected official was a man. Every political race was between men. (Grow, 1996, ¶ 1).

Not much appears to have changed since Grow's achievement, as males still dominate the superintendent position in Georgia. Research into the disparity of women in the superintendency in the state of Georgia is limited, but growing. The focal point of most of these studies focused on demographic factors or access/barriers to the position of superintendent; however, the demographic data was not for the current year. Demographic factors in this narrow body of research included numbers of females in the position, age, career path, educational level, years of experience, race, and school system size. One qualitative study of female superintendents in the state of Georgia had an added component of self-perceived leadership styles; however, no formal measure was administered and the sample size was limited to five subjects.

Although a disparity between male and female superintendents still exists in the state of Georgia, a gradual trend was noted toward more equal representation of each gender. In 1992, only 15 female superintendents were reported in Georgia (Crawford). The number of female superintendents in this state increased to 21 in 2000 (Lee) and to 34 in 2002 (Pipkin). Alligood (2005) reported 39 female superintendents in 2005. In Swain's study (2006), 21.1% of superintendent respondents were female. In the most recent study of female superintendents in the state of Georgia (Whiting Snell, 2009), 47 female superintendents were noted in the state. The Georgia School Superintendents

Association (2010) indicated that 58 of 181 superintendents in 2010 were women. Of these 58 women, four were interim superintendents. The percentage of female and male superintendents in the state of Georgia in 2010 is shown in Figure 1

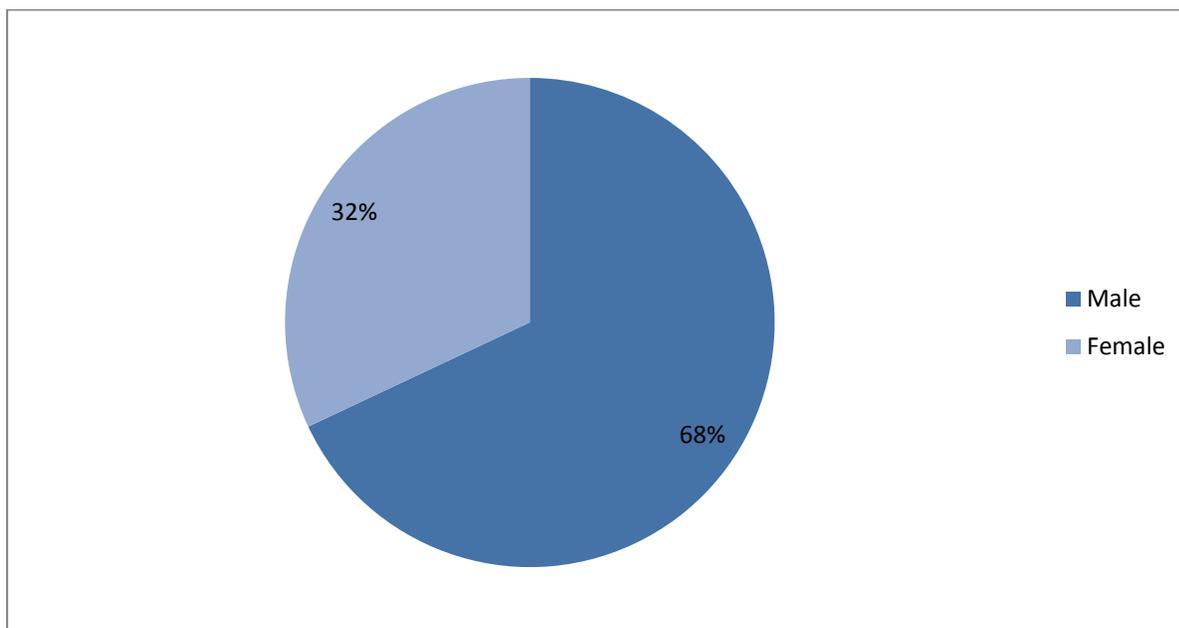


Figure 1. Percentage of Female and Male Superintendents in the State of Georgia

Similar to the results found in *The State of the American School Superintendency: A Mid-Decade Study* (2007), the majority of superintendents in Georgia during the 2011-2012 school year were males, but the number of women in the position has gradually increased. Data has not been collected as to the age, years of experience, and educational level of women in the state of Georgia who currently hold the position of superintendent. The increase in the number of female superintendents in Georgia since 1992 is depicted in Figure 2.

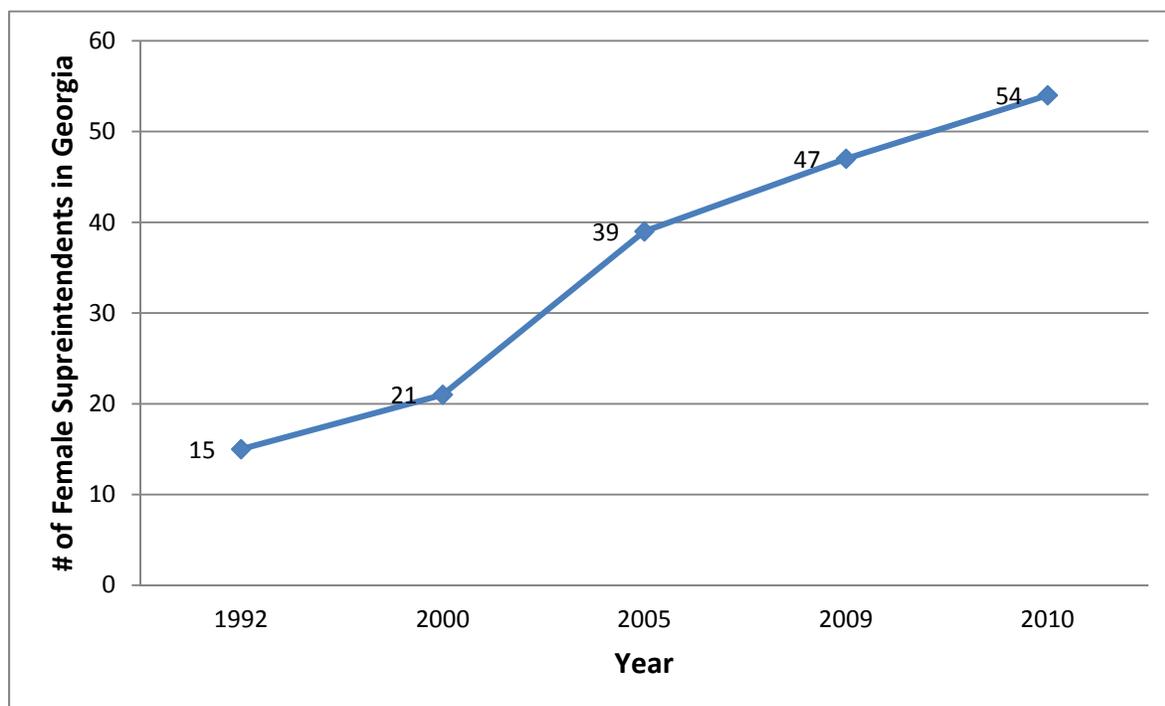


Figure 2. The Number of Female Superintendents in Georgia Since 1992

Crawford's qualitative study in 1992 appeared to be the earliest study of female superintendents in the state of Georgia. Crawford (1992) interviewed all fifteen women superintendents in Georgia during the 1991-1992 school year to examine perceived barriers to the superintendency and strategies for overcoming these barriers. The majority of the subjects attained their positions from within the system and had worked in elementary education and then in the central office prior to becoming superintendent. Perceived barriers to attainment of the position of superintendent by the female subjects included stereotyping, lack of experience, male gatekeepers, and family responsibilities. Leadership characteristics, educational preparation, and administrative experience were listed as important strategies for attainment of the position. School district demographic

data, such as size, did not indicate a difference in mean scores in attainment of the position of superintendent.

In a qualitative study of female superintendents in the state of Georgia in 2000, Lee (2000) used telephone interviews with all 21 female superintendents who were in the positions at that time. The focus of her study was to determine perceived gender barriers to the position and to create a demographic profile of the female superintendents in office in 2000. Lee (2000) found that 14 of the women experienced gender barriers of stereotyping and cultural awareness. Solutions offered by these women for the gender barriers included the following factors: mentors, communication skills, political support, and educational background. At the time of this study, three (14.29%) of the twenty-one women were African-American. The mean age of these women was 55, and the age range was 38 to 67 years. The average number of years of experience in the position for these women was 5.1 years, compared to 8.2 years of experience for all superintendents in the state. Forty-two percent of the women superintendents in this study had more advanced degrees than the rest of the superintendents in the state in 2000. Fourteen (67%) of the women had doctorate degrees. Prior to becoming superintendent, 28% of these women had held the position of assistant superintendent, 19% were curriculum directors, and 14% worked in another capacity in the central office. Almost 24% had been in the business field prior to the field of education. A similarity in school system demographic pattern was noted in that there was “a rapid increase in districts headed by women superintendents who presently have the smallest pupil enrollment” (Lee, 2000, p. 72). Lee (2000) concluded

this study with the recommendation that further research be conducted pertaining to the reasons for under representation of women in this top position in school administration.

Similar to Crawford (1992) and Lee (2000), Pipkin's (2002) mixed-methods study examined the perceived barriers to the superintendency and the demographic profile of female superintendents in this position in the state of Georgia in 2002. Since the Lee (2000) study, the number of female superintendents had risen from 21 to 34. Pipkin (2002) surveyed 31 of the 34 female superintendents in office and interviewed six of the women. Pipkin (2002) found no statistically relevant major barriers for women superintendents; however, the highest statistical barrier was political, in essence, exclusion from the 'good old boy network.' The female superintendents who participated in this study identified family support as most successful strategy for obtaining position.

Pipkin's (2002) demographic findings were similar to those of Lee (2000). At the time of this study, five of the 31 women (16.1%) in the study were African-American. The age range for these women was 40 to over 60, with 61.3% between the ages of 50 to 59. More than half (54.8%) of the women had been in the superintendency between one and four years. Thirteen (41.9%) women earned doctorate degrees, and 18 (58.1%) held educational specialist degrees. The career paths of these women included the position of principal (58.1%), a central office administrator (83.9%), and then the assistant superintendency (51.6%). Thirty-two percent of the women were superintendents in rural school systems, and 9.7% were employed in an urban school district. Pipkin (2002) also recommended further research into the phenomena of females in the superintendency.

In a qualitative study of three African-American retired superintendents in Georgia, Askew (2004) used oral histories to obtain information about the career experiences of the study participants. Of note in this research was the oral history of Beauty Baldwin, Georgia's first African-American female school superintendent. At one time in her career, Baldwin was the only African-American teacher at the high school in which she worked, and in 1978, she was the only African-American administrator in Gwinnett County, Georgia. Baldwin served as superintendent of that county between 1984 and 1994. She was one of only 13 African-American female superintendents in the United States in 1984 (Askew, 2004). Baldwin began her career as a teacher for 14 years, then moved into positions as an assistant principal, principal, and then finally appointed to the superintendency. While her ascent into the superintendency position followed a path similar to that found in national research about the career paths of superintendents, the timetable for her attainment of the position was nine years longer than that of her male counterparts (Askew, 2004). Baldwin's leadership characteristics included a positive attitude and an emphasis on teamwork and collaboration (Askew, 2004).

Alligood (2005) conducted a qualitative study with 10 female superintendents in Georgia to describe demographic characteristics and the perceived isolation of these women. At the time of this study, the number of females in the superintendency in Georgia had risen to 39 (Alligood, 2005). The female superintendents in this study described feelings of isolation, as well as strategies for overcoming the isolation, such as family time, supportive relationships with subordinates, and distributive leadership practices. The demographic profile of the females, who ranged in age from 46 to 59,

was varied. Five (50%) earned doctorate degrees, and four (40%) held specialist degrees. Two (20%) of the women were African-American. Eight (80%) of the women had been building level administrators. School district size of the study participants varied from 850 students to 52,438 students. It should be noted that the Lee (2000) and Pipkin (2002) studies included all or almost all of the female superintendents in the state of Georgia to create demographic profiles. The Alligood (2005) study included only 10 of the 39 females in the superintendency at the time; therefore, consideration should be taken when making comparisons between the results of this study and those of the Lee (2000) and Pipkin (2002) studies. Alligood (2005) concluded the study with recommendations for further studies pertaining to female superintendents.

Swain (2006) conducted a mixed-methods study of both male and female superintendents in 2006 to examine their perceptions of the position of superintendent and to present a demographic profile of superintendents in Georgia. Eighty-five of the 180 total Georgia superintendents were surveyed, and a demographic profile was created of the respondents. Swain (2006) found that the demographic profile of Georgia school superintendents did not vary much from the national profile of superintendents (Glass, 2001) in the areas of age, gender, and race; however, a difference in the area of experience was noted. Georgia superintendents were characterized as primarily “white (91.8%) males (72.9%) between the ages of 51-60 (71.7%)” (Swain, 2006, p. 130). While the national sample (Glass, 2001) indicated 52% of superintendents with an average of more than 14 years in the position, only 10% of Georgia superintendents in the Swain (2006) study had this same amount of experience. One significant difference between male and female superintendent

perceptions of the main challenge of the position of superintendent was reported in the analysis of data in this study. Swain (2006) indicated that “female superintendents within the state of Georgia reported time management as a greater concern than male superintendents” (p. 133). Finally, Georgia school superintendents in this study indicated that their personal characteristics and instructional leadership abilities attributed to their attainment of the position. Swain (2006) concluded that more qualified women and minorities need to be identified for educational leadership positions in Georgia.

Two studies conducted in 2009 resembled the studies conducted by Crawford (1992), Lee (2000), and Pipkin (2002). Whiting Snell’s (2009) study used mixed-methodology to examine the perceptions of the barriers of the superintendency and strategies for overcoming these barriers. Of the 47 women holding the position of superintendent in 2009, 25 subjects participated in the survey, and seven participated in in-depth interviews with demographic data collected. Nine themes emerged pertaining to barriers and strategies that were similar to the results of the previous studies. The demographic information was similar to that of Swain (2006).

Miller’s (2009) qualitative study was akin to the Crawford (1992), Lee (2000), and Pipkin (2002) studies as this study pertained to barriers faced by females in the superintendency and methods of overcoming those barriers. Miller (2009) interviewed five female superintendents in the state of Georgia who had between one and six years of experience in the position. Themes pertaining to the barriers of attaining the position included relocation, responsibilities for home and family, the selection process, feminine expectations, ‘the good old boy’ network, relocation of family, and balance. Most of the

women perceived gender discrimination in the hiring process. Similar to the results of the Swain (2006) study, Miller (2009) reported time management as an issue associated with gender and the superintendency. The subjects of the Miller (2009) study perceived a higher level of stress and many more hours of work than their male counterparts. They also noted difficulty balancing family and work responsibilities. As a solution to this barrier, four of the women in this study hired additional help at home. Other strategies for overcoming the perceived barriers included spirituality, increased spouse participation in family responsibilities, and stress relief.

Miller's (2009) study contained an additional component of perceived leadership styles. All five of the female superintendents in this study identified a collaborative or team approach to leadership. The participants discussed nurturing and supporting others, as well as collaborating with all stakeholders to work toward goals, which Miller (2009) reported to be closely aligned with research pertaining to a more feminine style of leadership. Miller (2009) recommended that further research "focus on the leadership styles of women and men superintendents to determine if more women adopt a collaborative approach" (p. 145).

Overall, studies of women in Georgia who attained the superintendency showed many common themes. The demographic data of this population indicated a gradual increase in the number of females in the position of superintendent in Georgia; however, an equal number of male and female leaders in this position had yet to be attained. The age, career paths, and educational backgrounds of these women also appeared to have been consistent. The school system demographics of the subjects seemed to be varied in all of the studies. The problems and barriers noted by the

women in these studies typically included stereotyping, experience, hiring practices, time management, and family responsibilities. The use of mentors, obtaining political support, educational preparation, and administrative experience were all commonly employed solutions to attain the position or overcome the perceived barriers to the superintendency. While much was known about the personal demographics, gender barriers, and strategies for overcoming barriers for female superintendent in Georgia, what was not adequately described in the research was the leadership behaviors of this population. One qualitative study with a sample size of only five female superintendents in Georgia had an added component of self-perceived leadership styles; however, no formal measure was used to determine these styles (Miller, 2009). At the time of this study, no research in the state of Georgia had determined methods of identifying leadership behaviors which might account for successful attainment and maintenance of the superintendency by females. This information, if known, could build a more comprehensive picture of a practicing female superintendent in the state of Georgia. Appendix B includes a summary of studies related to female school superintendents in the state of Georgia.

The Bolman and Deal Framework for Organizations

Organizational leadership theories commonly placed leadership behaviors within a single framework; for example, the trait-skills, transformational, contingency, path-goal, and psychodynamic leadership theories were all based upon one central leadership behavior (Northouse, 2004). Single frameworks ignored the possibility that effective leaders could utilize multiple leadership behaviors (Bolman & Deal, 2003). Bolman and Deal's (1984, 1991, 1997, 2003, & 2008) model of leadership within

organizations was a well-known typology which consolidated many organizational leadership theories. Because of its multi-dimensional nature, the Bolman and Deal (1984, 1991, 1997, 2003, & 2008) model described leadership behaviors in terms of four “frames,” which were described as lenses through which the leader saw and organized the world. Frames could be inaccurate because of filters that individuals placed on items in the world that they did not want to see. Frames also helped leaders make sense of their organization while serving as guides for decision-making. Leaders exhibited predominant frames which they used most when viewing leadership issues and problem-solving solutions; however, within this practical model for exploring leadership, Bolman and Deal (1984, 1991, 1997, 2003, & 2008) categorized leadership behaviors and strategies in terms of four metaphorical frames: structural, human resource, political, and symbolic. Bolman and Deal (2008) suggested that effectiveness could be increased if the leader recognized the frame in which problems arose and adapted the appropriate solution to the appropriate frame. Similar to current leadership research, successful and effective leaders possessed each of these four frames and integrated them into their leadership responses to situations (Bolman & Deal, 2008). Figure 3 represents a graphic of Bolman and Deal’s (2008) leadership frames.



Figure 3. Graphic of Leadership Frames Adapted from Bolman and Deal (2008)

The first frame in Bolman and Deal's model, the structural frame, depicts those who are highly bureaucratic in their leadership roles. The structural framework provides stability for the organization through rules, policies, and a hierarchy of leadership. Leaders operating within the structural frame are task-oriented; these leaders define the goals of the organization and establish roles for people within the organization. As the organization evolves or becomes more complex, the leader may need to go from a top-down, vertical approach to structure to a lateral coordination that allows for more flexibility and personalization. In the structural frame, problems are solved analytically via restructuring of the organization or creating new policies or rules (Bolman & Deal, 2008).

The human resource frame, the second frame within Bolman and Deal's typology, places value on individuals and the relationships between people within the organization. Leaders functioning within the human resource frame exhibit care and

concern for the organization's workers, empowering them through validating feelings and meeting basic needs. Diversity within a democratic workplace is promoted within the human resource frame. This employee-centered orientation increases productivity and collaboration within an organization (Bolman & Deal, 2008).

Bolman and Deal's third frame, the political frame, holds the assumption that different factions within an organization use bargaining and negotiation for the scarce resources available. Within the political frame, individual and group interests drive competition among members. Leaders successfully executing the political frame must utilize strategic planning, negotiation, and power effectively and pragmatically in order to succeed. Political skills of these leaders should include agenda setting, networking, mapping the political terrain, and bargaining and negotiating. Effective leaders use constructive politics to foster efficient and ethical organizations (Bolman & Deal, 2008).

Within the last frame, the symbolic frame, leaders build a shared vision and identity for the organization. Leaders functioning within the symbolic frame motivate others and increase enthusiasm within the organization through the development of rituals and symbols. Bolman and Deal (2008) indicate that "culture anchors and organization's identity and sense of self." Organizations with rich culture become positive, cohesive, and effective. In effect, the leader fosters an organizational culture which creates a common sense of purpose and commitment to organizational goals (Bolman & Deal, 2008).

Bolman and Deal Framework in Educational Organizations

In an attempt to describe effective leadership orientations within the field of educational leadership, researchers have examined Bolman and Deal's organizational

leadership framework for frames or combination of frames employed most and least often by leaders in education. Many studies (Beck-Frazier, et al., 2007; Bista & Glasman, 1998; Bolman & Deal, 1991, 1992; Griffin, 2005; Maitra, 2007) indicated that leaders within the field employed the human resource or the structural frames most often. Further research narrowed the focus to gender and leadership orientations within this conceptual structure.

Bolman and Deal conducted two studies within the realm of educational organizations to analyze their framework. In the first study, Bolman and Deal (1991) used the LOI survey and a narrative to analyze frame orientations of central office officials in school districts, college presidents, and administrators in higher education. The narrative component of this research consisted of the participants describing the manner in which leadership situations might be handled. The results were coded within the four frames of the model. The researchers found that leaders employed one or two frames frequently in their jobs. Only 24% of the participants employed three frames, and less than 1% used all four frames. Of the four frames, Bolman and Deal (1991) determined that the symbolic frame was the least utilized frame of all leaders, with the exception of college presidents. The other three frames were used with similar frequency among the participants; however, the symbolic and political frames were most likely to predict effectiveness of the leader. In relation to gender, there were no significant differences on any of the variables between males and females. In similar leadership positions, males and females were more alike than different in their frame usage; however, women rated significantly higher than men on the structural, political, and symbolic leadership frames.

A second study was conducted by Bolman and Deal in 1992. Again, mixed-methodology was utilized to analyze the frame orientations of educational leaders. Specifically, 208 K-12 school administrators in the state of Florida and 220 school administrators from the country of Singapore served as participants in this study. The LOI Survey was used in combination with interviews. While the study conducted in 1991 indicated that only the symbolic and political frames predicted effectiveness, this study indicated that all four frames were significantly associated with leadership effectiveness. Furthermore, the structural frame was found to predict managerial effectiveness while the symbolic frame was noted to predict leadership effectiveness. Similar to the study conducted a year earlier (Bolman & Deal, 1991), women rated higher than men on every frame and employed the symbolic frame more often than men. The majority of participants from both Florida and Singapore used one or two frames most often. The symbolic and political frames were utilized less frequently by all groups, regardless of gender or race.

Other researchers have used the Bolman and Deal (1984, 1991, 1997, 2003, & 2008) framework to identify leadership orientations of female leaders within educational organizations. In a study of 15 female deans of education from across the United States, Beck-Frazier, et al (2007) utilized the Bolman and Deal (1984, 1991, 1997, 2003, & 2008) framework to characterize these leaders. The female deans in this study employed the human resource frame most often, followed by the structural, political, and symbolic frames. Female deans almost always exhibited characteristics of the human resource frame. These leaders did not perceive multiple uses of frames, which

the researchers pointed out to be in contrast with Bolman and Deal's (1984) assertion that multiple frames were needed for effective leaders.

Similar to the Beck-Frazier, et al (2007) study, Guidry (2007) examined the perceived leadership orientations of female deans using the Bolman and Deal (1984, 1991, 1997, 2003, & 2008) model. Again, female deans were found to utilize the human resource frame most often, but in combination with paired or multiple frames. No significant differences were found between the variables of race, age, time in position, discipline area background, parental status, or marital status. Guidry (2007) noted that female deans are typically white, aged 51-60, married with children, and with 0-5 years of experience.

Many other studies also employed the Bolman and Deal framework (1984, 1991, 1997, 2003, & 2008) to identify the leadership orientations of leaders within secondary and postsecondary institutions. Some studies indicated little or no differences in the types and frequency of usage of leadership frames by gender. For example, in a mixed-methods study of 21 college and university presidents in West Virginia, DeFrank-Cole (2003) found no statistically significant differences in leadership frames between male and female presidents; however, the political frame was utilized slightly more often by men than by women. During the interview portion of the study, it was noted that women perceived themselves as using the human resource frame more often than men. Similarly, Thompson's (2000) quantitative study of 472 subordinates to leaders from secondary and postsecondary institutions found no significant differences between men and women in their leadership frames. Thompson (2000) also noted that leaders who utilize three or four frames are perceived to be more effective in their leadership roles.

Participants in Griffin's (2005) quantitative study of 455 chairpersons from baccalaureate and master's colleges demonstrated single-frame orientation most often, regardless of gender. The human resource frame was the most frequently used single frame orientation for both males and females; however, female chairs displayed an overall higher utilization of the human resource frame than male chairs, regardless of discipline. No respondents, male or female, used the symbolic frame as a single frame orientation.

In contrast, other studies indicated significant differences in the way males and females utilized leadership frames within educational organizations. In a mixed-methods study of 49 female and 49 male secondary school principals in Pennsylvania, Davis (1996) discovered that 4 of the 5 top users of managerial frames were female and that all infrequent users of frames were male. Both genders in this study reported most frequent use of the human resource frame; however, female leaders also reported using multi-frames while males reported using only one or two frames more frequently. In addition, women were more likely than men to emphasize the charismatic component of the symbolic frame, the organized dimension of the structural frame, and the powerful dimension of the political frame.

Echols-Tobe (1999), Maitra (2007), and Shah (2008) found that female college presidents utilized multiple frames of leadership. Echols-Tobe's (1999) mixed-methods study of African-American female college presidents indicated that almost all subjects had multiple frames of leadership. The 13 female college presidents in Welch's (2002) study differentiated leadership frames by age. In this study, female college presidents with 20 or more years of experience exhibited the human resource or symbolic frame as

their dominant orientation while presidents with less than 20 years of experience exhibited a multi-frame leadership style. Additionally, 69% of subjects used multiple frames in the following order: human resource, symbolic, structural, and political frames. Yet again, most of the 317 female college vice-presidents in the Maitra (2007) study utilized multiple frames of leadership and scored highest in the human resource frame, followed by the structural, symbolic, and political frames. Shah's (2008) study of 254 university presidents yielded similar results, in that most presidents employed a multi-frame orientation. Descriptive statistics in this study indicated that white female presidents under the age of 60 more frequently utilized multiple frames of leadership. No correlation could be made in this study between the leadership frame and gender, race, age, or marital status.

Three studies employed the Bolman and Deal (1984, 1991, 1997, 2003, & 2008) framework to examine the leadership frames of female school superintendents, as well as their personal and professional characteristics. Flak (1998) utilized a mixed-methods approach to survey and interview three female superintendents from a Mid-Atlantic state. Subordinates to the superintendents were also given the survey. One subject was African-American, and the other two were white. The mean age of the women in this study was 54, which was 4.5 years older than the national average at the time. All three participants held doctoral degrees, which was also similar to the national average. All three participants had 10 or more years in the classroom as teachers, and two followed the typical career patterns as teachers, assistant principals, principals, central office leaders, and then superintendents. The mean number of years in the position of the superintendent was 8, compared to 10.3 nationally at the time. Finally, Flak (1998)

found that the women superintendents in this study employed more than one frame in their leadership style.

Edmunds (2007) also utilized a mixed-methods approach to examine the leadership frames of female superintendents with similar outcomes to the Flak (1998) study. Edmunds (2007) interviewed six and surveyed 71 female superintendents in New Jersey. Female superintendents in this study indicated that their leadership orientation was multi-framed with the highest use of the human resource frame. These superintendents perceived themselves as using the political frame least often. The six female superintendents who were interviewed described their leadership styles as participative and inclusive. Most interviewees had experienced gender bias in the past but thought that prejudices against females in the position of superintendent were dissipating. The female superintendents in this study presented a similar demographic profile to that of the national profile at the time.

Kolb's (2009) recent study examined gender differences in leadership frames of Texas superintendents as perceived by lower-ranking administrators. Kolb (2009) administered the Leadership Orientations Instrument-Other (Bolman and Deal, 1990) to 484 high-ranking leaders within 198 school districts in Texas. Findings indicated that female superintendents in Texas ranked higher than males in each of the four frames. The variables of superintendent tenure, setting, and district size did not change the findings. When superintendent educational background (degree) was added, significance continued for the symbolic, political, and human resource frames. Interestingly, when the variable of age was added, all significant findings disappeared.

Researchers used the Bolman and Deal framework (1984, 1991, 1997, 2003, & 2008) to attempt to determine gender-specific behaviors of educational leaders; however, there were many inconsistencies in the findings. While some studies (Bolman & Deal 1991; Burks, 1992) showed no differences between genders in their utilization of each of the four dimensions within the Bolman and Deal framework, further research (Beck-Frazier, et al, 2007; Griffin, 2005; Maitra, 2007) found that female educational leaders functioned more often than males within the human resource frame. In contrast, Bolman and Deal (1992) found that female educational administrators scored slightly higher than males on all four frames. Other recent studies (Guidry, 2007, McGlone, 2005) confirmed that female leaders within school systems operated most often in the human resource frame; however, multiple frames of leadership were routinely practiced. Finally, Flak (1998) purported that female superintendents did not operate predominantly in any one frame; rather, female leaders in this top position displayed multiple leadership frames. Therefore, the research appeared inconclusive as to the leadership orientations of female educational leaders within the context of Bolman and Deal's four-frame leadership orientation theory. A summary of studies related to the Bolman and Deal Framework with a gender component can be found in Appendix C.

Summary

This review of research and related literature first provided an overview of the history of the public school superintendency on the national and state levels. Current research pertaining to women in the superintendency at each level were also examined. With this foundation, the Bolman and Deal multi-dimensional organizational framework was described. Current research studies which related to the organizational leadership

behaviors of female leaders within the public school setting using this theoretical framework were then examined. Data was not current as to the age, race, years of experience, educational level, or school system size of women in the state of Georgia who currently held the position of superintendent. In addition, no studies in the state of Georgia had used the Bolman and Deal framework for examining the leadership behaviors of women in this top position. No studies from this state employed Bolman and Deal's process to align leadership behaviors of female superintendents with organizational structure.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

Although much had been written in the literature about the leadership traits of educational leaders, few studies had focused on these traits in female school superintendents. Even less attention had been given to examining these traits within a multi-dimensional framework, such as that of Bolman and Deal (1984, 1991, 1997, 2003, & 2008). No studies within Georgia had used the Bolman and Deal (1984, 1991, 1997, 2003, & 2008) framework to classify female superintendent leadership behaviors. This descriptive study utilized both quantitative and qualitative data to obtain information on Georgia female superintendent's perceptions about their own leadership behaviors in terms of Bolman and Deal's four frames of leadership. In addition, the demographic data gained from this study about female superintendents from Georgia was compared to the most recent national study of female superintendents. This chapter described the study's research questions, research design, population studied, instrumentation used, the pilot study, and the data analysis.

Research Questions

The overarching question for this study was as follows: To what extent do female superintendents in Georgia exhibit leadership behaviors within Bolman and Deal's four organizational frames? The following sub-questions were used to answer the overarching question:

1. To what extent do female superintendents in Georgia vary in terms of their personal (educational level, years of experience, race) and school district (location and size) demographics?
2. To what extent do female superintendents in Georgia vary in terms of their leadership behaviors within Bolman and Deal's four organizational frames?
3. Is there a significant relationship between school district size and the leadership styles and leadership frames used by female superintendents in the state of Georgia?

Research Design

Creswell (2003) and Hesse-Biber (2010) asserted that a mixed-method of data collection and analysis was appropriate when the population to be studied was a small group. Triangulation of data strengthened a study and was achieved through the use of both quantitative and qualitative methods. This research was a descriptive study to obtain information on Georgia female superintendent demographic information as it might relate to their leadership behaviors within Bolman and Deal's (1984, 1991, 1997, 2003, & 2008) framework. According to Nardi (2006), the goal of descriptive research was to profile a group of people to gather information about their demographics or characteristics.

Quantitative research helped the researcher describe "the number of people involved in certain behaviors" (Nardi, 2006, p. 16), measure the behaviors, and make assumptions about the group as a whole from these measurements. Additionally, quantitative survey research was effective for studying multiple behaviors in one survey and for comparing the results with other studies, as well as for using online methods of

distribution (Creswell, 2003; Nardi, 2006). The survey questionnaire was cross-sectional, in that it was given once to one sample of respondents (Nardi, 2006). For these reasons, an online survey was appropriate for determining the number of female superintendents demonstrating each leadership behavior or multiple frames of leadership to assess the leadership behaviors of the administrators involved.

Campbell (1996) indicated that more qualitative research was needed to capture the women's perspective of leadership, as leadership had been currently defined from the male perspective. Accordingly, this study sought to describe the female perspective of leadership within the superintendency. Therefore, basic interpretive qualitative information (Litchman, 2006; Merriam, 2002) was useful to strengthen the quantitative findings and to broaden the research analysis. Qualitative data was also used to supplement the quantitative data, as the survey questionnaire was limited to the four orientations within the Bolman and Deal framework. Qualitative data was collected through open-ended questions. This data collection method was used to gain a more in-depth understanding of female superintendent's feelings, impressions and viewpoints about their own leadership behaviors. This design was the most appropriate to answer the research questions relating to female superintendent leadership behaviors within Bolman and Deal's (1984, 1991, 1997, 2003, & 2008) framework.

Population

The population of the study was exclusively female superintendents from public schools in Georgia in 2011. A database of female school superintendents in Georgia and their email addresses had been built using data available from the Georgia Public Education Directory (Georgia Department of Education, 2011), district websites, and the

Georgia School Superintendents Association (GSSA) superintendent directory (2011). Since the Georgia Public Education Directory (Georgia Department of Education, 2011) contained the names, addresses, phone numbers, and email addresses for every superintendent in the state, this information was available for direct sampling. In addition, the GSSA (2011) directory contained demographic data of race and gender for each superintendent. This information was used to verify the gender of the superintendents. Thus, the population to which surveys were sent included all practicing female superintendents in Georgia in 2011 ($N = 54$).

Instrumentation

The quantitative portion of this study utilized an existing survey instrument, the Leadership Orientation Instrument (LOI), as developed by Lee G. Bolman and Terrence E. Deal (1990), along with standard demographic data and open-ended questions (See Appendix A). There were parallel versions of the LOI. The LOI-Self was employed to examine the leaders' self-perceptions about their leadership orientations. The LOI-Other measured others' perceptions about the leadership characteristics of the leader. The LOI-Self, section one was used for the purposes of this study. Permission was requested and granted for the use of the LOI-Self and to modify the instrument if needed for the present study (See Appendix B).

The LOI-Self was utilized in previous research within education (Beck, et al., 2007; Bista & Glasman, 1998; Patterson, Dahle, Nix, Collins, & Abbot, 2002; Thompson, 2000) and recent dissertations within the educational environment (DeFrank-Cole, 2003; Echols- Tobe, 1999; Flak, 1998; Griffin, 2005; Guidry, 2007; Harrell, 2006; Maitra, 2007; Shah, 2008; Welch, 2002). The LOI was found to be a valid,

quantifiable, and reliable instrument in previously conducted research. Bolman (2010) published internal consistency data for the LOI on his website, and this data is represented in Table 1. Reliability statistics for the LOI were based on 1,308 ratings from managers in business and education. Along with previously established use-frequency reliability, another benefit of employing the LOI survey in the present research study was that it aligned with the review of the literature and the research questions.

Table 1

Internal Consistency Data for Bolman and Deal's Leadership Frames

	Split Half Correlation	Spearman Brown Coefficient	Guttman (Rulon) Coefficient	Coefficient Alpha (all items)	Coefficient Alpha (odd items)	Coefficient Alpha (even items)
Structural Frame	.875	.933	.933	.920	.856	.834
Human Resource Frame	.867	.929	.929	.931	.902	.843
Political Frame	.837	.911	.911	.913	.839	.842
Symbolic Frame	.882	.937	.936	.931	.846	.887

(Bolman, 2010)

Note. From *Research With Leadership Orientations Instrument*, by L. Bolman, 2010, retrieved August 22, 2010, from <http://www.leebolman.com/orientations.htm>.

Participants were first presented with section one of the LOI-Self, as provided by Bolman (2010). The LOI-Self was comprised of three sections pertaining to leadership orientations. As in other dissertation research, only the first section of the LOI-Self was used for the purposes of this research. Next, participants answered nine demographic questions. A final section containing open-ended questions was added to the end of the

survey. The open-ended questions were intended to verify the findings of the LOI-Self and complete the qualitative portion of this present study.

Section I of the LOI-Self

Section I of the LOI-Self contained 32 items with a 5-point Likert scale for the respondents to record their level of agreement or disagreement with each statement, using the following scale: 1 = Never; 2 = Occasionally; 3 = Sometimes, 4 = Often; and 5= Always. For example, a self-rating of “1” indicated that the respondent perceived that she never demonstrated the described behavior, and a self-rating of “5” meant that the respondent perceived that she exhibited the described behavior all of the time. The highest mean score indicated which of the four frames was perceived as the primary leadership behavior. Each of the four frames contained eight corresponding questions in a consistent sequence. The frame and corresponding questions for Section I are summarized in Table 2.

Table 2

Questions Corresponding to Frames in Section I of the LOI-Self

Frame	Section I Questions
Structural	1, 5, 9, 13, 17, 21,25, 29
Human Resource	2, 6, 10, 14, 18, 22, 26, 30
Political	3, 7, 11, 15, 19, 23, 27, 31
Symbolic	4, 8, 12, 16, 20, 24, 28, 32

Within each of the four frames, the items were further broken down into sub-scales. Bolman (2010) indicated that the four frame measures were primarily employed in research while the sub-scales were used most often for management development.

The 4-item sub-scales and corresponding items within the LOI-Self are shown in Table 3.

Table 3

Items Corresponding to Sub-Scales in the LOI-Self

Sub-Scales within Frames	Items
Analytic	1, 9, 17, 25
Supportive	2, 10, 18, 26
Powerful	3, 11,19,27
Inspirational	4,12,20,28
Organized	5,13,21,29
Participative	6,14,22,30
Adroit	7,15,23,31
Charismatic	8,16,24,32

Demographic Questions

The participants answered personal and professional demographic questions. In order to understand how opinions about female superintendent leadership behaviors varied by personal and professional factors, the instrument requested survey participants to indicate their age range, ethnicity, marital status, number of children, degree(s) earned, and tenure as an administrator. An additional question pertained to the career path of the superintendent as a teacher, assistant principal, principal, central office administrator, and assistant superintendent. School district demographic information was added to determine if female school superintendent leadership behaviors varied by school district size.

Open-Ended Questions

The last part of the survey contained four open-ended questions which represented the qualitative portion of this study. The researcher used the open-ended questions to support the leadership frame results of the LOI-Self. The open-ended questions were constructed based upon the research questions, the literature review, and Bolman and Deal (1984, 1991, 1997, 2003, & 2008) frames. The open-ended questions allowed the female superintendents to describe their leadership styles in their own words. Because research question two was demographic, all open-ended questions related to research question one. Content validity was established through correlation of the open-ended questions with the literature. See Table 4 for this correlation.

Table 4

Analysis of Open-Ended Questions

Question Number	Question	Concept	Research
1	What are your strengths as a leader? Weaknesses?	Leadership characteristics or frames of female superintendents.	Bolman and Deal, 2008; Katz, S. J. (2004). Eagly, A. H., & Johannesen-Schmidt, M. C. (2001) Katz, S. J. (2004). Sharratt, G, & Derrington, M.L, (1993) Pew, K. U. (2002).
2	What is the administrative structure of your district? Top-down, lateral, etc.	Structural Frame	Bolman and Deal, 2008; Burks, T. D. (1992) Pew, K. U. (2002). Thompson, M. D. (2000). Katz, S. J. (2004).
3	How do you develop and sustain relationships with the administrators and board members in your district?	Human Resource Frame	Bolman and Deal, 2008; Burks, T. D. (1992) Katz, S. J. (2004). Pew, K. U. (2002). Thompson, M. D. (2000).
4	How do you motivate administrators, faculty, and staff to work toward common goals?	Symbolic Frame	Bolman and Deal, 2008; Burks, T. D. (1992) Katz, S. J. (2004). Pew, K. U. (2002). Thompson, M. D. (2000).

Pilot Study

Although the LOI-Self had previously established reliability and validity, pilot testing with a similar audience was conducted to assure that the survey instrument and open-ended questions were clear and understandable. Teijlingen and Hundley (2001) indicated that the main advantage of conducting a pilot study was that it tested the design of the study. Also, a pilot study assisted the researcher in determining where the full-scale study might fail, “where research protocols may not be followed, or whether

proposed methods or instruments are inappropriate or too complicated” (p. 1). A pilot study could be used to assess the clarity of the directions and the time it took to complete the survey (Nardi, 2006). Further, the researcher could utilize the feedback from the pilot study to modify any ambiguous open-ended questions (Teijlingen & Hundley, 2001).

The pilot study participants were chosen from current female administrators in the state of Georgia. These participants, while not yet superintendents, most closely resembled the target population and could be used in the pilot study because they did not form part of the final sample. The pilot participants could not be chosen from the current body of female superintendents in the state of Georgia because their participation a second time in the final study could yield biased results (Nardi, 2006). Additionally, the number of female superintendents in the state of Georgia was relatively small, and all were needed in the target population of the final study. In order to represent the target population more equally, the pilot study participants were purposefully chosen to ensure similarity to the final population of female superintendents in Georgia in the factors of race, school district setting, and educational background (GSSA, 2010). The personal and professional demographic profile of the pilot study participants is depicted in Table 5.

The pilot study participants were sent an email to request participation in the pilot study. After agreement to participate was granted, surveys and Informed Consent Forms (see Appendix C) were sent via email to each of the five pilot study participants to determine their leadership orientations within the Bolman and Deal (1984, 1991, 1997, 2003, & 2008) framework. Feedback for both the survey and the open-ended

questions was requested by a comments box at the end of the survey. Results of the pilot study were used to refine the open-ended questions and the directions, as well as to locate potential problems in the study design. Once the pilot study was completed, the final survey was converted to an internet-based format using Question Pro (2011). The survey, similar to the converted document, can be found in Appendix D.

Table 5

Profile of the Pilot Study Participants

Subject	Title	Race	System Setting	Degree
1	Assistant Superintendent	African-American	Suburban	Doctorate
2	Assistant Superintendent	White	Rural	Educational Specialist
3	Deputy Superintendent	White	Suburban	Doctorate
4	Executive Director for Elementary Schools	African-American	Urban	Doctorate
5	Area Superintendent	White	Urban	Doctorate

Data Collection

The researcher first obtained permission to conduct the study from the Institutional Review Board (IRB) of Georgia Southern University (Appendix E). Once permission was obtained, the researcher compiled a database of female superintendents in Georgia and their email addresses from the Georgia School Superintendents Association (GSSA, 2011), which kept a current list on their website of superintendents for each system, as well as their contact information, race, and gender. Each female superintendent was sent an email message containing an invitation to

participate in the survey (Appendix F). The email informed the participants about the confidentiality of their responses, and stated that their identities were not to be revealed. The email also contained an attachment with informed consent information (Appendix C). The participants were informed that their consent to participate in the study was considered to be given by completing the online survey. This invitation also included an URL, which allowed the participant to enter the secure survey site to complete the survey. Participants were asked to complete the online survey within two weeks. To increase the response rate (Nardi, 2006), a reminder email was distributed at the end of the first week (Appendix G). After two weeks, a follow-up email to thank the respondents who had completed the survey was sent (Appendix H). Participants who had not responded were provided with the link to the survey and were encouraged to complete the survey within two weeks of the follow-up email. Because the time of the survey distribution coincided with the transition into a new school year, new female superintendents had been hired. The process was repeated for the new female superintendents.

Question Pro (2011), an online survey management company, managed the distribution and retrieval of the surveys. The company used a computer-generated identification number for each respondent so that the researcher would not be able to see the participant's email address and their response data simultaneously. This survey management company also organized the results and a confidential report was downloaded only by the researcher, thus further protecting the data. Any other electronic data, such as the superintendent database, was saved on a single desktop

computer that had appropriate security safeguards, such as unique identification of authorized users and password protection.

Analysis of Data

Responses from this survey were summarized using descriptive and inferential statistics. The anonymous survey data from Question Pro (2011) was exported directly into the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) Version 16.0 software (SPSS, Inc., 2008). The data was descriptive, using the frequency of responses for each variable, as well as the mean and standard deviation. The SPSS software used appropriate statistical tests to show significance or to determine which groups differ significantly. The independent variables identified within this study included personal (age, marital status, number of children, race, number of years of experience, educational level, career path) and school system (location, size) demographic data of Georgia female public school superintendents. The dependent variable within this study was the differential use of Bolman and Deal's leadership frames. The one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to examine the variable of school district size on single and multiple leadership frames. For example, the ANOVA helped examine how the primary leadership frame or a combination of specific leadership frames might vary by school district size of the respondents. The null hypothesis was the assumption that the results were due to chance (Sprinthall, 2003).

All statistical tables and descriptions developed by the researcher were then sent to a statistician for verification of accuracy. All frequency distribution tables for the demographic variables in this study were determined to be correct. Statistical analysis

and verification was provided for research questions pertaining to Bolman and Deal's (1984, 1991, 1997, 2003, & 2008) frames.

Qualitative data analyses involved the coding of responses to the open-ended questions to identify common themes and patterns shared by the female superintendents. Dedoose (2011) software was used to assist with coding the responses of the participants. During Level 1 coding, the participant's actual written words were examined and coded. The written data was formatted for Level 1 coding in Microsoft Word and then entered into Dedoose (2011) using the identification numbers assigned to each participant by Question Pro (2011). Next, Level 1 codes were clustered into categories of codes for Level 2. Level 2 coding were then examined for refined themes for Level 3 coding. Level 2 and Level 3 coding procedures were completed in Dedoose (2011). After the themes were identified, frequency counts were accumulated and analyzed. These results were presented in chart and narrative forms and then integrated into the literature comparison.

Comparison to Other Studies in Georgia and in the United States

Both qualitative and quantitative data were compared to the findings from the *American Association of School Administrators' National Survey of Women in the Superintendency and the Central Office* (Brunner & Grogan, 2007), which was the most recent national study of female superintendents. In addition, comparisons to similar research pertaining to gender, leadership, and the Bolman and Deal (1984, 1991, 1997, 2003, & 2008) model were drawn. This comparison information will be discussed in Chapter 5.

Summary

This chapter introduced the study plan and methodology. The researcher's goal was to gain information about female superintendent leadership behaviors in the context of the Bolman and Deal (1984, 1991, 1997, 2003, & 2008) theoretical framework. This information was gathered by quantitative means of a survey created by Bolman and Deal (1990), with a qualitative component of open-ended questions designed to elicit specific examples and feedback from the respondents. This mixed-methodology was used to create a more comprehensive representation of current female superintendents in the state of Georgia in 2011 and the leadership behaviors that they exhibited. The survey was dispersed electronically to all female superintendents in the state of Georgia. The quantitative data was analyzed using SPSS software and reported in terms of descriptive and inferential statistics. The qualitative responses were categorized and described by common themes, then integrated into the narrative.

CHAPTER 4

REPORT OF DATA AND DATA ANALYSIS

Introduction

This study utilized mixed-methodology to examine the demographics and leadership orientations of female public school superintendents in Georgia. The research of Bolman and Deal (1984, 1991, 1997, 2003, & 2008) provided the theoretical basis for the analysis of the participants' leadership orientations. This chapter begins with a summary of the research questions and design. A profile of the respondents is then presented. The next section reports the results of the data analysis related to the research questions. This chapter closes with a summary of the data.

Research Questions

The overarching question for this study was as follows: To what extent do female superintendents in Georgia exhibit leadership behaviors within Bolman and Deal's four organizational frames? The following sub-questions were used to answer the primary research question:

1. To what extent do female superintendents in Georgia vary in terms of their personal (educational level, years of experience, race) and school district (location and size) demographics?
2. To what extent do female superintendents in Georgia vary in terms of their leadership behaviors within Bolman and Deal's four organizational frames?
3. Is there a significant relationship between any of the demographic variables (educational, professional, and personal backgrounds) and the

leadership styles and leadership behaviors of female superintendents in the state of Georgia?

Research Design

The research design of this study was presented through a descriptive survey approach in which both quantitative and qualitative data were collected and analyzed. Specifically, the Leadership Orientations Instrument-Self (LOI-S) survey (Bolman, 1990) was utilized, along with demographic and open-ended questions to answer the research questions. Information about the validity and reliability of this instrument was presented in chapter 3.

First, a pilot study was conducted to refine the survey in order to ensure that the directions and questions were clear and understandable. After the pilot study was concluded, the survey was sent electronically to all female school superintendents listed on the Georgia School Superintendents Association (2011) website. Initial invitation emails were sent in July 2011 using Question Pro (2011), a web-based survey company (see Appendix F). At the end of the first week, an email reminder (see Appendix G) the completion of the surveys was automatically sent by the Question Pro (2011) system to all participants who had not completed the survey requesting. After the tenth day, a second request (see Appendix H) was sent to all superintendents thanking them if they had completed the survey and asking those who had not completed the survey to do so within four days. Due to superintendent turnover between school years, new female superintendents who were hired by August or September 2011 were also given the opportunity to complete the survey. A total of 54 female superintendents, representing

all female superintendents in the state of Georgia in 2011, were sent email invitations to participate in the survey.

Pilot Study

A pilot study was conducted to assure that the survey instrument and open-ended questions were clear and understandable. The participants for the pilot study were current administrators, including principals and assistant superintendents, in the state of Georgia. The participants for the pilot study could not be selected from the current pool of female superintendents, as all current female superintendents were needed for the study. In addition, the pilot participants could not be chosen from the current body of female superintendents in the state of Georgia because their participation a second time in the final study could yield biased results (Nardi, 2006). Female administrators were chosen because they most closely resembled the target population of female superintendents. For this reason, the participants for the pilot study were purposefully selected to be varied in the attributes of race, school district size, school district location, and educational level.

After IRB approval, the survey and informed consent letter were sent by email to five pilot study participants. Feedback for both the survey and the open-ended questions was requested by means of a comment box at the end of the survey. Feedback was received from four of five pilot study participants and was positive. The majority of pilot study participants, 75%, indicated that the survey was easy to complete online and that most of the instructions were clear. The researcher employed the feedback from the pilot study participants to refine the survey directions for the demographic question pertaining to previous positions held. It was recommended by

several of the pilot study participants that the researcher use the words “check all that apply” so that respondents would better understand that more than one option could be marked. Once the pilot study was completed and changes were made to the survey, the final survey was converted to an internet-based format using Question Pro (2011). The final survey, similar to the conversion to an internet-based format, can be found in Appendix D.

Respondents

All female school superintendents within the state of Georgia in 2011 were surveyed to secure information about their personal and school system demographics and their perceived leadership orientations within the Bolman and Deal (1984, 1991, 1997, 2003, & 2008) framework. Turnover in the position of superintendent between school years occurred during the time frame of this study. Originally, the email addresses of 58 female superintendents were obtained through the Georgia School Superintendents Association (GSSA, 2010) website. Two female superintendents who were originally listed in the GSSA directory had resigned during a publicized standardized test issue at the onset of the study and were eliminated from the study. Another two female superintendents listed on the GSSA directory had moved or retired between school years; thus, they were also eliminated from this study. Interim superintendents were replaced by new superintendents, both male and female. Therefore, a total of 54 female school superintendents working in Georgia public school systems during 2011 represented the final population of the study. Of the 54 surveys sent electronically, 41 chose to participate in this study, which represented a return rate of 76%. Johnson and Christiansen (2012) indicate “response rates around 70% and

higher are generally considered acceptable” (p. 219) in educational research. Validation that this return rate was adequate to use for statistical analysis was also provided by an assistant director of a statistical consulting center. A demographic profile of the respondents can be found in the following section in answer to research question one.

Findings

The purpose of this study was to examine the leadership orientations of female public school superintendents in Georgia and to determine how these leadership orientations may vary by personal and professional demographic characteristics. After surveys were sent electronically to 54 female superintendents, 41 responses were received, representing a 76% return rate. Question Pro (2011), an online survey company, sent the researcher an encrypted raw data file to import into the Statistical Program for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 16.0. Data analysis utilizing SPSS generated descriptive statistics including frequencies, means, and standard deviations to determine the female superintendents’ demographics and leadership frames. SPSS was also used to conduct a one-way analysis of variance, which enabled the researcher to determine if a statistically significant difference was present between the means of the independent variables of age, race, marital status, number of children, educational background, tenure, school district size, school district setting, and superintendent career path, and the dependent variable of the use of leadership frames as defined by the results of the LOI-Self. All statistical tables and written descriptions developed by the researcher were then sent to a statistics consultant for verification of accuracy. All frequency distribution tables for the demographic variables in this study were

determined to be correct and statistical analysis and verification was provided by the consultant using SAS, version 9.2 (2009) software for research questions pertaining to Bolman and Deal's (1984, 1991, 1997, 2003, & 2008) frames.

Last, the qualitative data was analyzed by noting the emergent themes or patterns in responses and tabulating frequencies of these responses. These themes were then described in relation to the research questions.

Research Question 1: To what extent do female superintendents in Georgia vary in terms of their personal (educational level, years of experience, race) and school district (location and size) demographics?

Personal and professional demographic information was obtained from the second section of the survey in the form of nine forced-choice questions. This part of the survey provided a demographic profile of the respondents and helped to answer the first research question. It was a given that all respondents were female public school superintendents. The self-reported demographic variables included age, ethnicity, marital status, number of children, degree, tenure and previous positions held. One participant chose not to answer the demographic questions; thus, 40 participants represented the demographic profile of the respondents. The following data provides a more in-depth examination of the personal and professional demographics of the participants. Table 6 - Table 14 provide the frequency distribution of each of the nine demographic variables.

Age

The first survey item requested participants to classify their age categories. The age categories on the survey were as follows: 35 and under, 36-40, 41-45, 46-50, 51-

55, 56-60, 61-65, and 66+. Forty of the 41 participants answered this survey item. The participants' ages ranged from the 36-40 category and the 61-65 category, with the average age range falling in the 51-55 age category. The largest percentage of respondents (35%) fell in the 56 to 60 age category, with the second largest percentage of those responding (25%) in the 51 to 55 age group category. The third group (15%) represented the 46 to 50 age range, and the fourth group (12.50%), belonged to the 41 to 45 age group. The smallest percentage of those responding (5%) fell in the 36 to 40 age range category. Table 6 represents the frequency distribution of age groups among the participants.

Table 6

Frequency Distribution of Age of Participants

Age Group	F	%	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative %
35 and under	0	0%	0	0%
36 to 40	2	5.00%	2	5.00%
41 to 45	3	7.50%	5	12.50%
46 to 50	6	15.00%	11	27.50%
51 to 55	10	25.00%	21	52.50%
56 to 60	14	35.00%	35	87.50%
61 to 65	5	12.50%	40	100.00%
66+	0	0%	N/A	N/A
Total	40	100%	40	100%

Racial Background

The second survey item requested the participants to identify their racial backgrounds. The choices for this item included African- American, White, Hispanic, Native American, Asian American, Multiracial, and Other. Forty participants answered this question. The participants' predominant racial background was White (80%). The racial composition of all participants included 7 (17.50%) African-American, 32 (80%) White, and 1 (2.50%) Hispanic. No participants reported themselves to be Native American, Asian American, Multiracial, or Other. Table 7 shows the distribution of the racial background of the participants.

Table 7

Frequency Distribution of the Racial Background of the Participants

Race/Ethnicity	F	%	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative %
African-American	7	17.50%	7	17.50%
White	32	80.00%	39	97.50%
Hispanic	1	2.50%	40	100.00%
Total	40	100%	40	100%

Marital Status

The third survey item pertained to the marital status of the subjects. Marital status choices included married, divorced, widowed, or never married. Again, 40 of the 41 participants answered the demographic questions. The participants' marital status varied little; however, the largest percent were married (90%), followed by divorced (10%). None of the participants reported themselves to be widowed or never married.

Table 8 corresponds to the frequency distribution of the marital status of the participants.

Table 8

Frequency Distribution of the Marital Status of the Participants

Marital Status	F	%	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative %
Never Married	0	0%	N/A	N/A
Married	36	90%	36	90%
Divorced	4	10%	40	10%
Widowed	0	0%	N/A	N/A
Total	40	100%	40	100%

Number of Children

The fourth survey item requested the number of children of the respondents, with choices in this category being none, one, two, and three or more. Thirty-nine of the 41 participants answered this survey item. The participants' number of children ranged between one and three or more, as all participants reported having had children. The breakdown was as follows: nine (23.80%) had one child, 19 (48.72%) had two children, and 11 (28.21%) had three or more children. The majority of respondents had two children (SD .724). Table 9 represents the frequency distribution for the responses regarding the number of children of the participants.

Table 9

Frequency Distribution of the Number of Children of the Participants

Number of Children	F	%	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative %
None	0	0%	N/A	N/A
1	9	23.08%	9	23.08%
2	19	48.72%	28	71.80%
3 or More	11	28.21%	39	100.00%
Total	39	100%	39	100%

Education

The fifth demographic survey item requested the participants to indicate their highest level of education. Forty of the 41 participants answered this survey item. Survey choices in this area included the following degrees: bachelor's degree, master's degree, educational specialist degree, or doctorate degree. No participants reported having only a bachelor's degree. The highest level of education by percentage of all respondents was an educational specialist degree (47.50%), closely followed by doctorate degree (45%). A master's degree was the highest degree held by 7.5% of the participants. The participants' average education composition was an educational specialist degree (SD .628). Table 10 represents the frequency distribution of the educational level achieved by the participants of this study.

Table 10

Frequency Distribution of the Educational Level of the Participants

Degree	F	%	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative %
Bachelor's degree	0	0%	N/A	N/A
Master's degree	3	7.50%	3	7.50%
Educational Specialist degree	19	47.50%	22	55.00%
Doctorate	18	45.00%	40	100.00%
Total	40	100%	40	100%

Tenure

The sixth demographic item on the survey pertained to the average tenure (time in administration) for the subjects of the study. Forty of the 41 participants answered this survey item. Survey choices for this item included < 1 year, 1-8 years, or > 9 years. The highest percentage (85%) had spent >9 years in administration. No participants reported having had less than one year in administration, and 15% had spent between one and eight years in administration. Table 11 represents the frequency distribution of tenure in administration by the female superintendents who participated in this study.

Table 11

Tenure of the Participants

Years as an Administrator	F	%	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative %
<1 year	0	0%	N/A	N/A
1- 8 years	6	15%	6	15%
> 9 years	34	85%	40	100%
Total	40	100%	40	100%

Career Path

The respondents' career path, or previous positions held, was the focus of the seventh demographic question on the survey. Thirty-nine of 41 participants answered this survey item. The choices for this item included classroom teacher, assistant principal, principal, central office administration, and assistant superintendent. Respondents could mark all items which applied to their career paths. All of the respondents to this survey item (100%) had spent time as a classroom teacher. In addition, 32 (82.05%) had served in the role of assistant principal, 30 (76.92%) as principal, 29 (74.36%) as a central office administrator, 21 (53.85%) as an assistant superintendent, and one (2.56%) as a business manager prior to becoming superintendent.

For this variable, participants were able to choose more than one option in a hierarchy for the variable of previous positions held. In order to create a one-option variable for statistical analysis, only the position held prior to obtaining a superintendent position was utilized. Table 12 shows the frequency distribution for the highest position

held prior to becoming a superintendent of the female superintendents in Georgia who responded to this study.

Table 12

Frequency Distribution of the Highest Position Held Previously by Participants

Job Title	F	%	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
Assistant Principal	1	2.5%	1	2.5%
Principal	7	17.5%	8	20%
Central Office Administrator	11	27.5%	19	47.5%
Assistant Superintendent	20	50%	39	97.5%
Business Administration	1	2.5%	40	100%
Total	39	100%	40	100%

School District Size

The school district size of the participant was the eighth item on the demographic portion of the survey. Forty of 41 respondents answered this survey item. The choices for this item included less than 999 students, 1,000-4,999 students, or >5,000 students. The average school district size for the participants in this study fell in the 1,000-4,000 student range (SD .594). The highest percentage of superintendents responding to the survey, 62.50%, worked in school districts with 1,000 to 4,000 students. School district sizes for the remaining participants were <999 students, 4 (10.00%) and >5000 students, 11 (27.50%). Table 13 represents the school district sizes of the participants involved in this study.

Table 13

Frequency Distribution of the School District Size of the Participants

Number of Students in District	F	%	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative %
Less than 999	4	10.00%	4	10.00%
1,000 to 4,999	25	62.50%	29	72.50%
Greater than 5,000	11	27.50%	40	100.00%
Total	40	100%	40	100%

School District Setting

The ninth and final demographic question on the survey requested information about the school district setting of the participant. Options for this question included the following: rural, suburban, or urban. The average school district setting for all participants was rural (SD .656). The majority (77.50%) of respondents work in a rural setting, followed by suburban (12.50%) or urban (10%) communities. Table 14 indicates the frequency distribution of the school district settings of the participants.

Table 14

Frequency Distribution of the School District Setting of the Participants

School Setting	F	%	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative %
Urban	4	10.00%	4	10.00%
Suburban	5	12.50%	9	22.50%
Rural	31	77.50%	40	100.00%
Total	40	100%	40	100%

Minority Female Superintendent Data

While the survey contained non-majority racial/cultural group selections of African-American, Hispanic, Native American, Asian American, Multiracial, and Other, none of the participants identified themselves as Native American, Asian American, Multiracial, or Other. The minority participants from the state of Georgia were African-American (17.5%) and Hispanic (2.5%). To protect the identity of the participant who indicated her race to be Hispanic, no further analysis could be reported. The typical African-American female superintendent in the state of Georgia in 2011 was very similar to the white counterpart. African-American female superintendents in the state of Georgia in 2011 were typically between 51-55 years old (57.14%), and married (85.71%) with two or more children (100%). Usually, African-American female superintendents in Georgia had an educational specialist degree (42.86%) and 9 or more years (57.14%) of experience as an administrator. The typical path from classroom teacher to the superintendency was also followed by African-American female superintendents in the state of Georgia. Most often working in a rural community (85.71%), the African-American female superintendent in the state of Georgia in 2011 served a school district size of 1,000 to 4,999 students (71.43%).

Collapse of Demographic Categorical Variables

There were only 40 individuals in the sample, and a relatively large number of predictors and categories. This difference could create difficulty for a statistical analysis because of small sample sizes in various categories. For example, the predictor “previous position” had only one individual who had only been an Assistant Principal and one individual who had held the highest position of Business Management, but

larger numbers of individuals who had held their highest position in other categories. Therefore, it was necessary to "collapse" some of the categorical variables down to fewer categories with more cases in each category. The collapsing of variable categories provided more of an opportunity to discover significant effects of demographic variables, and these new categories were determined after performing informal preliminary analyses. The informal preliminary analysis was conducted through examination of each category and the number of respondents in each category. For example, "principal" and "assistant principal" were combined, as each title was "principal." The degree categories of "Master's degree" and "Educational Specialist degree" were combined. These degree categories were combined because the Educational Specialist degree, considered a terminal degree in the state of Georgia, was not a degree classification in the national study. The researcher collapsed these variables so that findings from this research could be compared to the national study. Similar analyses were made to determine which variables to collapse. The new categorical variables for analysis are as described below:

- Age: a new variable with three levels, "50 and under," "51 to 55," and "56+";
- Ethnicity: a new variable with two levels "White" and "Non-White";
- Degree: the categories of "Master's degree" and "Educational Specialist degree" were combined;
- Previous Position: the categories of "Assistant Principal" and "Principal" were combined, as were "Assistant Superintendent" and "Business Management";
- School size: school sizes of "<999" and "1000-4999" were combined.

Despite small sample sizes for the category of School Setting, no changes were made to this variable because the comparison of most interest would be the comparison of Urban schools to schools in Rural and Suburban settings. Combining Urban and Suburban categories would not have assisted with this goal. The new class level information is shown in Table 15.

Table 15

New Class Level Information

Class	Values
Age	36-50 51-55 56+
Ethnicity	White Non-white
Marital	Married Divorced
#Children	1 2 3 or more
Degree	Master's/Education Specialist Doctorate
Tenure	1-8 Years > 9 years
Previous Position	Assistant Principal/Principal Central Administrator Assistant Superintendent/Business Management
School Size	<5000 5000+
School Setting	Rural Suburban Urban

RESEARCH QUESTION #2:

To what extent do female superintendents in Georgia vary in terms of their leadership behaviors within Bolman and Deal's four organizational frames?

As previously described, the four leadership frames of Bolman and Deal (1984, 1991, 1997, 2003, & 2008) utilized in this study included structural, human resources, political and symbolic. Each of these frames involved eight different survey questions. An average of the question scores as the score for each single frame was obtained. For clarification, the frame variable structural was the average of questions 1, 5, 9, 13, 17, 21, 25, 29 on the survey. The frame variable human resource was the average of questions 2, 6, 10, 14, 18, 22, 26, and 30. The average of questions 3, 7, 11, 15, 19, 23, 27, and 31 represented the political frame variable, and the average of questions 4, 8, 12, 16, 20, 24, 28, and 32 pertained to the symbolic frame variable. To obtain the frequency distribution for a particular frame, each participant's scores for the frame were first averaged. Then, the entire group's averages were averaged. These frame scores were treated as continuous variables, since they were the means of eight scores. Table 16 gives the distribution statistics of the four frame variables.

Table 16

Distribution Statistics of Four Leadership Frame Variables

Variable	N	Minimum	Median	Maximum	Mean	Std Dev
Structural	41	3.63	4.38	5	4.35	0.42
Human Resources	41	3.88	4.63	5	4.54	0.31
Political	41	3.50	4.25	5	4.16	0.40
Symbolic	41	3.63	4.25	5	4.26	0.38

Overall, the female superintendents in Georgia who participated in this study perceived that they utilized all four frames of leadership, as indicated by a mean of 4.0 or more in each frame. The participants' means were similar in the symbolic and structural frames. In addition, the subjects reported significantly different leadership behaviors within the political and human resources frames. In essence, their scores were lower in the political frame and higher in the human resources frame.

RESEARCH QUESTION #3: Is there a significant relationship between any of the demographic variables (educational, professional, and personal backgrounds) and the leadership styles and leadership behaviors of female superintendents in the state of Georgia?

First, the relationship between each frame variable and each of the demographic categorical variables was examined individually, for a total of 36 separate analyses. The one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to compare the means of the response (frame variable) at different levels of the independent variable (demographic variable). The ANOVA was appropriate for using categorical variables (such as the

demographic variables) to predict a continuous variable (such as the frame scores) (Roberts & Russo, 1999). For example, consider the structural frame and age variables. The null hypothesis was that different age groups had no significant difference in their structural scores, meaning that on average in the population the structural scores would be the same no matter which age group a respondent was in. To test the null hypothesis, an F statistic (based on the size of the average differences between the structural scores of the age groups, as well as the variability of the individual scores) and its corresponding P-value were produced. The P-value for the analysis was defined as the probability that a population with no differences among the demographic categories would produce a sample with differences greater or equal to the differences found in the chosen random sample. If that probability was less than a significant level (usually 0.05 is used), then the null hypothesis was rejected, and it was concluded that there was significant difference among the demographic categories in the frame scores. Table 17 gives a summary of the 36 one-way ANOVA results for each frame variable and each demographic categorical variable.

Table 17

Summary of ANOVA Results

Response	Source	DF	Anova SS	Mean Square	F Value	P-Value
Structural	Age	2	0.434	0.217	1.24	0.3
	Ethnicity	1	0.017	0.017	0.09	0.764
	Marital	1	0.122	0.122	0.68	0.413
	#Children	2	0.672	0.336	1.96	0.156
	Degree	1	0.153	0.153	0.86	0.359
	Tenure	1	0.013	0.013	0.07	0.791
	Previous Position	2	0.781	0.390	2.37	0.1079
	School Size	1	0.081	0.081	0.45	0.5057
	School Setting	2	0.497	0.248	1.44	0.250
Human Resources	Age	2	0.205	0.102	1.08	0.349
	Ethnicity	1	0.025	0.025	0.26	0.614
	Marital	1	0.016	0.016	0.16	0.690
	#Children	2	0.174	0.087	0.89	0.418
	Degree	1	0.056	0.056	0.58	0.450
	Tenure	1	0.006	0.006	0.06	0.812
	Previous Position	2	0.186	0.093	0.98	0.3856
	School Size	1	0.001	0.001	0.01	0.941
	School Setting	2	0.151	0.076	0.79	0.463
Political	Age	2	1.206	0.603	4.73	0.0148
	Ethnicity	1	0.056	0.056	0.36	0.550
	Marital	1	0.092	0.092	0.60	0.444
	#Children	2	0.824	0.412	2.92	0.067
	Degree	1	0.167	0.167	1.11	0.300
	Tenure	1	0.011	0.011	0.07	0.791
	Previous Position	2	0.676	0.338	2.38	0.1064
	School Size	1	0.115	0.115	0.75	0.3919
	School Setting	2	0.340	0.170	1.13	0.335
Symbolic	Age	2	1.181	0.590	4.97	0.0123
	Ethnicity	1	0.207	0.207	1.46	0.234
	Marital	1	0.066	0.066	0.46	0.504
	#Children	2	0.737	0.369	2.75	0.077
	Degree	1	0.113	0.113	0.78	0.382
	Tenure	1	0.014	0.014	0.10	0.758
	Previous Position	2	0.662	0.331	2.49	0.0965
	School Size	1	0.010	0.010	0.07	0.7939
	School Setting	2	0.323	0.162	1.14	0.331

Final Models

From Table 17, it can be seen that few predictor variables showed significant relationships with the response variables. Technically, the next analysis would be to examine potentially significant interactions between predictor variables. However, when attempts were made to examine interactions between the categorical predictor variables, even after minimizing the number of categories, there were fairly severe confounding problems caused by the small sample sizes within certain categories and large number of categories. Therefore, a final model was built without including any interactions. Using a backward selection method (which started with a full model and removed the most insignificant variable at each step according to P-values), two final models were selected as shown in Table 18 and Table 19. There was no significant relationship between any demographic variables and structural or human resource scores; however, age had significant effects on both the political and symbolic frames. The interpretation of the P-value was the same as in subsection 3.1. “R-Square” in the following tables can be considered as the proportion of variance of response explained by the model.

Table 18

Final Model for Prediction of Political Frame

Source	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	P-Value	R-Square
Age	2	1.21	0.60	4.73	0.0148	0.204
Error	37	4.72	0.13			
Corrected Total	39	5.92				

Table 19

Final Model for Prediction of Symbolic Frame

Source	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	P- Value	R- Square
Age	2	1.18	0.59	4.97	0.0123	0.212
Error	37	4.40	0.12			
Corrected Total	39	5.58				

In order to determine the reason that age was a significant predictor of political and symbolic frame scores, pairwise tests of significance were performed between each of the three age groups. The Tukey-Kramer test is a comparison adjustment for the P-values and confidence limits for the differences of means, which is used when performing multiple tests to ensure that the family-wise error rate is no greater than 0.05, rather than each individual test. The following two tables give the significance testing results based on the mean differences. Table 20 indicates that individuals of ages 36-50 had significantly different political frame scores from those of ages 50-55, but neither was significantly different from individuals of age 56+. Table 21 shows that mean symbolic scores were similar for individuals of ages 50-55 and 56+, but significantly different for individuals of ages 36-50 when compared to older individuals.

Table 20

Political Score Means

Age	Political Mean Score	Group	
50 - 55	4.40	A	A
56+	4.14	B	
36 - 50	3.92		B

Table 21

Symbolic Score Means

Age	Symbolic Mean Score	Group
50-55	4.45	A
56+	4.29	
36-50	3.99	B

Mixed Model

The last research question sought to determine how female superintendents in Georgia varied in terms of their leadership behaviors within Bolman and Deal's four organizational frames. For this question, a mixed model was used in which each subject had a random effect on the frame scores, while the four frames had fixed effects. This model was necessitated because each participant recorded a score for all four of the frames. A mixed model allowed consideration for the differences on a participant-by-participant basis, which provided more power (ability to detect differences) for the

analysis. In addition, the four test scores were treated as a type of repeated measurement (as they were all measured on each subject) and included an unstructured covariance structure among the tests scores to account for the correlation from test to test (for example, participants who score "high" in one frame may have consistently scored "high" on another frame as well). Table 22 gives the summary of the results for the effect of "frame." The very small P-value (<0.0001) indicates a significant effect of the frame. In other words, there were significant differences among the four frames.

Table 22

Fixed Effects in the Mixed Model

Effect	Num DF	Den DF	F Value	P-Value
Frame	4	36	2287.08	$<.0001$

Again, the frames scores were tested as to whether they were different from one another by testing pairwise comparisons of the Least-Squares-Means differences. The LS-Means estimates and group results based on "Tukey-Kramer" adjustment at level 0.1 are shown in Table 23. These tests indicate that the female superintendents in this study tended to score lowest in the political frame, to score similarly in the symbolic and structural frames, and to score highest in the human resource frame.

Table 23

Means of Frame Scores of All Participants

Variables	LS-Means	DF	GROUP
Political	4.1437	39	A
Symbolic	4.2469	39	B
Structural	4.3344	39	
HR	4.5281	39	C

Overall, there were significant relationships between age and average scores on the political frame, as well as age and average scores on the symbolic frame. In essence, female superintendents aged 36-50 who participated in this study perceived that they utilized the political frame less than the female superintendent participants aged 50-55. Similarly, younger female superintendents aged 36-50 perceived their use of the symbolic frame to be less than older female superintendents aged 50+.

One additional note: an assumption of ANOVA is that the size of the predicted errors in the model should be normally distributed. With "small" data sets such as the data set in this study, it is sometimes difficult to determine whether normality holds for the analysis performed. No clear-cut departures from normality were seen in the residuals; however, a non-parametric test, the Kruskal-Wallis Test, was used additionally to test for differences in each frame among levels of demographic categorical variables (Siegel & Castellan, 1988). Similar results were obtained, and are therefore not reported here.

Qualitative Data

The last section of the survey was qualitative and helped to obtain views of female superintendents through open-ended questions. The open-ended questions provided an opportunity for these women to supply their views about leadership and the impact of gender. Each question related to a frame within the Bolman and Deal (1984, 1991, 1997, 2003, & 2008) framework for organizational leadership. The first open-ended question asked respondents to describe their perceived strengths and weaknesses as leaders. This question related to the most and least utilized leadership characteristics or frames of the female superintendent, which was the primary focus of this study. The second open-ended question requested participants to describe the administrative structure of their districts, such as top-down, lateral, etc. This question correlated to the structural frame of the Bolman and Deal (1984, 1991, 1997, 2003, & 2008) framework. The third open-ended question pertained to the participants' relationships with the administrators and board members in the school district, asking the participants to describe how they develop and sustain relationships with the administrators and board members in their districts. The human resource frame of the Bolman and Deal (1984, 1991, 1997, 2003, & 2008) model corresponded most closely to the third open-ended question. The last open-ended question, which was tied to the symbolic frame, asked respondents to describe how they motivate administrators, faculty, and staff to work toward school district goals.

The qualitative data was studied to expand the understanding of the quantitative findings in this study. Significance in the responses to the open-ended questions was determined by a count or percentage of the number of the population participating in the

research study who gave the same or very close responses. Thirty-six of the 41 (88%) participants in this study responded to the open-ended questions. During the Level 1 coding process, the participant's responses were added verbatim into Dedoose version 3.3.66 (2011), a web application for qualitative and mixed methods research. The encrypted raw data files of demographic characteristics and open-ended questions from Question Pro (2011) were imported into Dedoose (2011). Each participant already had an assigned random identification number that had been assigned by Question Pro (2011). Since Dedoose (2011) used encrypted storage, the identity of the participants could not be determined by the researcher or by future readers. To complete the Level 1 coding process, the researcher coded meaningful segments of information into excerpts by highlighting sections and saving them into the web application.

Level 2 and Level 3 coding procedures were also completed using the Dedoose (2011) web application for qualitative and mixed-methods research. During the Level 2 coding process, Level 1 excerpts were reviewed for common themes and patterns and then clustered into categories. The Dedoose (2011) web application assisted this process by providing a chart with frequency counts for Level 1 excerpts. Next, the researcher assigned labels or descriptor codes to each of the category clusters. The Level 2 descriptor codes included communication skills, collaboration/teamwork, honesty, motivating others, organizational skills, goal-setting, political skill, creativity, lateral/collaborative structure, top-down structure, and situational structure.

These Level 2 descriptor codes were then examined for refined themes for Level 3 coding. After these themes were identified, frequency counts were accumulated through the web application and then analyzed by the researcher. The major themes

identified included personal attributes for leadership, collaboration, and structure of the organization. The open-ended questions presented to the participants specifically related to personal attributes and to each of these areas of Bolman and Deal's (1984, 1991, 1997, 2003, & 2008) framework, thus the participant's frequency of responses and resulting major themes were limited to these main categories or themes. These results were then organized and described in narrative form.

Personal Leadership Traits

Many of the participants answered the open-ended questions by providing only a one-word description or list of their attributes for leadership. These descriptions were clustered into the theme of personal leadership traits. The personal attributes reported by the participants included communication skills, honesty, motivating others, organizational skills, goal-setting, creativity, and political skill.

The majority of replies to the open-ended questions contained comments related to the importance of communication skills. In essence, twenty-six of the thirty-six participants (72%) responding to the open-ended questions stressed communication skills in one or more of their answers. Comments about communication skills occurred most often within question one, which pertained to the participants' self-perception of leadership strengths. Twelve of the 36 participants who answered the open-ended questions referred to communication as leadership strengths. Most participants simply listed "communication" or "communication skills" as a strength and did not elaborate; however, some of the participants replied with comments, such as "I have strong communication skills and am approachable as an administrator."

The category of communication skills was also used, but to a lesser extent in response to open-ended questions three and four. Related to the human resource frame (Bolman & Deal, 1984, 1991, 1997, 2003, & 2008), open-ended question three asked the participants to describe how they foster relationships with the administrators and board members in their districts. One participant wrote “I believe that the key to all relationships is effective communication, and I believe that communication is a two-way process. I encourage administrators and board members to contact me with concerns and I contact them with concerns.” Another participant elaborated “I have learned of the importance of spending time in conversation outside of formal meetings, sharing books, ideas, and getting to know them personally.” Yet another participant described relationship building as “constant communication through phone calls, emails, lunches that I host at the central office, writing personal notes, and leaving messages for their families on their home phones.”

As related to the symbolic frame of Bolman and Deal (1984, 1991, 1997, 2003, & 2008), open-ended question four sought methods for motivating administrators, faculty, and staff to work toward school district goals. One participant wrote “we celebrate accomplishments through written and verbal communication.” Another participant reported the use of communication as a method for motivation by “continually bringing the mission and goals to the table for discussion.” Finally, one respondent utilized communication to state goals and progress toward the goals because “when measures of success are acknowledged, the pride in accomplishment is instilled and continues.”

Other personal attributes described by participants included honesty, motivating others, goal-setting, creativity, organizational skills, and political skill. The attributes of

honesty, motivating others, goal-setting, and creativity were simply listed without elaboration as strengths or as a means to answer human resource, symbolic, or structural frame questions. Organizational skill was often listed as both strengths and weaknesses; however, there was no elaboration.

Political skill was determined to be a subtheme noted within personal traits of leadership, as 7 out of 36 participants referred to political skill to answer the open-ended questions. The subtheme of political skill was most often noted as a self-described weakness of the participants. Five out of seven participants who wrote about political skill in their responses indicated a leadership weakness in this area. For example, participants wrote “I need to be more politically engaged” and “My weaknesses include the tendency to procrastinate and impatience with some politicians (and it shows at times.)” One of the seven respondents described using political skill to develop relationships with board members, but did not state political skill as a strength of leadership. In contrast, one of the seven participants who referred to political skill when replying to the open-ended questions indicated a leadership strength of being “politically astute.” This outlier belonged within the age demographic of 51-55 years.

Collaboration

The personal attribute of collaboration was listed by 26 of the participants as a leadership strength in response to open-ended question one or as a means to foster relationships with or motivate stakeholders in response to open-ended questions three and four, pertaining to the human resource and symbolic frames. While most participants simply listed the term “collaboration” to answer an open-ended question, one participant wrote “My leadership strengths lie in collaboration; I believe that the

employees of our system make up a team that is formidable and that we must maximize on every individual's strength.”

Structure of the District

Open-ended question two pertained to the administrative structure of the participant's district and was designed to relate to the structural frame. Leaders who operated in this frame stabilized the organization through rules, policies, and a hierarchy of leadership (Bolman & Deal, 1984, 1991, 1997, 2003, & 2008). Thirty-six of the participants answered this open-ended question. Sixteen of the respondents listed a lateral or collaborative structure of their districts. For example, one respondent wrote “we work together on almost everything because we are so small.” Nine of the respondents indicated that the structure of their districts was top-down, with the school board and superintendent at the top and the teachers at the bottom of the structure. Nine participants provided descriptions of the administrative structure of their districts which indicated a situational structure. For example, one respondent described the district as “top-down on some issues, lateral and bottom-up on others. It is situational.” One participant's presented a conflicting response, in that a “lateral” and “collaborative” structure was described; however, goal-setting for the district was described in first-person: “I always focus on what is best for our students and I tie goals to helping our students succeed.” One participant, hailing from a district described as top-down, had a vision of what a district's structure should look like:

My personal belief is that the chain of command is upside down. As superintendent, I see myself and the board of education as those that serve the most stakeholders, so I place us at the bottom of an inverted pyramid. Above us

would be central staff administrators, building level administrators, and teachers, with students, parents, and community members at the top. Common goals must be developed by everyone, not decided at the central office and passed down. Buy-in is developed by investment.

Overall, the participants answering the open-ended questions indicated communication skill as a leadership strength and as a method for operating in the human resource, symbolic, and political frames. Collaboration was also a theme that was listed as both a leadership strength and as a method for operating in the symbolic and human resource frames. Lastly, answers pertaining to the administrative structure of the districts varied widely.

Summary

The results of this study in terms of the leadership orientation of female superintendents in Georgia for the 2011 were explored in-depth in this chapter. Descriptive and inferential statistics were employed to examine the survey results in terms of the demographic data and the relationship between the independent and dependent variables. Major themes and categories were determined from the open-ended questions and described.

Demographic data gained from the survey indicated that the typical female superintendent in the state of Georgia in 2011 was between 51-55 years old, white, and married with two children. With an educational specialist degree and nine or more years of experience as an administrator, the career path of the female superintendent typically began as a classroom teacher, and moved to positions of assistant principal, principal, and central office administrator or assistant superintendent before finally

attaining the position of superintendent. The female superintendent in the state of Georgia in 2011 typically worked in a rural setting in a school district size of 1,000 to 4,999 students. African-American female superintendents in Georgia were very similar to their white counterparts for all variables.

The leadership orientations of the participants were determined using Bolman and Deal's Leadership Orientation Instrument-Self (1990). The subjects of this study reported multi-frame usage, with similar leadership behaviors in symbolic and structural frames, but significantly different behaviors in political and human resources frames. The human resource frame was found to be the highest in usage among the participants' survey responses. A low orientation to the political frame was also noted. Overall, there were significant relationships between age and average scores on the political frame, as well as age and average score on the symbolic frame. In both instances, younger respondents reported lower usage of the particular frame of leadership compared to older respondents.

Finally, the qualitative component of this study produced three major themes or categories: personal attributes for leadership, collaboration, and the structure of the organization. The personal attribute of communication skill was mentioned by most of the participants as strengths of their own leadership or as a means to foster relationships with or motivate stakeholders. Political skill, when mentioned, was most often self-reported as a weakness of the participants; however, one participant from the 51-55 age group listed this area as a strength. The theme of collaboration was found as a leadership strength and as an approach for operating within the human resource and symbolic frames. Overall, the participants reported varied district structures.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

This final chapter is divided into eight sections. The first section summarizes the purpose of this study, restates the research questions posed in this study, and summarizes the methodology of this study. The second section is a summary of the analysis of the research findings. The third section presents a discussion of the research findings. The fourth section offers conclusions the researcher has drawn from this study. Implications from this research are described in the fifth section of this chapter. The sixth section of this chapter provides recommendations for further study and for how the results of this study may be utilized. The seventh section describes how the results of this study will be disseminated. Finally, the researcher's concluding thoughts are presented.

Summary of the Study

The purpose of this research was to examine the leadership orientations of female superintendents in the state of Georgia in 2011 using the Bolman and Deal (1984, 1991, 1997, 2003, & 2008) theoretical framework of organizational leadership. Bolman and Deal categorized leadership behaviors and strategies in terms of four metaphorical frames: structural, human resource, political, and symbolic. Similar to current leadership research, Bolman and Deal (2003) hypothesized that successful leaders possessed and integrated each of these four frames in practice. A mixed-methods design was used to study the following research questions:

1. To what extent do female superintendents in Georgia vary in terms of their personal (educational level, years of experience, race) and school district (location and size) demographics?
2. To what extent do female superintendents in Georgia vary in terms of their leadership behaviors within Bolman and Deal's four organizational frames?
3. Is there a significant relationship between any of the demographic variables (educational, professional, and personal backgrounds) and the leadership styles and leadership behaviors of female superintendents in the state of Georgia?

A descriptive survey approach was used as the research design of the study.

The researcher collected and analyzed both quantitative and qualitative data to answer the research questions. The Leadership Orientations Instrument-Self (LOI-S) survey (Bolman, 1990) was utilized, along with demographic and open-ended questions, to answer the research questions. First, a pilot study was conducted and then modifications were made to the original survey in order to clarify the instructions. Next, the final survey was sent electronically to all female school superintendents listed within the Georgia Superintendents Association (2011). Since this research occurred during the change of school years between 2010-2011 and 2011-2012, the surveys were subsequently sent again electronically to superintendents new to the position for 2011-2012. A total of forty-one of the fifty-four electronically distributed surveys were returned, which established a return rate of 76% for this study, which was considered adequate for a small sample in educational research (Johnson & Christensen, 2012).

Analysis of Research Findings

The analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data collected during this research permitted the following conclusions to be made regarding female superintendents in the state of Georgia and their usage of the four Bolman and Deal (1984, 1991, 1997, 2003, & 2008) leadership frames.

Research Question 1: To what extent do female superintendents in Georgia vary in terms of their personal (educational level, years of experience, race) and school district (location and size) demographics?

Based upon the self-reported demographic data from the online survey, the typical female superintendent in the state of Georgia in 2011 was between 51-55 years old, white, and married with two children. More than likely, a female superintendent in the state of Georgia in 2011 had at least an educational specialist degree and 9 or more years of experience as an administrator. The majority of these female superintendents' career paths typically began as classroom teachers, moving up the hierarchy to assistant principals, principals, and central office administrators or assistant superintendents before finally attaining the superintendency. The typical environment for a female superintendent in Georgia was a rural setting in a school district size of 1,000 to 4,999 students.

In addition, the typical African-American female superintendent in the state of Georgia in 2011 was very similar to the white counterpart. African-American female superintendents in the state of Georgia in 2011 were typically between 51-55 years old (57.14%), married (85.71%), with two or more children (100%). Usually, African-American female superintendents in Georgia in 2011 had an educational specialist

degree (42.86%) and 9 or more years (57.14%) of experience as an administrator. The typical path from classroom teacher to the superintendency was also followed by the African-American female superintendent in the state of Georgia in 2011. Most often working in a rural community (85.71%), the African-American female superintendent served a school district size of 1,000 to 4,999 students (71.43%).

Research Question 2: To what extent do female superintendents in Georgia vary in terms of their leadership behaviors within Bolman and Deal's four organizational frames?

The leadership orientations of the participants were determined using Bolman and Deal's Leadership Orientation Instrument-Self (1990). The Bolman and Deal (1984, 1991, 1997, 2003, & 2008) framework consisted of four frames or orientations in which the leader could operate, including human resource, structural, symbolic, and political. The subjects of this study reported multi-frame usage; however, the human resource frame ($M = 4.54$) was found to be the predominant frame among the participants' survey responses. A low orientation toward the political frame ($M = 4.16$) was found. Additionally, similar leadership behaviors in symbolic and structural frames were noted.

The qualitative data strengthened these findings, as the majority of participants reported strengths in the areas of communication and collaboration, which are correlated to the human resource frame. Also similar to the quantitative findings, other than one outlier, political skill was only described by participants in terms of a self-reported weakness in leadership.

Research Question 3: Is there a significant relationship between any of the demographic variables (educational, professional, and personal backgrounds)

and the leadership styles and leadership behaviors of female superintendents in the state of Georgia?

Overall, significant relationships were found between age and average scores on the political frame, as well as age and average score on the symbolic frame. In both instances, younger respondents reported lower usage of each frame of leadership compared to older respondents. In essence, female superintendents aged 36-50 who participated in this study perceived that they utilized the political frame less than the female superintendent participants aged 50-55. Similarly, younger female superintendents aged 36-50 perceived their use of the symbolic frame to be less than older female superintendents aged 50+. Interestingly, the lone outlier identifying political adeptness as a leadership strength belonged to the 50-55 age group. No other significant relationships between demographic variables and leadership behaviors were found through statistical analysis.

Discussion of Research Findings

This study presented a current profile of female public school superintendents in the state of Georgia for the 2011 in terms of their demographics and perceived leadership orientations. Demographic data about female school superintendents from this study were comparable to the most recent national study of female school superintendents. The results of this study were similar to the growing body of research pertaining to Bolman and Deal's (1984, 1991, 1997, 2003, & 2008) model of organizational leadership in terms of frame usage by female leaders in education. In addition, significance was found in this study relating the political and symbolic frames to the demographic variable of the age of the participants. The following discussion

describes the research findings in terms of the literature review and research questions for this study.

Demographic Variables

The most recent national study of superintendents, *The State of the American School Superintendency: A Mid-Decade Study* (Glass & Franceschini, 2007), indicated that the majority (78%) of school superintendents in the United States were male. Similarly, the majority of superintendents in Georgia during the 2010-2011 school year were males (68%). The numbers of females in this position in Georgia has gradually increased over the past decade, from 15 female superintendents in 1992 (Crawford, 1992) to 54 in 2010 (GSSA, 2010).

The personal and professional demographic data for female superintendents in the state of Georgia in 2011 compared fairly well with their national counterparts in the areas of race, age, marital status, and parental status. Brunner and Grogan (2007) conducted the most recent study pertaining to female superintendents in the United States. The majority of female superintendents in the national sample were white (93%), 55 years of age or younger (70%), married (76%), and had children (77%) (Brunner & Grogan, 2007). Similarly, the majority of female superintendents in Georgia in 2011 were white (80%), 55 years of age or younger (65%), and married (90%) with children (100%). The number of female superintendents in Georgia holding doctorate degrees (45%) was only slightly lower than the national sample (58%). This difference could be attributed to the data showing that the majority of Georgia's female superintendents (47%) held an Educational Specialist degree, a degree that is not available in some states.

Last, the majority of female superintendents in the national sample (72%) most often served school districts with less than 3,000 students (Brunner & Grogan, 2007), which could not be compared to the Georgia sample because of the difference in district size. Female superintendents in Georgia (62%) most often served school districts with 1,000 to 4,999 students and were found to be less likely to serve in small districts of less than 1,000 students (10%). In districts with over 5,000 students, the national sample (26%) and the participants in this study (27.5%) were comparable. In general, the respondents for this study were fairly well representative of the larger population.

In their national study of female school superintendents, Brunner and Grogan (2007) also reported subgroup data about minority female superintendents. Minority female superintendents in the state of Georgia in 2011 varied from the national sample with regard to race and school district setting. While the national minority sample consisted of African-American (95.65%), Hispanic (17%), Native American (13%), Asian (2%), and Pacific Islander (1%) (Brunner & Grogan, 2007), no participants in Georgia reported being Native American, Asian, Multiracial, or Other. The minority participants from the state of Georgia were African-American (17.5%) and Hispanic (2.5%). To protect the identity of the one Hispanic participant, the data of this participant was not reported individually. African-American female superintendents in Georgia were similar to the national sample in that they were also typically married (85.71%), had children (100%), and were between 51-55 years of age (57.14%). However, the vast majority of African-American female superintendents in Georgia (85.71%) worked in rural communities, compared to less than half (37%) of their national counterparts (Brunner & Grogan, 2007).

Leadership Orientations of Female Superintendents in Georgia

Bolman and Deal's (1984, 1991, 1997, 2003, & 2008) model of leadership within organizations has been a well-known typology which consolidated many organizational leadership theories. Because of its multidimensional nature, the Bolman and Deal (1984, 1991, 1997, 2003, & 2008) model described leadership behaviors in terms of four "frames," or guides for decision-making. Leaders had predominant frames which they used most when viewing leadership issues and problem-solving solutions; however, Bolman and Deal (2003) suggested that effectiveness could be increased if the leader recognized the frame in which problems arose and adapted the solution to the appropriate frame. Multi-dimensional use of all four frames was noted to enhance leader effectiveness in a Bolman and Deal (1992) study of educational leaders. Thompson (2000) also noted that leaders who utilized three or four frames were perceived to be more effective in their leadership roles.

Based upon this theory, the female superintendents from the state of Georgia in 2011 practiced all four frames closely associated with effective leadership. Similar to a study of female college vice-presidents (Maitra, 2007), female superintendents in the state of Georgia in 2011 utilized the human resource ($M = 4.54$), structural ($M = 4.35$), symbolic ($M = 4.26$), and political ($M = 4.16$) frames respectively. These findings were also similar to the research of Echols-Tobe (1999), Maitra (2007), and Shah (2008), in which female college administrators utilized multiple frames of leadership and to the research of Edmunds (2007) and Flak (1998), in which female superintendents operated within multiple leadership frames. In contrast, Beck-Frazier's (2007) study of female deans did not find concurrent use of all four frames.

Although multi-dimensional use of all four frames was noted, the female superintendents in this study described themselves as predominantly using the human resource frame ($M = 4.54$). This description agreed with earlier research which indicated that women in educational administration utilized the human resource frame most often (Beck-Frazier, 2007; Edmunds, 2007; Griffin, 2005; Guidry, 2007; McGlone, 2005), but contrasted with Flak's (1998) study in which female superintendents did not operate predominantly in any one frame. Bolman and Deal (2003, 2008) indicated that leaders who operated in the human resource frame placed value on individuals and the relationships between people within the organization, established trust, and recognized the individual and collective needs of employees. Similarly, when answering the open-ended questions in this study, female superintendents in Georgia placed a strong emphasis on communication and collaboration, which are qualities that fall within the human resource frame.

While the female superintendents in this study reported practicing in the political frame, they tended to have the lowest mean ($M = 4.16$) for this leadership behavior, which indicated that these administrators utilized this frame the least often. This finding was very similar to Edmunds (2007) study of female superintendents in New Jersey who also perceived themselves as using the political frame least often, but was in contrast with the Bolman and Deal (1991) study in which male and female educational leaders utilized the symbolic frame the least often.

The Bolman and Deal (1991) study indicated that the symbolic and political frames were most likely to predict effectiveness of the leader. Leaders who successfully executed the political frame often utilized strategic planning, negotiation,

and power effectively and pragmatically in order to succeed. Within the symbolic frame, leaders built a shared vision and identity for the organization by motivating others and fostering an organizational culture (Bolman & Deal, 2003). The female superintendents in this study exhibited the lowest means in the symbolic ($M = 4.26$) and political ($M = 4.16$) frames. Similarly, when answering the open-ended questions in this study, female superintendents in Georgia typically indicated political skill as an area of leadership weakness. If ascribing to the Bolman and Deal (2003, 2008) theory, female superintendents in this study could theoretically enhance effectiveness by becoming more adept in the symbolic and political frames.

Demographic Variables and Leadership Behaviors

In answer to Research Question 3, significant relationships were found between age and average scores on the political frame, as well as age and average score on the symbolic frame. In both instances, younger respondents reported lower usage of each frame of leadership compared to older respondents. Female superintendents aged 36-50 who participated in this study perceived that they utilized the political frame less than the female superintendent participants aged 50-55. Similarly, younger female superintendents aged 36-50 perceived their use of the symbolic frame to be less than older female superintendents aged 50+. No other research with similar findings was located; however, it was hypothesized by the researcher that older superintendents became more active in the political frame because of experience or more familiarity with the political skills needed for the position, such as negotiation and networking.

None of the other demographic variables demonstrated significance with the leadership frames of the participants. Therefore, the level of education of the female

superintendents in this study appeared to have no impact upon their leadership practices. This conclusion agreed with an earlier study (Aaker, 2003) in which the level of education of female administrators was not associated with leadership behaviors. Similarly, no significance was found between the demographic characteristics of race, marital status, and parental status and leadership practices or frames, which suggested that these factors did not impact leadership behaviors for the participants in this study. Age appeared to be a significant factor in use of the political and symbolic frames by female superintendents in the state of Georgia, possibly because of experience in leadership. Bolman and Deal (2008) suggest that leaders who operate in all four frames are more effective. Thus, experience in leadership may have more impact upon effectiveness than any other characteristic of the female superintendent.

Conclusions

The researcher concluded the following from this study:

1. Female school superintendents from Georgia in 2011 were characterized as primarily white, and married with two children. More than likely, female superintendents in the state of Georgia had at least an educational specialist degree and 9 or more years of experience as an administrator. The majority of these female superintendents' career paths typically began as classroom teachers and moved up the hierarchy to assistant principals, principals, and central office administrators or assistant superintendents before finally attaining the position of superintendent. The typical environment for female superintendents in the state of Georgia was a rural setting in a school district size of 1,000 to 4,999 students. This demographic profile of female superintendents

in the state of Georgia in 2011 was fairly similar to the profile of the most recent national profile (Brunner & Grogan, 2007), indicating that a “cookie-cutter” ideology of a female superintendent may exist.

2. In the state of Georgia in 2011, a female was less likely to be in the position of school superintendent in a school district of less than 1,000 students.
3. The vast majority of African-American female superintendents in Georgia worked in a rural community, compared to less than half of their national counterparts.
4. Marriage and family did not appear to be hindrances on the path to the superintendency for females, as the majority of females in the position in Georgia were married with children. In addition, these demographic factors had no impact upon leadership frame usage.
5. No significant correlation was found between the female superintendents’ level of education (i.e. degree obtained) and the four frames of leadership.
6. Georgia female school superintendents reported their leadership strengths to be communication and collaboration and their weakness to be in the area of political skills.
7. Georgia female school superintendents indicated that their leadership style was multi-dimensional across all four frames, with the highest self-rankings in the human resource frame and the lowest self-rankings in the political frame. These rankings were similar to other research related to Bolman and Deal’s (1984, 1991, 1997, 2003, & 2008) framework and female leadership in educational administration.

8. The finding that female superintendents in the state of Georgia operated within all four frames implied that these leaders were equipped with the abilities needed to lead effectively, as the literature pertaining to the Bolman and Deal model has suggested that leaders using multiple frames of leadership would be more successful than those using only single or paired frames.
9. Younger female superintendents in the state of Georgia reported themselves to operate significantly less often within the political and symbolic frames than their older counterparts did. These findings suggest that age and possibly experience, increase adeptness in the political and symbolic areas of leadership.

Implications

The researcher noted the following implications from this research study:

1. The data showed that females were still under-represented in the position of superintendent in the state of Georgia in 2011, especially in smaller school districts of less than 1,000 students. School boards should examine their hiring policies when searching for the best candidates for their school districts.
2. The majority of female superintendents in the state of Georgia in 2011 were white; however, the faculty and student body in the state of Georgia became more diverse. These results implied that recruitment of minorities into educational leadership programs could be needed. In addition, the hiring practices of boards of education could be examined for potential biases.
3. The vast majority of African-American female superintendents in the state of Georgia in 2011 worked in a rural community, compared to less than half of minorities in the same position in the national sample. School boards in urban

districts in the state of Georgia should examine their hiring policies pertaining to race and gender when employing leadership personnel for their school districts.

4. No significant correlation was found between the female superintendents' level of education (i.e. degree obtained) and the four frames of leadership. Therefore, it could be asserted that the level of education (i.e, degree obtained) for female superintendents had no impact upon leadership traits. This information could be useful to school boards seeking candidates for the position of superintendent.
5. The women superintendents in this study operated in multiple frames of leadership, with more frequent use of the human resource frame and less frequent use of the political frame. Similarly, almost all of the participants reported strengths in communication and collaboration but weaknesses in political skills. Moreover, significant in this study was the factor of age in relation to self-reported political skill, as younger female superintendents declared themselves to be less adept in the political frame than their older counterparts did. Colleges with educational administration programs should prepare female students who aspire to be superintendents to become active participants in the political arena through directed forums, research, or internship opportunities. In addition, mentors should assist new female superintendents with networking skills within the school district.

Recommendations

1. The researcher's findings were limited to female school superintendents in the state of Georgia. Similar research should be conducted in other states to present a clearer picture of female leadership in the superintendency.

2. Similar research should be conducted with male school superintendents from Georgia to compare to the results of this study.
3. Brunner and Grogan (2005) sought to find reasons why female central office administrators did not seek the position of superintendent. Similar research could be conducted on female central office administrators in Georgia who aspire to the superintendency to compare their leadership orientations to those of females who already holding the position of superintendent.
4. Similar research should be conducted utilizing both the LOI-Self and the LOI-Other. Most often, the female superintendents in this research rated themselves as using a particular leadership orientation “often” or “always.” Use of the additional instrument, the LOI-Other, by subordinates to the superintendent would verify the accuracy of the female superintendent as to her leadership orientations within the four frames.
5. The majority of participants (72%) who chose to answer the open-ended questions reported “communication skills” as their strength. Perceptions of board members, teachers, parents, and other stakeholders could corroborate this information.
6. The researcher’s quantitative findings indicated that the political frame was the least used leadership frame for female school superintendents in Georgia in 2011. In addition, in response to open-ended questions, women superintendents perceived their weakest leadership ability to be political skills. Professional leadership organizations could be interested in the study results when providing professional development opportunities to members. Colleges with educational

leadership degree or certification programs might be able to utilize this information for course development in the area of working with different political factions.

7. Because leadership ability at the building level could be crucial to the success of a school system, this study could be replicated with male and female principals.
8. A similar study could also be conducted comparing the leadership frames of superintendents to the success of the district, based upon Adequate Yearly Progress and other standardized test measures.
9. Limited information could be gathered from the open-ended questions in this study, as the participants in this study most often answered the open-ended questions using one-word responses or a list. In order to obtain more in-depth information, future studies should incorporate interviews, rather than open-ended questions, as the qualitative component.
10. Because the number of female superintendents in Georgia has gradually increased over the past 10 years, this study should be replicated in 10 more years to determine if any changes have occurred regarding the demographics or leadership orientations of female superintendents in the state of Georgia.
11. This researcher collapsed the degree variables of “Masters degree” and “Educational Specialist degree” for the purpose of statistical analysis and so the results of this study could be compared to the national study. No significance was found between frames of leadership and level of education. The Educational Specialist degree is considered a terminal degree in the state of Georgia. Further research could examine the frames of leadership with individual

degree variables or with the terminal degrees of Educational Specialist and Doctorate combined.

12. Future studies could also include the frame variables of superintendents who are appointed as opposed to those who are elected.

Dissemination

The findings from this research will be distributed to many different individuals and organizations. First, the researcher will share the findings of the research study with Lee Bolman and Terrence Deal, who originated the conceptual framework on which this study was built. The Georgia School Superintendents Association will be provided a copy of these findings in order to have current information regarding female superintendents in the state of Georgia. Participants of this study who requested to receive a copy of the findings by sending the researcher an email address or physical address will also be sent a copy of the findings. In addition, this dissertation will be on file at the Georgia Southern University Library and will be accessible electronically through the doctoral dissertations database and *Dissertation Abstracts International*. Finally, the researcher will submit articles about this study for possible publication. The following journals will be among those contacted: *The School Administrator*, *Educational Administration Quarterly*, *Journal of School Leadership*, and *Educational Leadership*.

Concluding Thoughts

Legislation, such as the *No Child Left Behind Act* from 2002, has made school leaders accountable for each student's achievement or lack thereof. Superintendent leadership has been noted in research to be a crucial component in school reform and student achievement. As school boards struggle to find qualified superintendents to

lead their systems to meet these high-stakes accountability measures, it has been noted statistically that few females attain this position, both nationally and in the state of Georgia. Although there has been a gradual increase in the number of females in the position of superintendent in Georgia, an equal number of male and female leaders in this position has yet to be attained.

This study presented a snapshot of the demographic characteristics and leadership orientations of female superintendents in the state of Georgia in 2011. The results of this study supported other research pertaining to female leadership that was completed using the Bolman and Deal (1984, 1991, 1997, 2003, & 2008) organizational framework in that participants reported that they operated multi-dimensionally, within all four frames of leadership. Also similar to previous research about female leadership and the Bolman and Deal (1984, 1991, 1997, 2003, & 2008) model, the human resources frame was the strongest frame variable, and the political frame was the weakest frame variable reported by female superintendents participating in this research. In addition, significance was noted between the variables of age and the political frame and age and the symbolic frame. Younger female superintendents who participated in this research typically operated less often in these frames. The profile of the demographic variables of the superintendents from the state of Georgia was also very similar to the national profile. The “cookie-cutter” model of a female superintendent noted in this study needs further exploration. As the student population becomes increasingly more diverse, it is crucial that the composition of leaders of school systems become more reflective of this population. Leadership more representative of the U.S.

population can benefit all students because the society students will join when they become adults is richly diverse.

Aspiring women professionals who desire to assume positions as superintendents should have equal opportunities to attain the position as their male counterparts. The female superintendents from the state of Georgia in this study operated within all four frames of Bolman and Deal's framework, which has been an indicator in the literature of successful leadership. These leaders also compared well to their national counterparts in regards to demographic variables. Further exploration into female leadership and impact upon student outcomes is still needed. School boards should carefully consider the leadership orientations of each candidate, regardless of gender, to select the best possible superintendents to lead their districts in 21st century schools.

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APPENDIX A

NATIONAL STUDIES RELATED TO FEMALE SUPERINTENDENTS

STUDY	PURPOSE	PARTICIPANTS	DESIGN/ANALYSIS	OUTCOMES
Brunner & Grogan, 2007	To profile women and the superintendency in 2003.	723 female superintendents and 472 female central office personnel		<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. 60% serve in districts with less than 3,000 students. 2. 18% of all school districts in the United States in 2003 were led by females. 3. Female superintendents in 2003 were white (93%), married (76%), with children (77%), and 55 years of age or younger (70%). 4. Most served school districts with less than 3,000 students (72%). 5. 3/4 of these women obtained a job as a superintendent within one year. 6. 58% had undergraduate degrees in education and held doctorate degrees. 7. 35% had been elementary school teachers. 8. Half followed the typical career path of males. 9. Half followed an atypical pattern and moved up faster.

STUDY	PURPOSE	PARTICIPANTS	DESIGN/ANALYSIS	OUTCOMES
				<p>10. Women superintendents identified many factors for their advancement or success in the superintendency:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> A. instructional leadership B. curriculum knowledge C. interpersonal skills D. organizational relationships <p>11. 88% report relocation as a major barrier to the position.</p> <p>12. 31% of women in the study aged 56 or older were white and 14% were non-white.</p> <p>13. 33% of women of color and 19% of white females became an administrator within 1-5 years of classroom teaching.</p> <p>14. Women of color are two times more likely than white women to wait at least four years to gain the superintendency.</p> <p>15. Women of color were typically married.</p>

STUDY	PURPOSE	PARTICIPANTS	DESIGN/ANALYSIS	OUTCOMES
Cooper, Fusarelli, & Carella, 2000	To survey superintendents in the U.S. about their perceptions of their careers and their role as district leaders.	2,979 Superintendents from across the U.S. (12.2% female)	Quantitative Survey	<p>16. Women of color were more likely to have raised children.</p> <p>17. Almost 1/3 of women of color and almost 1/4 of white women had raised three or more children.</p> <p>18. 27% of women of color and 7% of white women were employed in urban districts.</p> <p>19. African-American female superintendents are twice more likely to perceive themselves as community leaders and change agents than white female superintendents.</p> <hr/> <p>1. 87.8 percent of the superintendents were between 50 and 59 years of age.</p> <p>2. 12.2 percent of the subjects were female.</p> <p>3. Career Paths by gender were examined: A. Female superintendents remained in the</p>

STUDY	PURPOSE	PARTICIPANTS	DESIGN/ANALYSIS	OUTCOMES
				<p>classroom an average of 8.99 and males averaged 6.62 years before moving into leadership.</p> <p>B. Males averaged 8.02 years as a building level administrator and females averaged 5.98 years.</p> <p>C. Males averaged 15.62 years in the central office and females averaged 12.99 years.</p> <p>4. Job Expertise by gender was also examined:</p> <p>A. Males scored high in building construction and bond issue skills.</p> <p>B. Females scored high in race relations, staff development, and curriculum design.</p> <p>5. Job satisfaction examined and females reported higher satisfaction and achievement in the areas of “kids and curriculum” (p. 26).</p> <p>6. Attraction to job by district</p>

STUDY	PURPOSE	PARTICIPANTS	DESIGN/ANALYSIS	OUTCOMES
				<p>type was also surveyed:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">A. Men were significantly attracted to rural districts than women.B. Women were slightly more attracted to large/urban inner city districts, though neither gender was strongly attracted to this type.C. Both genders preferred the suburban job setting. <p>7. Longevity was also examined:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">A. Males averaged 7.57 years in their current position.B. Females averaged 5.01 years in their current position.

STUDY	PURPOSE	PARTICIPANTS	DESIGN/ANALYSIS	OUTCOMES
Glass & Franceschini, 2007	<p>To describe the American school superintendent demographics, professional development, board relationships, career paths, and districts.</p> <p>To identify trend data related to studies conducted at 10-year intervals since 1923.</p>	1,338 superintendents from all geographical areas in the U.S.	Quantitative Survey	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. 21.7% of responding superintendents were female, compared to 16.7% in 2000, and 6.7% in 1950. 2. 58% of female superintendents held doctoral degrees in 2006, compared to 56% in 2000. 3. Female superintendents had more likely been assistant superintendents prior to the superintendency. 4. 39.6% of females and 26.1% of males had been an assistant superintendent, 5. 23.5% of females and 52.5% of males had been a school principal. 6. 64.9% of the time superintendents who were hired in large districts had been a central office administrator. 7. In the 1992 study, females began superintendency in small districts; in the 2006 study, district size was more

STUDY	PURPOSE	PARTICIPANTS	DESIGN/ANALYSIS	OUTCOMES
				<p>evenly distributed.</p> <p>8. 35% of women were employed in suburban districts, 55.4% in rural and 9% in urban districts.</p> <p>9. The number of minority females is still low (6.1%).</p> <p>10. Opinions were asked as to why there are fewer females than males in the superintendency. Reasons were as follows:</p> <p>A. 28.3% of males and 24.2% of females selected <i>working conditions not appealing to women</i>.</p> <p>B. 22.3% of males and 16.1% of females selected <i>family concerns</i>.</p> <p>C. 14.4% of males compared to 28.8% of females selected <i>gender discrimination by boards</i> (twice as many females as males).</p> <p>D. 8.5% of males compared to 16.5% of females</p>

STUDY	PURPOSE	PARTICIPANTS	DESIGN/ANALYSIS	OUTCOMES
Wesson, 1994	To examine the perceived job satisfaction, benefits, self-fulfillment, and personal strengths in the job of superintendent, as well as assess the leadership practices of these subjects.	174 female superintendents from across the U.S.	Mixed Methods A. 174 surveyed B. Telephone interviews of 30 rural/21 urban subjects	<p data-bbox="1528 305 1881 378"><i>selected the presence of a glass ceiling.</i></p> <ol data-bbox="1430 630 1892 1174" style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Leadership Practices Inventory-Self (Kouzes & Posner, 1988) given to all participants. 2. Subjects ranked: 90th percentile for Inspiring a Shared Vision, 80th percentile for Enabling Others to Act, 83rd for Challenging the Process and Modeling the Way, 82nd for Encouraging the Heart. 3. Study based on Self Scores only, which are noted to be higher than observer ratings.

APPENDIX B

Studies Related to Female Superintendents in Georgia

STUDY	PURPOSE	PARTICIPANTS	DESIGN/ANALYSIS	OUTCOMES
Alligood, 2005	To describe Georgia female superintendents' backgrounds, perceptions of isolation related to the superintendency, and the strategies that they used to cope with isolation.	10 female superintendents from Georgia	Qualitative (interviews)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Isolation is felt among female superintendents. 2. Successful superintendents incorporate time for family and friends. 3. Successful superintendents maintain supportive relationships with subordinates. 4. Successful female superintendents practice distributive leadership practices.
Askew, 2004	To obtain information about the career experiences of 3 retired African American superintendents from Georgia.	3 retired African American superintendents from Georgia	Qualitative (oral histories)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Beauty Baldwin, was Georgia's first African American female school superintendent. 2. Mrs. Baldwin served as superintendent in Gwinnett County, Georgia between 1984 and 1994. 3. She was one of only thirteen African American female

STUDY	PURPOSE	PARTICIPANTS	DESIGN/ANALYSIS	OUTCOMES
Crawford, 1992	To describe Georgia female superintendent career paths, perceived barriers to	15 female superintendents (100% of the population at	Qualitative (interviews)	<p>superintendents in the United States in 1984.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 4. Mrs. Baldwin began her career as a teacher for fourteen years, then moved into positions as an assistant principal, principal, and was finally appointed to the superintendency. 5. Her ascent into the superintendency position follows a path similar to national research but the timetable for her attainment of the position was nine years longer than that of her male counterparts. 6. Mrs. Baldwin's leadership characteristics included a positive attitude and an emphasis on teamwork and collaboration. <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The majority of the subjects attained their position from within the system. 2. The majority of the subjects

STUDY	PURPOSE	PARTICIPANTS	DESIGN/ANALYSIS	OUTCOMES
	the position, and leadership characteristics.	the time) from Georgia		<p>had worked in elementary education and the central office prior to becoming superintendent.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 3. Perceived barriers to the position included: stereotyping, lack of experience, male gatekeepers, and family responsibilities. 4. Female leadership characteristics, educational preparation, and administrative experience were all important strategies for attainment of the position. 5. School district demographic data did not indicate a difference in mean scores in attainment.
Lee, 2000	To describe Georgia female superintendents perceptions of the barriers to the superintendency and	21 female superintendents (100% of females in the position at the time)	Qualitative (interviews)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Over half of the women had faced gender barriers such as finance and stereotyping. 2. Mentors were most important in success. 3. Communication skills,

STUDY	PURPOSE	PARTICIPANTS	DESIGN/ANALYSIS	OUTCOMES
	strategies for success in the position.			<p>political support, and credentials were also identified as success factors.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 4. Three (14.29%) of the twenty-one women were African American. 5. The mean age of these women was 55 and the age range was 38 to 67 years. 6. The average number of years of experience in the position for these women was 5.1 years, compared to 8.2 years of experience for all superintendents in the state. 7. 42% of the women superintendents in this study had more advanced degrees than all of the superintendents in the state in 2000. 8. Fourteen (67%) of the women had doctorate degrees. 9. Prior to becoming superintendent, twenty-eight percent of these women had

STUDY	PURPOSE	PARTICIPANTS	DESIGN/ANALYSIS	OUTCOMES
Miller, 2009	To describe barriers faced by females in the superintendency and methods of overcoming the barriers. To describe perceived leadership styles of these superintendents.	5 female superintendents in the state of Georgia who had between one and six years of experience in the position	Qualitative (interview)	<p>held the position of assistant superintendent, 19% were curriculum directors, and 14% worked in another capacity in the central office.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Themes pertaining to the barriers to the position included relocation, responsibilities for home and family, the selection process, feminine expectations, “the good old boy” network, relocation of family, and balance. 2. Most of the women perceived gender discrimination in the hiring process. 3. Time management is an issue associated with gender and the superintendency. 4. The subjects perceived a higher level of stress and many more hours of work than their male counterparts. 5. They noted difficulty

STUDY	PURPOSE	PARTICIPANTS	DESIGN/ANALYSIS	OUTCOMES
Pipkin, 2002	To describe Georgia female superintendents perceptions of the barriers to and strategies for success in the position.	31 female superintendents surveyed; 6 interviewed	Mixed Methods: A. Quantitative: survey B. Qualitative: interview	<p>balancing family and work responsibilities.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 6. Strategies for overcoming the perceived barriers included spirituality, increased spouse participation in family responsibilities, hiring outside help in the home, and stress relief. 7. All five subjects identified a collaborative or team approach to leadership. <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. No statistically relevant major barriers; however, highest barrier was exclusion from the "good old boy network." 2. The number of female superintendents in Georgia was thirty-four. 3. Thirty-one of the thirty four female superintendents were surveyed and six were interviewed. 4. Family support noted as

STUDY	PURPOSE	PARTICIPANTS	DESIGN/ANALYSIS	OUTCOMES
				<p>most successful strategy for obtaining position.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 5. Five of the thirty-one women (16.1%) were African American. 6. The age range for these women was 40 to over 60, with 61.3% between the ages of 50 to 59. 7. More than half (54.8%) of the women had been in the superintendency between one and four years. 8. Thirteen (41.9%) women earned doctorate degrees and eighteen (58.1%) held educational specialist degrees. 9. The career paths included principal (58.1%), the central office (83.9%), and the position of assistant superintendent. (51.6%). 10. Thirty-two percent of the women were superintendents in rural settings and 9.7% were employed in urban.

STUDY	PURPOSE	PARTICIPANTS	DESIGN/ANALYSIS	OUTCOMES
Swain, 2006	To examine the perceptions of the position of superintendent and to present a demographic profile of superintendents in Georgia.	85 out of 180 total Georgia superintendents (27% returning surveys were female)	Mixed Methods A. Survey B. Open-ended questions	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The demographic profile of Georgia school superintendents did not vary much from the national profile of superintendents in the areas of age, gender, and race. 2. Georgia superintendents were characterized as primarily “white (91.8%) males (72.9%) between the ages of 51-60 (71.7%)” (Swain, 2006, p. 130). 3. The national sample indicated 52% of superintendents with an average of more than 14 years in the position. Only 10% of Georgia superintendents in this study had this same amount of experience. 4. “Female superintendents within the state of Georgia reported time management as a greater concern than male superintendents” (p. 133).

STUDY	PURPOSE	PARTICIPANTS	DESIGN/ANALYSIS	OUTCOMES
Whiting Snell, 2009	To examine the perceptions of the barriers of the superintendency for females and strategies for overcoming these barriers.	25 of the 47 female superintendents in Georgia in 2009	Mixed Methods A. 25 subjects surveyed B. 7 in-depth interviews	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 5. Georgia school superintendents in this study indicated that their personal characteristics and instructional leadership abilities attributed to their attainment of the position. 1. Demographic data similar to Swain (2006). 2. Nine themes emerged that were similar to previous studies on barriers and strategies to the superintendency for females.

APPENDIX C

Studies Related to the Bolman and Deal Framework with a Female Leader Component

STUDY	PURPOSE	PARTICIPANTS	DESIGN/ANALYSIS	OUTCOMES
Beck-Frazier, White, McFadden, 2007	To determine leadership frames used by female deans of education using the Bolman and Deal Framework.	15 Female Deans of Education from across the U.S.	Quantitative (survey)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Results indicated that human resource frame had the highest mean score of 4.26, followed by the structural (3.97), political (3.80), and symbolic (3.70) leadership behavior frames. 2. Female deans “often” to “always” exhibited characteristics of the human resource frame. 3. Female deans did not perceive that they functioned in multiple frames. 4. The researchers point out that Bolman and Deal (1984) assert that multiple frames are needed for effective leaders.
Bolman & Deal, 1991	To analyze frame orientations of selected leaders in the field of education.	School district central office officials, college presidents, and	Mixed Methods <ol style="list-style-type: none"> A. LOI Survey B. Narrative 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. There were no significant differences on any of the variables between men and women, and that in

STUDY	PURPOSE	PARTICIPANTS	DESIGN/ANALYSIS	OUTCOMES
		administrators in higher education.		<p>comparable leadership positions, men and women were more alike than different.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none">2. Women rated significantly higher than men on the structural, political, and symbolic leadership frames.3. The narrative component of this research consisted of the participant describing how they would handle a leadership situation. The results were coded into the four frames.4. Leaders used one or two frames frequently in their jobs.5. Only 25% used 3 frames and less than 1% used all 4 frames.6. The symbolic frame was used the least of all leaders, with the exception of college presidents.7. Human resource, political, and structural frames were used by the participants with equal frequency.

STUDY	PURPOSE	PARTICIPANTS	DESIGN/ANALYSIS	OUTCOMES
Bolman & Deal, 1992	To analyze frame orientations of K-12 school administrators in Florida and Singapore.	208 K-12 school administrators from Florida and 220 from Singapore	Mixed Methods A. LOI Survey B. Interviews	<p>8. The symbolic and political frames were most likely to predict effectiveness.</p> <p>1. Women, on average, rated higher than men on every frame.</p> <p>2. All four frames were significantly associated with effectiveness as a leader.</p> <p>3. The structural frame was more a predictor of managerial rather than leadership effectiveness.</p> <p>4. The symbolic frame was more a predictor of leadership rather than managerial effectiveness.</p> <p>5. Women used the symbolic frame more often than men.</p> <p>6. 74% of the Florida participants and 81% of the participants from Singapore used one or two frames most often.</p> <p>7. The symbolic and political frames were used less often</p>

STUDY	PURPOSE	PARTICIPANTS	DESIGN/ANALYSIS	OUTCOMES
Davis, 1996	To identify the self-perceived leadership orientations of secondary principals in Pennsylvania and to determine if gender-based differences in orientations existed.	49 female and 49 male secondary school principals from Pennsylvania	Mixed Methods A. LOI Survey B. Interviews of 10 participants	<p>by all groups, regardless of gender or race.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Both genders reported that the human resource frame is used most often. 2. Females were more likely to emphasize the: A. charismatic component of the Symbolic Frame. B. organized dimension of the Structural Frame. C. powerful dimension of the Political Frame 3. Women reported using all four frame frequently and men reported using one or two frames more frequently. 4. All infrequent users of frames were male. 5. Four of the five top users of managerial frames were female.
DeFrank-Cole, 2003	To examine the self-perceptions of female and male presidents'	21 college and university presidents in the state of West	Mixed Methods A. Surveys (LOI –Self)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. There were no statistically significant differences in leadership frame between

STUDY	PURPOSE	PARTICIPANTS	DESIGN/ANALYSIS	OUTCOMES
	leadership styles at colleges and universities in West Virginia.	Virginia.	B. Interviews	<p>female and male presidents in West Virginia.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> The political frame was used slightly more often by men than by women. During the interviews, it was noted that women perceived themselves as using the human resources frame more often than men.
Echols-Tobe, 1999	To examine African American female college and university presidents' self-reported behavior in relation to Bolman and Deal's four organizational frames.	African American female college and university presidents	<p>Mixed Methods</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> Quantitative - (Survey-LOI-Self) Quantitative - Interviews 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> Individual initiatives, work experiences, and formal leadership development programs helped the subjects learn leadership orientations. Interview data indicated that two-thirds (67%) and LOI-Self data indicated that all (100%) of presidents had multiple frame orientations.
Edmunds, 2007	To examine the leadership frames of women superintendents, to describe how female	71 female superintendents in New Jersey	<p>Mixed Methods</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> Surveys (n=71) (Leadership 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> Female superintendents indicated that their leadership orientation was multi-framed. Subjects perceived

STUDY	PURPOSE	PARTICIPANTS	DESIGN/ANALYSIS	OUTCOMES
	superintendents construct their use of power, and create a demographic profile of women superintendents in New Jersey.		Orientations Survey by Bolman & Deal, 1990) C. Interviews (n=6)	<p>themselves highest in the human resource frame and lowest in the political frame.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 3. Female leaders who were interviewed described their leadership styles as participative and inclusive. 4. Most interviewees had experienced gender bias in the past but thought that women in the superintendency no longer experience this bias. 5. Female superintendents in New Jersey have similar demographics as the national profile.
Flak, 1998	To examine the personal and professional characteristics of female superintendents and to describe their leadership frames as reported by themselves and others.	3 female superintendents from a Mid-Atlantic state. Subordinates were also given a survey, but the number is unknown.	Mixed Methods A. Interviews B. LOI Surveys: LOI-Self LOI-Other	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Women in this study used more than one frame in their leadership. 2. Mean age of women in study was 54, which was 4 ½ years older than the national average (from Glass, 1992). 3. All 3 participants held doctorate degrees, similar to

STUDY	PURPOSE	PARTICIPANTS	DESIGN/ANALYSIS	OUTCOMES
Griffin, 2005	To compare the leadership frames of chairpersons of Biology departments and English departments in baccalaureate colleges with those of chairpersons of the same	455 chairpersons (210 from baccalaureate institutions and 245 were from master's institutions).	Quantitative Survey (LOI-Self and demographic questionnaire)	<p>41.1% from the Glass (1992) national study.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 4. All 3 participants had 10 or more years in the classroom as a teacher. 5. Two participants followed the typical career pattern found by Glass (1992) of teacher, assistant principal, principal, central office, superintendent. 6. The mean number of years in the position for the participants was 8, compared to 10.3 nationally (Glass, 1992). 7. One subject was African American and the other two were white. <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Most chairs reported a single-frame orientation, then a paired-frame, no-frame, and last, a multi-frame style. 2. The human resource frame was the most frequently used single frame orientation. 3. No respondents used the

STUDY	PURPOSE	PARTICIPANTS	DESIGN/ANALYSIS	OUTCOMES
Guidry, 2007	To examine the perceived leadership orientations of female deans with varying demographic and personal characteristics.	39 female university deans from 15 institutions across the U.S. (29 responded)	Quantitative (LOI-Self survey)	<p data-bbox="1482 378 1860 443">symbolic frame as a single frame orientation.</p> <p data-bbox="1434 451 1885 630">4. Female chairs demonstrated a higher utilization of the human resource frame than male chairs regardless of discipline.</p> <p data-bbox="1423 711 1885 889">1. Female deans are more likely to use the human resource frame most often, but in combination with paired or multiple frames.</p> <p data-bbox="1423 898 1885 1109">2. No significant differences found between independent variables of race, age, time in position, discipline area background, parental status, or marital status.</p> <p data-bbox="1423 1117 1885 1255">3. Data indicates female deans are typically white, aged 51-60, married with children, and have 0-5 years of experience.</p>

STUDY	PURPOSE	PARTICIPANTS	DESIGN/ANALYSIS	OUTCOMES
Kolb, 2009	To examine gender differences in leadership styles of Texas superintendents as described by subordinates (lower ranking administrators).	484 high-ranking administrators within 198 school districts in Texas	Quantitative (LOI-Other)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Subordinates ranked female superintendents higher than male superintendents in each of the four frames. 2. The variables of superintendent tenure, setting, and district size did not change the findings. 3. When superintendent educational background (degree) was added, significance continued for the symbolic, political, and human resource frames. 4. When the variable of age was added, all significant findings disappeared.
Maitra, 2007	To examine the perceived leadership orientations of female college vice presidents with varying demographic and personal characteristics.	317 women vice presidents in nonacademic affairs functional areas of higher education in the Carnegie doctoral/research universities	Quantitative (LOI-Self, Bolman and Deal and LPI – Self, Kouzes and Pozner, 1988)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Female college vice presidents (VP's) most often use multiple frames, rather than a single frame. 2. Female VP's scored the highest in the human resource frame, followed by the structural, symbolic, and political frames.

STUDY	PURPOSE	PARTICIPANTS	DESIGN/ANALYSIS	OUTCOMES
Shah, 2008	To examine the perceived leadership orientations of college presidents with varying demographic and personal characteristics.	254 university presidents of master's degree granting institutions	Quantitative (LOI-Self survey)	<p data-bbox="1423 305 1902 407">3. Female VP's most often lead by using the following orientations (in this order):</p> <p data-bbox="1467 488 1839 667">enabling others to act, modeling the way, encouraging the heart, challenging the heart, and inspiring a shared vision.</p> <p data-bbox="1409 743 1902 1325">1. Most presidents used a multi-frame leadership orientation (43.7%), followed by a paired approach (22.4%), then a single-frame (20.9%), and finally, a no-frame approach (13%).</p> <p data-bbox="1409 1003 1902 1138">2. No correlation between the leadership frame when compared to gender, race, age, or marital status.</p> <p data-bbox="1409 1149 1902 1325">3. Descriptive statistics indicated that female, non-white presidents under the age of 60 more frequently used multiple frames of leadership.</p>

STUDY	PURPOSE	PARTICIPANTS	DESIGN/ANALYSIS	OUTCOMES
Thompson, 2000	To examine the differences in gender pertaining to leadership frames and the perceived effectiveness of educational leaders through subordinate responses within the context of two leadership models.	472 subordinate participants (males = 234; females = 238)	Quantitative Survey- Leadership Orientations Survey (Bolman & Deal, 1991)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The subordinate participants rated 57 leaders (males = 31; females = 26) from lower, middle, and upper management levels in secondary and postsecondary institutions 2. No significant differences were found between men and women in their leadership characteristics. 3. Educational leaders using 3-4 frames regardless of their leadership dimension (Quinn's work), are perceived to be more effective in their leadership role.

STUDY	PURPOSE	PARTICIPANTS	DESIGN/ANALYSIS	OUTCOMES
Welch, 2002	To examine the leadership frames and identify the demographic characteristics and academic histories of female presidents of four-year, public and private, coeducational research institutions.	13 female college presidents	Quantitative Survey (Leadership Orientation Questionnaire-Self)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Presidents with 20 or more experience years were dominant in the human resource or symbolic frames. 2. Presidents with less than 20 years exhibited a multi-frame leadership style. 3. Frames were used most often in the following order: the human resource frame, the symbolic, structural, and political frames. 4. 69% of subjects used multiple frames.

APPENDIX D

PILOT STUDY SURVEY INSTRUMENT

Georgia Female Superintendent Survey

Dear Superintendent,

Thank you for participating in this study. The survey will take approximately 10 minutes of your time. As a female superintendent in the state of Georgia, your responses are vital to this research.

All of your responses are sent anonymously in electronic form and neither the researcher nor anyone else will be able to associate your name with your survey responses, so feel free to answer candidly.

LEADERSHIP ORIENTATIONS (SELF)¹

This questionnaire asks you to describe your leadership and management style.

Please check or complete items applicable to you.

I. Behaviors

You are asked to indicate *how often* each of the items below is true of you. Please use the following scale in answering each item: Never, Occasionally, Sometimes, Often, or Always.

Be discriminating! Your results will be more helpful if you think about each item and distinguish the things that you really do all the time from the things that you do seldom or never.

	NEVER	OCCASIONALLY	SOMETIMES	OFTEN	ALWAYS
1. Think very clearly and logically.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
2. Show high levels of support and concern for others.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
3. Have exceptional ability to mobilize people and resources to get things done.	<input type="checkbox"/>				

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4. Inspire others to do their best.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
5. Strongly emphasize careful planning and clear time lines.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
6. Build trust through open and collaborative relationships.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
7. Am a very skillful and shrewd negotiator.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
8. Am highly charismatic.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
9. Approach problems through logical analysis and careful thinking.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
10. Show high sensitivity and concern for others' needs and feelings.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
11. Am unusually persuasive and influential.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
12. Am able to be an inspiration to others.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
13. Develop and implement clear, logical policies and procedures.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
	NEVER	OCCASIONALLY	SOMETIMES	OFTEN	ALWAYS
14. Foster high levels of participation and involvement in decisions.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
15. Anticipate and deal adroitly with organizational conflict.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
16. Am highly imaginative and creative.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
17. Approach problems with facts and logic.	<input type="checkbox"/>				

18. Am consistently helpful and responsive to others.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
19. Am very effective in getting support from people with influence and power.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
20. Communicate a strong and challenging sense of vision and mission.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
21. Set specific, measurable goals and hold people accountable for results.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
22. Listen well and am unusually receptive to other people's ideas and input.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
23. Am politically very sensitive and skillful.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
24. See beyond current realities to generate exciting new opportunities.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
25. Have extraordinary attention to detail.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
	NEVER	OCCASIONALLY	SOMETIMES	OFTEN	ALWAYS
26. Give personal recognition for work well done.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
27. Develop alliances to build a strong base of support.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
28. Generate loyalty and enthusiasm.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
29. Strongly believe in clear structure and a chain of command.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
30. Am a highly participative	<input type="checkbox"/>				

manager.					
31. Succeed in the face of conflict and opposition.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
32. Serve as an influential model of organizational aspirations and values.	<input type="checkbox"/>				

II. Please complete the following demographic questions:

1. Age Category

- 35 and under
- 36-40
- 41-45
- 46-50
- 51-55
- 56-60
- 61-65
- 66+

2. Ethnicity

- African- American
- White
- Hispanic
- Native American
- Asian American
- Multiracial
- Other

3. Marital Status

- Married
- Divorced
- Widowed
- Never Married

4. Children

- none
- 1
- 2
- 3 or more

5. Highest Degree Earned
- Bachelor's Degree
 - Master's Degree
 - Educational Specialist Degree
 - Doctorate
6. School District Size
- <999
 - 1000-4999
 - >5000
7. School District Setting
- rural
 - suburban
 - urban
8. Tenure in Superintendency
- <1 year
 - 1-8 years
 - >9 years
9. Previous Positions Held
- classroom teacher
 - assistant principal
 - principal
 - central office administration
 - assistant superintendent

III. Please complete the following Open-Ended Questions:

1. What are your strengths as a leader? Weaknesses?

2. What is the administrative structure of your district (top-down, lateral, etc.)?

3. How do you develop and sustain relationships with the administrators and board members in your district?

4. How do you motivate your administrators, faculty, and staff to work toward common goals?

Thank you for your participation in this survey.

APPENDIX E

PERMISSION TO USE SURVEY INSTRUMENT

From: Bretz, Sandra J. [mailto:bretzs@umkc.edu]
Sent: Monday, September 08, 2008 12:41 PM
To: alpat@hughes.net
Subject: RE: Research Request - Leadership Orientations instrument

Patricia,
Thanks for your interest in the Leadership Orientations instrument.

I am pleased to offer you permission to use the instrument in your research as well as approve the modification you are requesting in return for your agreeing to the following conditions: (a) you agree to provide us a copy of any publication, dissertation or report that uses data based on the instrument, and (b) you agree to provide, if we request it, a copy of your data file.

The instruments and information about their use, including data on internal reliability, and a list of research using the Bolman and Deal Four Frames Model, can be found at:

http://www.leebolman.com/leadership_research.htm

Best wishes in your research.

Sincerely,

Lee G. Bolman

From: ME [mailto:alpat@hughes.net]
Sent: Saturday, September 06, 2008 12:22 AM
To: bolmanl@umkc.edu
Subject: Research Request

Dear Dr. Bolman,
I am a doctoral student at Georgia Southern University and will be studying the leadership behaviors of female superintendents. I am writing to request permission to use the Bolman and Deal Leadership Orientation Survey Instruments as part of my research. The instrument may need to be modified for my research. If given this permission, I agree to provide you with a copy of my research report and also a copy of the data file. Upon completion of my dissertation, I plan to attempt journal publication of this work.

Thank you in advance for consideration of this request.

Patricia S. Tillman, Doctoral Candidate
Georgia Southern University
(706) 833-2007
patricia_s_tillman@georgiasouthern.edu

APPENDIX F

INFORMED CONSENT LETTER



COLLEGE OF EDUCATION

DEPARTMENT OF LEADERSHIP, TECHNOLOGY, AND HUMAN
DEVELOPMENT

INFORMED CONSENT

1. I am a doctoral student working under the direction of Dr. Brenda Marina in the Department of Leadership, Technology, and Human Development at Georgia Southern University. I am conducting a research study in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education.
2. Purpose of the Study: The purpose of this research is to determine the utilization of leadership behaviors within the Bolman and Deal (1984, 1991, 1997, 2003, & 2008) framework by female superintendents in Georgia.
3. Procedures to be followed: Participation in this research will include completion of basic demographic information, 32 Likert-style items, 6 forced-choice items, and two one-item measures. Open-ended questions are also included in the survey.
4. Discomforts and Risks: There are no risks associated with participation in this study.
5. Benefits:
 - a. The benefits to the participant include learning more about your own leadership behaviors by focusing on the areas of structure, human resources, politics, and symbolic leadership.
 - b. The benefits to society include a better understanding of the leadership traits of female superintendents in Georgia.
6. Duration/Time: This survey will take about 10-15 minutes to complete.
7. Statement of Confidentiality: The researcher will make every effort to protect your name and school affiliation. Internet security cannot be guaranteed. The risk of others reading your responses is very small. However, neither the researcher nor Georgia Southern University can guarantee total anonymity.

8. Right to Ask Questions: Participants have the right to ask questions and have those questions answered. If you have questions about this study, please contact Patricia Tillman or the researcher's faculty advisor, Dr. Brenda Marina, whose contact information is located at the end of the informed consent. For questions concerning your rights as a research participant or the IRB approval process, contact Georgia Southern University Office of Research Services and Sponsored Programs at 912-681-0843.
9. Compensation: There are no costs or compensations associated with participation in the research.
10. Voluntary Participation: You do not have to participate in this research; you may end your participation at any time by not completing the online survey instrument. You do not have to answer any questions you do not want to answer.
11. Penalty: There is no penalty for deciding not to participate in the study; if you decide at any time you do not want to participate further you may withdraw without penalty or retribution.
12. Consent: Your consent to participate in the study will be considered given by your participating and completing the survey.
13. If you have any questions or would like a copy of the completed research study, please contact me using the contact information listed below.
14. To contact the Office of Research Services and Sponsored Programs for answers to questions about the rights of research participants please email oversight@georgiasouthern.edu or call (912) 486-7758.

Please keep this consent form for your records.

Title of Project: LEADERSHIP ORIENTATIONS OF FEMALE SCHOOL SUPERINTENDENTS:
A MULTIDIMENSIONAL FRAMEWORK PERSPECTIVE

Investigator: Patricia Tillman, 7452 Washington Road, Thomson, GA 30824, (706)833-2007,
alpat@hughes.net or patricia_s_tillman@georgiasouthern.edu

Faculty Advisor: Dr. Brenda Marina, Georgia Southern University, Department of Leadership,
Technology, and Human Development, P.O. Box 8131, Statesboro, GA 30460,
(912)478-0510, bmarina@georgiasouthern.edu

APPENDIX G

FINAL SURVEY INSTRUMENT

Georgia Female Superintendent Survey

Dear Superintendent,

Thank you for participating in this study. The survey will take approximately 10 minutes of your time. As a female superintendent in the state of Georgia, your responses are vital to this research.

All of your responses are sent anonymously in electronic form and neither the researcher nor anyone else will be able to associate your name with your survey responses, so feel free to answer candidly.

LEADERSHIP ORIENTATIONS (SELF)²

This questionnaire asks you to describe your leadership and management style.

Please check or complete items applicable to you.

II. Behaviors

You are asked to indicate *how often* each of the items below is true of you. Please use the following scale in answering each item: Never, Occasionally, Sometimes, Often, or Always.

Be discriminating! Your results will be more helpful if you think about each item and distinguish the things that you really do all the time from the things that you do seldom or never.

	NEVER	OCCASIONALLY	SOMETIMES	OFTEN	ALWAYS
1. Think very clearly and logically.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
2. Show high levels of support and concern for others.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
3. Have exceptional ability to mobilize people and resources to get things done.	<input type="checkbox"/>				

²Copyright 1990, Lee G. Bolman and Terrence E. Deal. All rights reserved.

4. Inspire others to do their best.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
5. Strongly emphasize careful planning and clear time lines.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
6. Build trust through open and collaborative relationships.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
7. Am a very skillful and shrewd negotiator.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
8. Am highly charismatic.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
9. Approach problems through logical analysis and careful thinking.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
10. Show high sensitivity and concern for others' needs and feelings.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
11. Am unusually persuasive and influential.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
12. Am able to be an inspiration to others.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
13. Develop and implement clear, logical policies and procedures.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
	NEVER	OCCASIONALLY	SOMETIMES	OFTEN	ALWAYS
14. Foster high levels of participation and involvement in decisions.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
15. Anticipate and deal adroitly with organizational conflict.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
16. Am highly imaginative and creative.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
17. Approach problems with facts and logic.	<input type="checkbox"/>				

18. Am consistently helpful and responsive to others.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
19. Am very effective in getting support from people with influence and power.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
20. Communicate a strong and challenging sense of vision and mission.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
21. Set specific, measurable goals and hold people accountable for results.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
22. Listen well and am unusually receptive to other people's ideas and input.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
23. Am politically very sensitive and skillful.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
24. See beyond current realities to generate exciting new opportunities.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
25. Have extraordinary attention to detail.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
	NEVER	OCCASIONALLY	SOMETIMES	OFTEN	ALWAYS
26. Give personal recognition for work well done.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
27. Develop alliances to build a strong base of support.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
28. Generate loyalty and enthusiasm.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
29. Strongly believe in clear structure and a chain of command.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
30. Am a highly participative	<input type="checkbox"/>				

manager.					
31. Succeed in the face of conflict and opposition.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
32. Serve as an influential model of organizational aspirations and values.	<input type="checkbox"/>				

II. Please complete the following demographic questions:

10. Age Category

- 35 and under
- 36-40
- 41-45
- 46-50
- 51-55
- 56-60
- 61-65
- 66+

11. Ethnicity

- African- American
- White
- Hispanic
- Native American
- Asian American
- Multiracial
- Other

12. Marital Status

- Married
- Divorced
- Widowed
- Never Married

13. Children

- none
- 1
- 2
- 3 or more

14. Highest Degree Earned

- Bachelor's Degree
- Master's Degree
- Educational Specialist Degree
- Doctorate

15. School District Size

- <999
- 1000-4999
- >5000

16. School District Setting

- rural
- suburban
- urban

17. Tenure in Superintendency

- <1 year
- 1-8 years
- >9 years

18. Previous Positions Held (check all that apply)

- classroom teacher
- assistant principal
- principal
- central office administration
- assistant superintendent

III. Please complete the following Open-Ended Questions:

5. What are your strengths as a leader? Weaknesses?

6. What is the administrative structure of your district (top-down, lateral, etc.)?

7. How do you develop and sustain relationships with the administrators and board members in your district?

8. How do you motivate your administrators, faculty, and staff to work toward common goals?

Thank you for your participation in this survey.
Patricia S. Tillman
patricia_s_tillman@georgiasouthern.edu

APPENDIX H
IRB APPROVAL

Georgia Southern University Office of Research Services & Sponsored Programs Institutional Review Board (IRB)		
Phone: 912-478-0843		Veazey Hall 2021
Fax: 912-478-0719	IRB@GeorgiaSouthern.edu	P.O. Box 8005 Statesboro, GA 30460

To: Patricia Tillman
Brenda Marina
Department of Leadership, Technology, and Human Development

cc: Charles E. Patterson
Vice President for Research and Dean of the Graduate College

From: Office of Research Services and Sponsored Programs
Administrative Support Office for Research Oversight Committees
(IACUC/IBC/IRB)

Initial Approval Date: June 21, 2011

Expiration Date: June 21, 2012

Subject: Status of Application for Approval to Utilize Human Subjects in Research

After a review of your proposed research project numbered **H11460** and titled "**Leadership Orientations of Female School Superintendents: A Multidimensional Framework Perspective**," it appears that your research involves activities that do not require full approval by the Institutional Review Board according to federal guidelines. Your approval is for a maximum of **60** subjects.

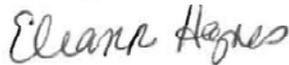
According to the Code of Federal Regulations Title 45 Part 46, your research protocol is determined to be exempt from full review under the following exemption category(s):

- B2 Research involving the use of educational tests (cognitive, diagnostic, aptitude, achievement), survey procedures, interview procedures or observation of public behavior, unless: (I) information obtained is recorded in such a manner that human subjects can be identified, directly or through identifiers linked to the subjects; and (II) any disclosure of the human subjects' responses outside the research could reasonably place the subjects at risk of criminal or civil liability or be damaging to the subjects' financial standing, employability, or reputation.

Therefore, as authorized in the Federal Policy for the Protection of Human Subjects, I am pleased to notify you that your research is exempt from IRB approval. You may proceed with the proposed research.

Please notify the IRB when you have completed the project by emailing irb@georgiasouthern.edu. Include the date of completion, the number of subjects (records) utilized and if there were any unexpected events related to the subjects during the project. (If none, state no unexpected or adverse events occurred during the conduct of the research.)

Sincerely,



Eleanor Haynes
Compliance Officer

APPENDIX I

INITIAL EMAIL TO SUPERINTENDENTS

From: Patricia Tillman
Reply-To: patricia_s_tillman@georgiasouthern.edu
To: SUPERINTENDENT EMAIL ADDRESS

Dear Superintendents,

My name is Patricia Tillman, and I'm a doctoral student in the Educational Administration Program at Georgia Southern University. I am writing to request your assistance with data collection for my dissertation.

The title of my dissertation is: LEADERSHIP ORIENTATIONS OF FEMALE SCHOOL SUPERINTENDENTS: A MULTIDIMENSIONAL FRAMEWORK PERSPECTIVE

The purpose of this study is to identify the leadership behaviors that are most frequently utilized by female superintendents in the state of Georgia.

My methodology involves the completion of a survey by female superintendents in the state of Georgia in 2011.

The survey is short and will take approximately ten minutes of your time. Thank you in advance for your consideration in taking part in my research. As a female superintendent, your responses to these items are very important. Please complete this survey by _____(Two weeks from date email sent)___.

Please note: The survey information you provide is recorded anonymously. Neither the researcher nor anyone else will be able to associate your name with your survey responses so you may respond with complete sincerity. Please click on the link below to take the survey:

<SURVEY LINK HERE>

Regards,
Patricia Tillman
patricia_s_tillman@georgiasouthern.edu
(706) 833-2007

Attachment: Informed Consent Letter

APPENDIX J

FIRST REMINDER EMAIL

From: Patricia Tillman
Reply-To: patricia_s_tillman@georgiasouthern.edu
To: SUPERINTENDENT EMAIL ADDRESS
RE: IMPORTANT SURVEY REMINDER

Dear Superintendents,

Earlier this week, I sent you a request to complete a survey pertaining to female school superintendents in Georgia. Since there are so few female superintendents in the state of Georgia, your input is very important and vital to my research.

If you have already completed the survey, I appreciate your support. If you have not already taken the survey, I would greatly appreciate your assistance. The survey should only take about 10 minutes of your time. Please complete the survey by _(DUE DATE)____.

Again, your information will be sent to me by the online software system and will be totally anonymous. No one will be able to associate your name with your responses, so feel free to answer candidly.

Please click on the link below to take the survey:

<SURVEY LINK HERE>

Regards,
Patricia Tillman
patricia_s_tillman@georgiasouthern.edu
(706) 833-2007

APPENDIX K
SECOND EMAIL REMINDER

From: Patricia Tillman
Reply-To: patricia_s_tillman@georgiasouthern.edu
To: SUPERINTENDENT EMAIL ADDRESS
RE: IMPORTANT SURVEY INFORMATION

Dear Superintendents,

I recently sent you a request to complete a survey pertaining to female school superintendents in Georgia. Since there are so few female superintendents in the state of Georgia, your input is very important and vital to my research.

If you have already completed the survey, I appreciate your support. If you have not already taken the survey, I would greatly appreciate your assistance. The survey should only take about 10 minutes of your time. Please complete the survey by (TWO WEEKS DUE DATE) .

Please click on the link below to take the survey:

<SURVEY LINK HERE>

Thank you for your help.

Sincerely,

Patricia Tillman
patricia_s_tillman@georgiasouthern.edu
(706) 833-2007